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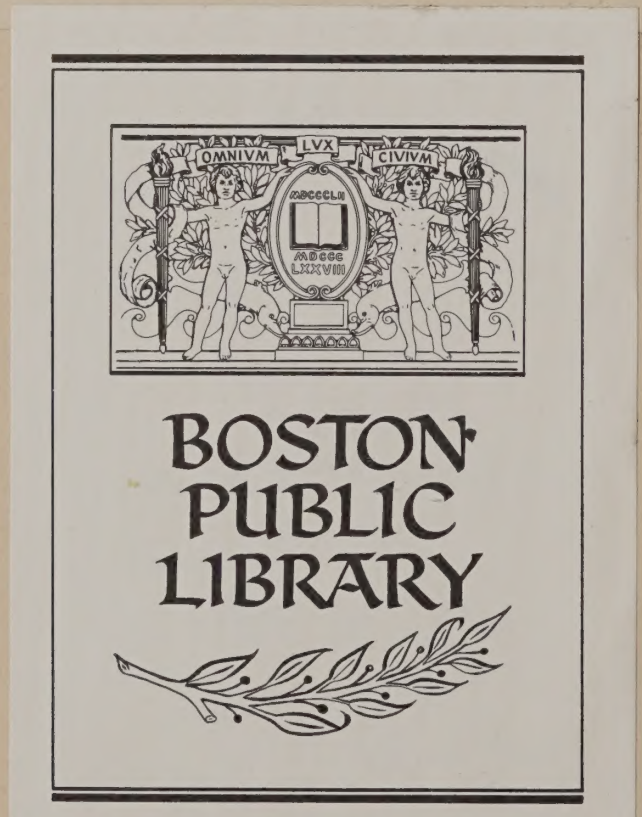

The Nation:

A WEEKLY JOURNAL

DEVOTED TO

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

VOLUME XXIX.

FROM JULY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1879.

NEW YORK:
E. L. GODKIN & CO., PROPRIETORS.

1879.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 3, 1879.

The Week.

THE extra session was brought to a close on Tuesday. The last days were spent in dividing the Judicial Expenses Bill into an acceptable and an unacceptable portion—the one, providing for "certain judicial expenses," passed the House on Thursday and the Senate on Friday, and was signed by the President; the other, providing conditionally for the pay of United States marshals, passed the House on Friday and the Senate on Saturday, and was vetoed by the President. The size of the "revolution" has dwindled down to this latter measure, which the Democrats, incapable of passing over the veto, have refused to amend, and so have gone back to their constituents. The long debate ended in a formal attack on the opposing positions of State sovereignty and National supremacy by Mr. Garfield on the one hand and Mr. Hurd on the other. Is there a national peace? are there national elections? and in what sense? are the questions now referred to the country. The only other noticeable proceedings during the week were the passage by the House on Monday, by 117 to 23, under a suspension of the rules, of a bill putting the salts and sulphate of quinine on the free-list, the Senate agreeing on Tuesday; the introduction by Senator Burnside of a joint resolution declaring it inconsistent with the Monroe Doctrine for European Powers to construct or control a canal across the Isthmus of Darien; the passage of a joint resolution by the Senate appointing a committee to investigate the best means of guarding and collecting the revenue; and the appointment by the House of a committee to sit during the recess and codify and simplify the complicated rules of that body.

The President has sent in a message vetoing the bill containing the appropriation for the expenses of the United States marshals, because it makes no provision for their expenses in attending elections; also another message, urging Congress to provide for the payment of the marshals and their deputies during the coming fiscal year, as the appropriations from which they draw their pay expire on the 1st of July. The reason for the veto is the same as that given in the veto of the Judicial Appropriation Bill—viz., that the refusal to pay the expenses of supervising elections deprives the President of the means of executing laws which he is sworn to execute. Subsequent attempts to pass either an unrestricted appropriation for the marshals or a separate appropriation for their ordinary expenses apart from their election expenses failed, and adjournment leaves them unprovided for. The Republicans are very well satisfied with this situation, and have reason to be. The Democrats say they are satisfied too, but the grounds of their satisfaction is only apparent to those who are better acquainted with the mind of their constituency than we profess to be. As the marshals will not be called on to perform election duties before Congress meets in December no practical inconvenience would have resulted from the President's signing the bill, but there are a good many grave reasons, which he has already set forth, for his refusing to countenance in any way attempts to control him in the exercise of the veto power by presenting him with odious alternatives.

The convention of "the Stalwart Republican party of Maine," as its temporary chairman characterized it, assembled at Bangor last Thursday. It nominated Mr. Daniel F. Davis for Governor, listened to two or three speeches of a ringing order, among them one from ex-Congressman Eugene Hale, and resolved that the country is a nation and not a confederacy of States; that a fair ballot is an important thing; that the Democratic party—in spite, doubtless, of all that Mr. Blaine can do to prevent it—is bent on "reopening exciting and sectional issues"; that "an irredeemable paper currency" is the "worst curse that can be inflicted upon a nation"; that State affairs should be conducted "economically and prudently"; that temperance is "a course which has conferred the greatest benefit on the State"; and that the laws ought to be enforced not only thoroughly but impartially. The resolutions and speeches were of a piece, and from them the independent voter, who is an important agent in Mr. Blaine's constituency, is at liberty to infer that on no subject except the so-called Southern question are the Maine Republicans explicit in their enunciation of principles. And the currency question is in Maine, one would say (reflecting upon the last election there and the distance of the State from Mason and Dixon's line), of considerably more importance than the Southern question. But both the Stalwart speeches and the Stalwart resolutions of the convention contrived to elude the pith of the currency question, and to expend their eloquence in abuse of "irredeemable paper" which will probably seem to Secretary Sherman more zealous than pertinent, and in particularly unspecific eulogy of "coin." It is difficult to see of what benefit this timid and transparent course can be to the Maine Republicans. Mr. Murch and his associates will certainly not be won over by denunciation of greenbacks, and people who oppose the principle of inflation, whether embodied in greenbacks or in "short" silver, will find little encouragement in evident verbal juggling in the matter. The Democrats held their convention at the same place on Tuesday, renominated Governor Garcelon, and did their best to make their platform agreeable to the Greenbackers—an accomplishment which seemed to cost them almost no effort whatever.

A "bi-metallic league" has been formed in Chicago for the purpose of speedily restoring silver to its position as a money metal, "with the rights of coinage the same as gold." The public meeting which gave it birth was called and attended by leading merchants, lawyers, judges, military men, and politicians. Not less than three judges made speeches. One declared that the panic, which ought to have run its course long ago, "still holds us in its grip"; another, that "the act demonetizing silver, in view of the manner of its passage and of its past and prospective evils, was one of the most cruel enactments that could be found on the statute-books of any civilized country"; a third, that "gold and silver were married in remote periods of antiquity, and destined for ever afterwards to go hand-in-hand as equals, and what God had joined together no man should put asunder." This sentiment was received with laughter, though there was no particular reason for its being singled out as amusing. A Colonel Daniels "spoke loudly, long, and earnestly in favor of a free, unlimited coinage of silver." He also provoked laughter and applause by saying that Senator Bayard "knew no more about the subject of finance than a calf." He said further that "the silver-men demanded the silver option; that the contract should be fulfilled; that the dollar paid should be of the same size that the people agreed to pay. If that didn't mean that they were in favor of honest money, he should like to know what honest money was." The League appointed a Publication Committee, and will do what it can to ensure the passage of the Warner Bill next December.

Mrs. Mary Clemmer, one of the Washington correspondents who, we believe, first called public attention, some years ago, to Mr. Conkling's "magnificent torso," has been mourning in a recent letter over the signs of advancing years exhibited by some of her Senatorial heroes. She remarks upon him in particular that not only has he "grown grey and bald," but "the malevolence of his expression has visibly increased." "It must be terrible," she says, "to despise and hate people as much as he looks as if he did. The

supercilious sneer on his lips seems actually to hurt them." Mr. Conkling has been much attacked and abused, but nothing so serious as this defection of the female correspondents has hitherto befallen him.

Mr. Roach, the ship-builder, has written to the New York *Times*, in reply to some remarks of that journal on the carrying trade, reprobating the doctrine that in order to sell to other nations we must buy from them. He says the true plan for us is to sell the foreigners our surplus produce, sent over in our own ships, and take nothing in exchange for it but "bonds and gold," and then let the ships come back in ballast and let us spend the gold on our own manufacturers. That this is sound doctrine he shows by the fact that when we were importing largely from foreigners our bonds were only worth fifty cents on the dollar, but now, when we export much and import little, our bonds and notes are worth one hundred cents on the dollar. If the ships come back in ballast, he says, and bring gold and bonds, it will "fill our Treasury and make cheap money throughout the country." The letter is interesting as an example of the odd notions about trade and its conditions which many shrewd business men entertain, and the small extent to which they think some things out. Mr. Roach evidently believes that we could go on for ever absorbing the gold of the world in return for our surplus products and running home-built ships with freight one way and ballast the other, the loss on the return voyage being made up by subsidies out of the public treasury. Trading vessels are, in fact, in his eyes, a kind of public yachts which need not be made to pay, and a foreigner is a simple-minded man who buys your products for ever as fast as you bring them to him, and delivers his "gold," which he apparently gets out of his private mine without selling anything to anybody, and is never "short."

The *World*, which was an advocate of the theory that Dr. Hull was the murderer of his wife, followed up the discovery of the real murderer by some able remarks on "the perils of circumstantial evidence." It says that "the people who believed Dr. Hull guilty will most rejoice to be relieved of a suspicion dishonoring not only to the afflicted man who was the victim of it, but to human nature itself." But it adds that the suspicion of "the afflicted man" was "terribly plausible," and that "many men have suffered death on evidence less strong than that brought against Dr. Hull." It then goes on to show that of "the three elements of capacity, opportunity, and motive which must be established by circumstantial evidence, that of capacity was apparently lacking, and motive was not proved." In other words, the people who suspected "the afflicted man" acknowledge that he was not physically able to kill his wife as she was killed, and that they know of no reason why he should wish to kill her, and that all they did know was that he might have come into her room in the night, and have killed her had he been able to do so. If this is the case against him, and they thought it sufficient to hang him, it is no wonder that these remarkable jurists rejoice over his vindication. It ought to be observed, however, that the evidence on this view was still stronger against every other inmate of the house, so that the male boarders, at least, have had a narrow escape from the gallows; for every one of them, besides the "opportunity," possessed the "capacity" to commit the foul deed.

Another man accused of wilful murder is now on trial by the newspapers, a Mr. Blair, living at Montclair, N. J., who had a dispute with his coachman and shot him twice. No third person was present when the shooting took place. What has to be ascertained is whether the coachman was trying to use a pistol against his employer when the latter fired at him, and there is evidence that before the fray the coachman was violent and abusive. The Brooklyn *Eagle*, however, which has the reputation of a sober-minded paper, has already heard and decided the case. It says that Blair "abused the coachman to madness because he drank a glass of beer," and that "the miserable despot then went for a revolver, and, without the least provocation, shot his hired man twice in the back," and it pronounces the defence "sheer nonsense." After much vituperation of Blair it adjudges him worthy "to be hung without shrift" by a mob, and also of "punishment compared with which hanging is lenient." The killing, we may remark, was only committed on Friday afternoon, and the *Eagle* found Blair guilty and sentenced him to be hanged on Saturday forenoon. We hope the irruption of historians and jurists into journalism which Mr. Whitelaw Reid promises us, is coming soon, because with this rapidity of process in criminal proceedings it is of the last importance to us all that the newspaper bench should be filled by men of extraordinary capacity.

An enquiry, conducted by the Bar Association, has been going on during the past fortnight before a commissioner in regard to Sheriff Reilly's management of the Ludlow Street jail. This is well known as the place in which Tweed was confined at the time of his death, and more recently as that from which "Red Leary" escaped by the aid of confederates through the wall of his cell into an adjoining house. It appears from the testimony that there are two distinct grades of living in the jail, accordingly as the inmates are "boarders," or down-stairs prisoners, who pay their way, and regular or up-stairs prisoners. The former are exempt from discipline as to hours of rising, exercise, and retiring, and have an unlimited amount of company of both sexes. Scandalous scenes, such as a wife's finding prostitutes in her husband's cell, have occurred; and "Red Leary," who spent most of his time at the bar (fancy a bar as a part of the conveniences of a jail!), had women visitors in his cell, by day and night, who sang songs, "some good, and others not good—not fit to be sung in such a place." A tuneful warden, who frequented the same and other convicts' cells, endeavored to raise the standard by singing "Auld Lang Syne" and "The Sweet By-and-Bye." Other wardens are accused of drunkenness and violence; the cells of the non-boarders are infested with vermin; the sanitary accommodations altogether inadequate; the food often unwholesome and repulsive. In short, if the evidence is to be believed, a more disgraceful state of things could hardly be imagined. Of course the witnesses are nearly all criminals, or men who have lost their character for integrity, and this is made the most of by the counsel for the defence. But there is a general agreement among them which leaves little doubt as to the truth.

Mr. Talmage is having a great success in England, and is making the religious public there familiar with the comic method in the pulpit, and they seem to like it, as funny and "American." He told the congregation of a Presbyterian church in Islington the other day that "it wasn't till Job got a carbuncle and a pest of a wife that he wanted to leave this world," at which there was a "decided titter." In fact, it is not unlikely he will introduce "the titter" in England as a normal feature in public worship. The fact that his Presbytery divided nearly evenly on the question whether he was not guilty of falsehood and deceit, and that he is still in the hands of ecclesiastical justice, does not seem to depress or impede him in the least.

The Harvard-Yale University eight-oared boat-race was rowed last Friday on the course at New London, and resulted in the worst defeat that Yale has ever experienced except, perhaps, in 1872, when she was a bad last of six contestants. There was little noteworthy about the race, save, indeed, that it was no race at all. There was long delay in starting, owing to an accident to the Yale boat and to rough water, and the dusk had almost grown into darkness before the signal was finally given. Yale led at first, but it was only for a moment, and afterwards the interest of a contest was wholly lacking. The four miles were made by the Harvard crew in twenty-two minutes, fifteen seconds, the beaten eight being one minute and forty-three seconds behind them. So far as appears there is little moral to be drawn from the uneventful narrative of the race. Yale was simply out-rowed and badly out-rowed by an exceptionally fine Harvard crew. The delay, due to the rough water, proves that the New London course is not perfect, and its advocates have never pretended that it was; but everything else in

the way of material aid and comfort to a successful race was provided.

Owing to the closing up of speculative and other accounts the past week has been the dullest of the season in the financial markets. The only exception has been in the case of United States bonds, for which the demand has again become very active, especially from the national banks, which have to provide a substitute for their "called" 10-40s. The price of the 4 per cents. has advanced to 103 to 103⅛, and a further rise is anticipated from the demand incident to the reinvestment of the July interest and dividend payments, which are estimated to amount to about $50,000,000. As usual at the time of providing funds for those payments, the money market shows considerable firmness, the rate on call loans being at the moment 5 to 6 per cent.; but as the withheld moneys are disbursed the market may be expected to relapse into its wonted summer ease. Cable advices report that the $15,000,000 of 4 per cents. bought by J. S. Morgan & Co., of London, from the First National Bank Syndicate, have already been marketed, and offers have been received from London for further amounts. The foreign exchanges are easier, partly owing to foreign movements in securities, and partly to considerable sums of sterling bills having been loaned to stock operators, which amounts to a sixty days' loan on London. Rates now range considerably below the specie-shipping point. Silver at London has ruled at 51⅝ to 51¾*d.* per ounce; the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar here is 87.59 cents.

Our London correspondent discusses elsewhere the difficulties the British Ministry are having with the Irish vote in the House of Commons over the education question. Since the date of his letter the Cabinet has produced the scheme by which it proposes to satisfy the Catholics, which is neither more nor less than the conversion of the Queen's University, a completely non-sectarian institution, with only non-sectarian colleges under its control, into a mere Examining Board, like the London University, to which any properly-affiliated institution, however sectarian, can send up candidates for degrees. It does not appear in the despatches how it is proposed to organize the government of the new university, or in whose hands the control of the examinations is to be lodged; but it is quite certain that no scheme which does not give the Catholic bishops a considerable share in it will do much to give the Tories the Irish Catholic vote. The Beaconsfield Cabinet, on this question, as our correspondent points out, are between the devil and the deep sea, but with a marked *penchant* for the former.

Mr. Goschen, who is, perhaps, one of the highest financial authorities in the world, has delivered a very important speech on the silver question in the House of Commons apropos of Indian finance. He strongly deprecated any legislation about the depreciation of silver. He ascribed it in a much greater degree to the German demonetization than to the large production of the American mines, and, strange to say, makes no mention whatever of the cause assigned by Mr. Murat Halstead, the great Silver Prophet of the West—viz., the demonetization of silver in the United States in 1873; which looks as if Mr. Goschen did not keep up with the literature of the subject. He thinks that the German sales are now nearly at an end. The power of India to absorb silver he considered practically unabated, and he is totally opposed to interfering with the process by substituting a gold for a silver standard. He is also opposed to the introduction of the gold standard into any country in which it is not now in use, believing it to be for the good of the world that nations which like silver should keep it. But he declared "it was a perfectly different thing to say that those countries which had a gold currency ought to embarrass themselves with a silver currency as well," here again showing that he has not read Mr. Halstead's celebrated "silver articles."

There seems to be a fair prospect of peace in Zululand, Cetewayo having sent in to open negotiations for his submission, and this time there is said to be good reason for believing that he is sincere. The terms offered him are the disbandment of his army for five years, a fine of two oxen for each male Zulu, and the admission of a British resident to his capital, or, more properly speaking, the "kraal" or corral where he keeps most of his cattle. The extent of the preparations against him has apparently frightened him. His surrender, if the news be true, comes very apropos, as the difficulties of transport for the invading force during the next three months promised to be very great, owing to the disappearance of the grass for the oxen during the dry season. There are very disagreeable telegraphic stories about Prince Napoleon's death. The Quartermaster General is accused of having sent him on a dangerous service with a small escort against Lord Chelmsford's express orders, and the escort is said to have misbehaved grossly by galloping away as soon as the attack was made, when, as a general rule, a mounted man on open ground has little to fear from the Zulus. But the painful truth is the Prince had no business to be there at all; but as he was there, it is greatly to his credit that he took the service as it came, with the ordinary risks, instead of following the camp as a limited-liability soldier.

The Sultan's firman deposing the Khedive, in favor of his eldest son, Prince Mehemet Tewfik, has at last been issued, and on Thursday last the latter formally ascended the throne. The Porte has also dextrously tried to use the occasion to revoke one of the concessions to the late ruler which enabled him to maintain fleets and armies and make treaties with foreign powers; but France and England have remonstrated against this, and the decree will probably be abrogated. The new Khedive is only twenty-seven years old, and of course promises to reform everything. The most marked incident attendant on his father's outgoing was the appearance of Germany among his coercers. This has excited genuine indignation among the English Liberals, and will probably have a serious effect on the Tory fortunes at the next election. Egypt ten years ago was looked on all over Europe as substantially a dependency of England, which she might without offence occupy at any time under the spirited foreign policy of the Tories. This position has been completely lost; France has been admitted to full partnership in Egypt, and now Germany has appeared on the scene claiming the right to a voice in the management of its affairs also.

The débâcle in the German Ministry seems to continue, the new policy of the Chancellor proving more than most of the members can bear. Herr von Hobrecht, the Minister of Finance, has given in his resignation, it is believed owing to his opposition to the scheme for the purchase of the railroads; Dr. Falk and Herr von Friedenthal go with him—these two, probably, owing to the negotiations with the Ultramontanes. The conduct of the new régime promises to be one of the most difficult jobs the Chancellor has undertaken, and he undertakes it with declining health and in the evening of his days.

The Countess Lambertini, who has been claiming a share in the late Cardinal Antonelli's estate as his daughter, has been beaten on what we should call a demurrer—namely, the plea that if a daughter she is what the Roman lawyers call a "sacrilegious child," being the child of a priest, and therefore entitled to nothing. The amount she would have received is said to be over $2,000,000. Nothing is more curious than Antonelli's success in getting all the good things of this world. There was during his lifetime no doubt in the public mind at Rome that his amours were numerous, and there was no easy or creditable way of accounting for his facility in making money, but it did not prevent his remaining high in place and power, and being the Pope's intimate friend and confidant for thirty years. He, in fact, enjoyed all the external advantages that holy orders can give a man, and suffered none of their restraints, and this in one of the most conspicuous positions in Europe, and when the Papacy was passing through a very trying crisis. His brothers have secured his fortune under the Lambertini decision, however, at the expense of his reputation.

THE POLICE OF PARLIAMENTS.

THE scenes of disorder in the French Assembly when the question of granting permission to prosecute Paul de Cassagnac for libellous attacks on the Government in his newspaper was under debate, are said to have surpassed anything ever witnessed even in France. The members of the Right came down into the space around the tribune, shook their fists in the faces of the members of the Government, and called them foul names. In one or two cases they actually laid hands on them and mauled them, and two members got to fisticuffs. Of course while the tumult lasted the President was powerless, and it lasted just as long as the promoters of it chose. It does not, indeed, seem to have been a sudden outburst of fury, but rather a premeditated scheme of the Bonapartists for bringing the Assembly, and indeed the whole Government, into discredit. It appears, however, to have made more impression on the European public than any previous scene of the same kind in the French legislature, and so sober a paper as the London *Economist* is led by it to propose a new plan for the government of legislative bodies. It thinks that as these bodies multiply, and the material of which they are composed becomes more inflammable, the method of ruling parliaments through a single officer, which has been in use from the beginning, and has spread to every country in which parliaments exist, will become inadequate. This officer is, and must of necessity be, in most cases a member of the majority, and therefore, in practice, though perhaps not in theory, the servant of the majority. His moral authority is thus weakened necessarily by his connection with one party, and his rulings in times of excitement are wanting in judicial weight. The *Economist* therefore proposes that he should be assisted by two or more assessors or censors, who should be permanent officers or real judges, who should be called in to assist the speaker whenever it becomes necessary to inflict penalties for the preservation of order.

The disease, however, is not at all so grave as the *Economist* seems to imagine. In fact, considering the great and rapid extension the parliamentary system has received since 1848, and the number of new and raw communities which have adopted it and live under it in all parts of the world, the success of the speakership may fairly be pronounced very remarkable. Disorders which the speaker cannot repress by his unaided authority are very rarely heard of in the parliaments of the remotest West or of the colonies, and the reason is that even if members are excitable, public opinion, even in the rudest societies, severely condemns tumults in the legislature. Voters, as a general rule, however low their intelligence or rough their manners may be, like, if there is any political fighting to be done, to do it themselves during or before the election. The members of parliament whom they choose they expect to behave in a parliamentary manner, and carry on their warfare according to the rules of the parliamentary game. They may like their representative to be combative and vituperative, but they expect him to be so within the forms of legislative procedure. Consequently, in ordinary times any party is damaged with its public by displays of violence in the legislative halls as long as there is on both sides an agreement as to the foundations of the Government.

What makes French parliamentary proceedings so disorderly is, that ever since the Revolution a portion of the legislature has always treated the existing Government as the product of fraud and usurpation, and as, therefore, only entitled to as much respect and obedience as it could get by superiority of physical force. It is to this division of sentiment about fundamentals that the late turbulence at Versailles has been due. To the Bonapartists and Legitimists (or Brigadiers) the Republicans (or Stalwarts) are simply rapacious scoundrels, who have got hold of the administrative machinery by successful violence and are using it for the execution of all sorts of evil designs, and deliberation with whom is simply a painful necessity. To men in this state of mind, and who are by no means a reflective class, of course all proceedings of the Assembly in which they are worsted are highly irritating, and their only idea of a debate with the Republicans is an interchange of taunts and threats.

There was a state of things somewhat similar to this in Washington before the war, owing to the deep and increasing belief of the great bulk of the Southern members that the Union would before long be dissolved, and that their own connection with the Government was only temporary. Moreover, their constituencies shared their feelings, and regarded the Northern members as in some sort alien enemies, to whom neither courtesy nor co-operation was due, and whom their own men were therefore justified in treating in any manner the mood of the moment suggested. There has been since the war, and probably there is now, a good deal of the same feeling still among the Southern members, but it wants the stimulus of hope. No Southern man now looks for any deliverance from the necessity of living under the same government with the North; and this despair, if we can give it no better name, tends constantly to produce, first resignation and then contentment, and finally, it is to be hoped, good feeling. It is almost certain that the same cause will produce the same effect in France. The death of the Prince Napoleon, by destroying hope, will probably soon convert most of them into Republicans, who will behave as well in debate as anybody. The conversion of one of them, Cuneo d'Ornano, who has been almost as remarkable for his violence as Paul de Cassagnac, is recorded already; that of others, of like character and antecedents, will probably follow rapidly. In fact, it is doubtful if the irascible Paul himself will hold out very long. The change is harder for the Bonapartists than it would be for men of most other political parties, because they are essentially a military party, who do not believe, and never have believed, in the parliamentary régime, or in the settlement of differences of opinion by discussion. They have been used to seeing their opponents put in jail or deported, or silenced by an imperial censor like De Morny.

At the North, since the war, the Stalwarts, though men of essentially peaceable disposition and of strong parliamentary habits, have had also a hard struggle in carrying on parliamentary government with the "ex-rebels," and are consequently prone even to this day to convert debate into a series of taunts, and to take up the time in showing not that their opponents' arguments are unsound, but that their opponents themselves are bad fellows. They have found it very difficult to reconcile themselves to the spectacle of men who had lately been in the field for the destruction of the Government assisting in carrying it on on equal terms with those who had fought in its defence, and some of them have concluded that this spectacle proved that the war has been a failure. A century ago they would have been equally shocked by the spectacle of "ex-rebels" retaining possession of their property, and two centuries ago they would have insisted on cutting off their heads, and the sight of a prominent "ex-rebel" with a head would have led them to declare mournfully that their own dead had died in vain. Now the worst they do is to harass the rebel by an examination of his "record," and show that his presence in Congress is an illustration of the unexampled clemency of his conquerors.

The parliamentary troubles arising out of disputes about the legitimacy of *de-facto* governments are not likely to last much longer, as there is in the more highly civilized countries no *de-facto* government now in existence which does not rest on a very solid basis of popular consent. Whatever difficulty in preserving order in deliberative bodies may hereafter show itself will most likely arise from the presence of fanatical minorities like the Socialists in the Reichstag, or the Irish Home-Rulers in the House of Commons, who seek to make up for their numerical feebleness and to coerce the majority by obstruction under the rules of procedure. But they can always be held in check by amending the rules without increasing the power of the presiding officer.

FATHER HYACINTHE'S "GALLICAN CHURCH."

IT is announced in the French newspapers that Father Hyacinthe's so-called "Gallican Church" has received its first clerical adhesion in the person of a priest in the Department of the Ain,

who has come to Paris and already begun to officiate at the chapel in the Rue Rochechouart. The Protestant newspapers applaud this "brave example," but regret that the new assistant to the ex-Carmelite should present so painful a contrast to his chief in point of eloquence. The progress of the new sect is attested by the announcement of six hundred names inscribed upon its books; but the significance of this figure would be more clear if we were informed to what the subscribers bound themselves, and especially whether they agreed to pay any cash. Up to this time one of the characteristics of the "Old Catholic," "Liberal Catholic," "Christian Catholic" movement, which now reappears under the title of "Gallican Catholic," has been the stern consistency with which its votaries have declined to pay their money for the advancement of their principles—coupled, in some instances, with a generous alacrity in expending for that purpose the money of the public. Few things would do more to assure the world that M. Loyson's new enterprise is an exception to the general fate of Old Catholic undertakings, than to see his disciples putting hand in pocket and proving by a modest subscription that devotion to principle which he declares they are ready to "seal with their blood."

Thus far, we say it with regret, there is no hopeful appearance of vitality in the meeting which its founder calls, with a certain disproportionateness of phrase, "the Gallican Church." The crowd at the chapel whenever Father Hyacinthe is to preach is a matter of course; he is not only famous—notorious even—but eloquent with that intense dramatic eloquence which is dear to Frenchmen and entertaining to everybody. The time is far distant when there will not be found in Paris, of a Sunday morning, a thousand people eager to see a man who has been much talked of, and to hear the French language spoken, not always with the correctness of an Academician, but with copiousness and power, and in the perfect enunciation of a voice of exquisitely sweet and sympathetic quality. But when this fervid and popular preacher talks of himself as a representative of the uprising of French Catholics to throw off the yoke of the Vatican, and calls himself and his disciples "the Gallican Church," and organizes contributions in England and America for the support of that branch of the Church Universal, it can hardly be deemed impertinent to ask for some other evidence of the existence of "the Gallican Church" than the crowd on Sunday mornings at the preaching in his chapel.

As a matter of fact, there does seem to the worldly mind to be a flavor of humbug about "the Gallican Church" as now reconstituted. The Paris correspondent of the *Guardian* long ago remarked it as curious that all the manifestoes of this uprising of French Catholics should bear the imprint of "Grassart, librairie protestante," and that the expense of transforming a variety theatre into a chapel should have to be met by a rich American. It is equally impressive that not only is there no bishop in French-speaking Christendom to countenance the movement, but that even for the post of assistant priest the minister of a French Protestant Episcopal church had to be imported from New York, until, after some months of waiting, an abbé from the eastern frontier offers himself for that humble function. In its quest for episcopal encouragement the new enterprise has had a droll experience. Those bishops of the Roman obedience whom Father Hyacinthe is fond of alluding to as known to him to be secretly writhing in suppressed rage against the impositions of the Vatican, still keep their secret wonderfully veiled, and nobody but himself can guess who they are; at all events, they decline to lend a hand in this emergency. The Old Catholic bishops in Switzerland and Germany send a civil word, which, considering the former relations of the parties, is as much as could be expected. The Jansenist bishops in the Low Countries, who have shown themselves so willing to accommodate, were perhaps not asked. The Archbishop of Canterbury cordially turns over the applicant to his Scotch brethren, who are less embarrassed than himself by acts of Parliament and considerations of expediency. And the Scotchmen, who are still red in the face with the violence of their protest against the schismatic behavior of some returned colonial bishops ("returned empties," as they are maliciously called) that ventured over the border to do a little confirming to oblige a friend, perceive at once that this is one of those cases which circumstances alter, and will be happy, in a general way, and on purely Gallican principles, to lend an official hand to a promising little schism in the diocese of their brother of Paris; and are utterly unable to see the point of the joke until it is explained to them, with a certain degree of acrimony, by some of their English brethren.

Perhaps the clearest evidence of humbug about this whole business is the use of the name "Gallican." Under this name Father Hyacinthe would rally those who "have rejected the yoke of Ultramontane pretensions, and attached themselves to the ideas of Lacordaire, Montalembert," and others. Now, nobody knows better than Father Hyacinthe that these men were emphatically and explicitly not Gallicans, but Ultramontanes—"Liberal Ultramontanes," such as he himself was while he continued in the Roman Catholic Church. But he is equally well aware that the English and American Episcopalians to whom he looks for his money do not know this, nor suspect that the Gallicans are as extinct as the Merovingians, and that the chance of finding in France a live Liberal Catholic of the school of Montalembert is something like the chance of discovering a dodo—not absolutely desperate, but far from hopeful. The sudden and complete vanishing from the face of the earth, since 1870, of that plucky and brilliant little politico-religious party is one of the most striking and even tragical pages of ecclesiastical history.

A part of the complex delusion on which "the Gallican Church" depends is the notion that the "Latin races," the "Southern peoples," cannot be satisfied with Protestant Christianity, and that the Liberals in a Catholic country have a craving desire to hold on to ritual and priesthood and as much of the Roman system as they can keep while shedding off the papal supremacy. Impressive as these ethnological generalizations are when uttered magisterially by ritualistic Englishmen, they do not seem to correspond with the facts. Nowhere has Protestantism in its baldest form been so tenacious of life in face of exterminating persecution as among the pure Latins of the south of France. Nothing but Protestantism, frank and decisive, seems to content those Frenchmen who care for any Christianity at all in place of the Romanism they reject; and over to Protestantism they are going, high and low, sometimes by churchfuls at once, while Old Catholicism stands in open market and finds no takers.

It must not be supposed from all this that we mean to imply that Hyacinthe is playing the part of a deliberate impostor. On the contrary, there is hardly any man who can, on the ground of self-delusion, be more easily defended against such an imputation. He is always one of the first to be convinced by his own dramatic—almost theatrical—eloquence, and seems really to believe that the arguments by which he vindicates his position to the public are the identical considerations that brought him into it. Rarely has any man had so much difficulty in discriminating his conscience from his *amour propre*. The successive quarrels with which he alienates one set of friends after another are all, in his mind, grave issues between eternal right and wrong. As with his hates, so with his loves. He announced his marriage to the fascinating widow whose confessor he had been while yet a Carmelite, as a high act of heroism for the benefit of the church. The *Nation* (No. 377) warned him at the time that a cynical world is obstinately incredulous of such statements of motives. But he returns to the argument with a perseverance that betokens sincerity, and argues publicly, on the testimony of one of his unknown bishops, that he has done an immense thing for Catholic reform by marrying the Widow Merriman, at which those who know the subsequent effect on public sentiment renew their smiles; and notwithstanding his repeated invitations to the world to discuss with him the expediency of his marriage, they good-naturedly decline. This capacity of self-delusion is a vast help to him, as well as a hindrance. For a man of so many winning and amiable traits, and such unquestionable talents, he is strangely poor in influence and following. Out of all the multitude of the French clergy one poor

abbé alone comes tardily to his support. And yet none who know him need doubt his sincerity when, laying his prophetic ear to the ground, he announces the approach of the sacramental host of "the Gallican Church," and the coming overthrow of Rome. His character is not one utterly unknown to the student of human nature. The ruling spirit of "the Gallican Church" is the spirit—exalted, dignified, transfigured, but still the same,—the spirit of Wilkins Micawber.

THE CULTIVATION OF THEOLOGY IN COLLEGES.

THE various college commencements which are so prolific in exposition and exhortation have this year only produced one address which has attracted much attention outside the audiences to which they were spoken; we mean that of President Eliot, of Harvard, before the Smith College at Northampton—an institution, as our readers know, for women exclusively. His utterances were looked for with additional interest owing to the fact that rumors have been for some time in circulation that the opposition of Harvard College to the admission of women was relaxing, and that the experiment of what is called "co-education" would there be witnessed before long. President Eliot, however, has apparently not in any degree changed his position on this subject. He believes in giving women as high an education as careful trial will show they are willing to take, and can take without injury to their health or interference with the peculiar social functions with which they are now charged. But he is unalterably opposed to mixing up the purely educational experiment which has still to be made, as to the nature and extent of the intellectual training which women require, with "the social experiment of bringing scores or hundreds of young men and women into intimate relations in the same institution at the excitable age of eighteen to twenty-two." He does not think any college is now competent to try the latter in a complicated society like that of the Eastern States, in which marriage is by no means the easily-arranged contract which it is in the simpler communities of the West, and in which parents are much more solicitous, and reasonably solicitous, about the relations into which their sons and daughters enter, or are tempted to enter, on the threshold of life. He thinks the only good argument which can be offered for co-education is the poverty of the community, and this is an argument which is not now available in this part of the world, as the existence of such institutions as Smith College and Wellesley and Vassar shows, and as the creation of other similar ones hereafter will doubtless continue to show.

He dwelt, too, with special commendation on the position of Smith College with regard to religion: it is, he said, "entirely undenominational in its management and instruction," and he added that in taking this position it follows the example of "Harvard, Yale, and Columbia, which declare their policy to be unsectarian, and appoint professors from various sects." We are inclined to believe that this statement of the position of these colleges is hardly accurate. We question very much whether a member of the Unitarian denomination would be appointed to a professorship in either Yale or Columbia. Moreover, judging from President Eliot's remarks in his address at the commencement dinner of his own college, and from the successful efforts he has recently made to secure large donations for the Harvard Divinity School, we fear it would be difficult to show the incorrectness of the popular impression that Harvard College is really associated with the Unitarian body, and deeply interested in supplying ministers for it, and therefore not in the strict sense of the term "undenominational," or entitled to share in the praise rightly or wrongly bestowed on non-sectarian institutions.

He said at the dinner:

"I had something to do with the actual solicitation of subscriptions for the new endowment of the Divinity School, and there are two or three facts about it with which I am greatly impressed. In the first place, there is a common opinion that the interest in the great themes of God and immortality, and life and death, has died out. That is not at all true. On the contrary, there never was a time, in my opinion, when the interest in these subjects was keener and more universal. And there certainly has never been a time in the whole history of theology in this University when any such contribution has been made to the support of theology as has been made within the last three months. Now, you will allow me to mention that the motive of most of the gentlemen who have contributed to this endowment was, I think, the support of theological teaching of a perfectly unsectarian character. [Applause.] That was precisely what interested them in this movement."

We shall take the liberty of observing in reply to this, in the first place, that neither the Harvard Divinity School, nor any divinity school in this country or in England, exists simply for the cultivation of theology as a science. All these institutions, whatever the theory of their organization may be, exist for the much more practical purpose of training ministers, and most of them ministers for particular denominations. In other words, they are professional schools, like the schools of law and medicine, and it is a rarer thing for anybody to enter them who does not seek preparation for the clerical calling than it is for any one to enter a law school or a medical school who does not mean to practise as a lawyer or doctor. Amateur theologians, if we may use the term, no doubt abound everywhere, but they seldom or never cultivate their taste by taking a theological course in a college. We may go still further, and say that no divinity school in the country is prepared to equip a man for the ministry of all denominations whatever, in the sense in which a law school equips a man to practise law in any State. We grant that a Presbyterian minister may, and sometimes does, get his training in an Episcopal seminary, or an Episcopal minister in a Presbyterian seminary, and so on; but as a general rule each denomination thinks it more than desirable to educate its own clergy, and the teaching of a Unitarian divinity school is nowhere accepted as sufficient preparation for an orthodox pulpit. The graduate of such a school who sought a call to an orthodox pulpit would only obtain it through a formal process of recantation or repudiation, or, at all events, a fresh profession of faith. We are sure President Eliot did not intend to be vague or ambiguous when he used the phrase "theological teaching of a perfectly unsectarian character." But we are also sure that he would find it difficult now to tell us what such teaching is. The most important question in Christian theology is the nature of Christ—was he truly the son of God, and was his death an expiatory sacrifice by which believers are saved from the consequences of hereditary and innate sinfulness? or was he simply an exalted person sent to help men to pure living by his teaching and example? The Christian world is divided radically on this question. Those who take the first of these views hardly admit those who take the last to be Christians at all. President Eliot surely does not mean to tell us that the professors in the Divinity School are going to teach that both views are true, or to teach that it makes no difference which a man holds. Still less is he likely to maintain that it would be "non-sectarian teaching" to tell the students that one was true and the other false. If, on the other hand, the professors are to confine themselves to a mere description of Christian doctrines and an account of the controversies which have arisen over them, their work might be very properly done in the University itself by a good Chair of Ecclesiastical History. We may, therefore, safely set down the Harvard Divinity School as necessarily denominational in its practical workings, whatever character its managers may seek to give it, or may have originally claimed for it.

In the second place, we must take exception to President Eliot's dictum that it "is a common opinion that interest in the great themes of God and immortality, and life and death, has died out." As far as our observation goes—and each person can only base an assertion of this kind on his own observation—the "common opinion" is not that interest in these great themes has died out, but that the belief that anybody can speak about them with special authority has greatly declined. The interest in the themes is as deep as ever, no doubt. There is hardly any man who can ever cease to regard them as tremendous; but there is a widespread and growing opinion that no person can throw much light upon them, and that no secrets about them are communicated in divinity schools which are not within the reach of every one who walks the highway. It is this belief which is weakening the hold of the churches on the educated class, of which so much complaint is made, and which is diminishing the influence of the clergy, and which is doing so much to make a minister's success depend on his personal qualities rather than on his professional degree. It is certainly not to be met or vanquished by increasing the endowments of divinity schools and equipping more ministers. It must be encountered in the market-place and in the lecture-rooms of all the sciences, in the forum and in every department of activity, by showing beyond question how much the human mind can do by investigation and reflection to elucidate the darker problems of human existence. In other words, the training needed to combat it must in our time be much wider than that given in any theological seminary.

We hold it, too, to be a great mistake to suppose that there is in the Protestant world in our time a science of theology, abstracted from denominational belief, which it is worth while to keep up a divinity school to teach, or with which, as theology, a university has any concern.

There is such a theology in the Roman Church, but it is a great body of law, made up in part of the decrees of councils and popes, in part of the dicta of famous and approved doctors, and it is taught as the civil law is taught—by the citation of authorities and the exposition of the statutes with the aid of commentators—and there is in existence a final court of appeal always ready to settle disputed points. The Protestant Church has what is called natural theology, which consists in the deduction of the existence of an all-wise and all-powerful Creator from the order of the universe, and then the reconciliation of his attributes with the existence of evil. But this forms, or ought to form, in every university a branch or department of moral philosophy, and no education can be considered complete which does not include more or less acquaintance with the discussion which the problem has in all ages called forth, even if no solution of it be possible. No teaching of ethics, for instance, can altogether avoid it.

Among Protestants the proper work of a divinity school begins only with the extraction of theology from the Bible and from the commentators on the Bible, and the teaching it furnishes necessarily consists in the interpretation of the Scriptures and the examination of the opinions of independent interpreters of the Scriptures. But we do not need to say that all theology of this kind is necessarily denominational. Every denomination has its own set of interpreters and its own set of standards set up by the interpreters, and these standards are constantly undergoing modification under various influences. Each denomination, too, takes care that this theology is well taught from its own point of view. The country is abundantly supplied with schools for instruction in it, and these schools are manned by the best theologians that can be found, who are aided in the work of instruction by the leading pastors of churches and amply supplied with funds by the members of the communions to which they belong. There is, in fact, no branch of learning which excites so much popular interest and which receives so much popular encouragement, and about which, therefore, a university like Harvard needs to give itself so little concern.

This is, no doubt, as true of the Unitarian denomination as of others. The readiness with which President Eliot has obtained subscriptions for the Harvard Divinity School, and his own zeal in the matter as a Unitarian layman, show, we think, clearly enough that Unitarians would support it liberally if it had no connection with the University whatever, and that neither the University, nor President Eliot as the head of the University, need take any thought for it. In fact, it is a grave question whether both it and many other divinity schools are not already overburdened with funds. Some of the best observers are of opinion that the cheapness with which these institutions now offer a clerical education to all comers has had a very injurious influence on the ministry, by seducing into it the weaker class of young men who have no stomach for the battle of life in the other professions, and that the best thing that could be done for the divinity schools would be the diversion of the funds now spent in free lodging, fuel, gas, and even clothing and washing, to the strengthening of the professorial chairs. So many students might not then seek them as are now attracted by the gratuities they offer, but those who did seek them would be men of much more robust type, who would succeed in any calling, and there never has been a time when the Church needed such men more. But these things are emphatically the affair of the churches and of individual believers, and not of universities like Harvard.

The large sum which is being added to the endowment of the Harvard Divinity School—about $130,000, we believe—would not, therefore, be applied, as President Eliot's remarks above quoted might lead one to suppose, to the cultivation of the religious sentiment among the students of the University in general. Even if this could be done by collegiate machinery, we understand that nothing of the kind is contemplated. No student of the Harvard Academical or Medical or Law or Scientific Department will, in consequence of this endowment, hear anything more of God and immortality than he hears now. The principal if not the only result of it will be an increase in the number of students prepared for the Unitarian ministry, which might be desirable if it could be shown that there was now any dearth of Unitarian ministers—that is, that there were more Unitarian congregations than could be supplied with pastors. But no such state of facts exists. On the contrary, we believe it cannot be denied there are already more Unitarian ministers than can find pulpits, and that there are many signs that the younger generation of Unitarians find their spiritual wants better supplied in the orthodox churches than in their own. So that no matter from what side we approach the matter we fail to see why a university which has been making such rapid strides as Harvard towards a thoroughly non-sectarian and national position should suddenly pause and devote large sums of money, sorely needed in other fields, to the cultivation, for the benefit of one sect, of a study which is already abundantly provided for by the various Christian churches, and the connection of which with the moral condition of the college is at best very faint. Nothing can be more important than to give undergraduates a regard for the things which are eternal, but we know of nothing in the recent history of American colleges to warrant the belief that this regard is fostered by the presence of a divinity school. On the contrary, there is much reason, in recent experience, for believing that the more colleges abstain from official connection with religious teaching, and the more they leave the nurture of religious impressions to agencies emanating from home and church, the better chance there will be for the ideas of God and immortality to retain their power over young men's lives. An official religion, whether in state or university, is always a sickly thing. The more you endow it the less of "the heart's adoration" you get for it.

THE UNIVERSITY BOAT-RACE.

New London, Conn., June 28, 1879.

ON the evening before the race New London seemed strange to those who remembered the crowds, the light and color, and animated groups which have enlivened the nights before former college regattas. Nothing disturbed the wonted quiet of a New England town. Owing to the appointment of the race in the afternoon and the facilities for reaching the city, few students had arrived, and these were mainly on the shore, where the cool breeze and the view of the harbor gleaming with innumerable bright lights on the yachts made a fair summer evening. In the city itself there were small crowds in the close pool-rooms, or watching the gyrations of a wheel-of-fortune, or aimlessly standing at the corners. It was late in the forenoon of the next day before the streets and the hotel became thronged with the peculiarly mixed classes which characterize a regatta crowd—dignified elderly gentlemen, with the blue ribbon of their college days; quiet but anxious students, wandering in search of the man who had offered to bet and had disappeared in search of his friend; observant reporters; old university oarsmen, one of whom, from Yale, I heard remarking that it would be a close race, for the Yale crew were "deceptive men" (and he seems to have been right); together with all these, and outnumbering them, noisy drummers and bummers of all descriptions were looking on with curiosity at the crimson or blue ribbons of the students, and occasionally elbowing their wearers with evident pleasure.

At last the time approached, and as the press-boat steamed by Winthrop's Point at the finish the grand stand was gay with color. For half a mile or more along the course craft of all sorts lay at anchor; the graceful yachts and the great excursion steamers, with their whole bulk adorned with flags, stood out among the lesser sail-boats. As we went up the beautiful river to the head of the course many picturesque sights met the eye—picnic parties under the green trees upon the bank, the Harvard crew on the turf beneath their bright flag, the moving train with its gleaming awnings and rival colors winding along the western shore. The hours of the postponement passed more comfortably for us than for others. At the Yale quarters there was a fine view of opening gorges to the north and there was cool shade under the trees. At last we were off again, and watching the boats going to their positions. In the roughest part of the stream the Yale crew stopped, and on their remonstrance both crews were ordered back to their quarters. In a few minutes it grew calmer, and the whistle of the umpire's boat called the crews back. The overcast sky threatened rain from the north; the late hour threatened dusk from the east; the water was very quiet, but it was a long while before the Yale boat was mended and launched and took its position beside Harvard. The story of the race is soon told; there was some excitement for a few hundred yards, and then it was all over. But if it was not exciting, it was as picturesque a scene as I ever saw. The two shells were shooting ahead, followed close by the privileged boats, first that of the referee, who was standing in the bow and waving back from time to time the press boat as it came too near, in advance of the University boat and the Yale launch, all pushing along at full speed, with the dark steely sky, the bold green bluffs, and the level water in the background. So, without any noteworthy incident, we neared the end, the Yale boat directly ahead, Harvard with its colors indistinguishable in the dusky distance, the masts of the shipping growing more distinct, until the flash and boom of the discharging cannon and the dip of the flags saluted the victors on their last half-mile and the cheers broke out from the thousands who had been so

tired with waiting for these few minutes. Then the finest sight of all was seen, as the yachts closed in behind the Yale boat and filled the space, with their white sails spread full and their graceful forms made more beautiful by motion, while the decorated steamers moved heavily among them, and the smaller craft literally crowded the intervals. The crews lay on their oars in the midst, in imminent danger of being run into, as gradually, in groups or singly, this fleet passed through the narrow space and rounded the point into the larger harbor.

Probably experts will tell, now that the race is over, why it was so unequal ; but even to an inexperienced eye the form of Yale, after the first dash, seemed almost awkward in comparison with the symmetry of movement of the Harvard eight. The distance by which Harvard won was so great as to make the race comparatively dull for those who saw only the finish. They came to see a contest, and practically there was none ; at least they thought so, for it is hard to analyze the interest which weighted these few minutes with the intense expectation and attention of many thousand spectators, involving the expenditure of many thousands of dollars. To see a trial of well-matched muscular power, to see which was the best college and satisfy the passions of rivalry, to make money, to have a good time spending it, to get excitement of any kind, to gratify a sporting mania, to see what it was like—all these motives and others went to generate an interest in a sight which lasted perhaps two minutes. It was generally said that the race was uninteresting, but the crowd was a very satisfied one, certainly after the short time in which the blue ribbons got away. The Harvard men took possession of the town, and did all that remained to be done ; they cheered and sang, they hired a band and marched in procession amid the smoke and glare of torches and showers of sparks from inexhaustible Roman candles, and the noise of exploding bombs. It was after midnight when throats and fireworks were exhausted and the city settled down to comparative quiet.

The management of the race was excellent, and the success was so great that there is little doubt that the great college race will come off hereafter at New London. The accommodations for visitors were ample ; the race was easily seen from the grand stand, and from the train, which was especially comfortable with its awnings, cushions, and limited seats, and offered nearly as good an opportunity for seeing the start and the greater part of the race as the boats which followed the crews; the course was kept clear of boats for several hours, and there was no accident. But however good the course and management may be, what makes a race is two well-matched crews, and unless Yale has better success in keeping up with Harvard than in the two last races interest will die out. The two colleges must have about the same chances for good material in weight, muscle, and build. This year, it is true, Harvard had a remarkably fine crew in their mere physical development, but there was not difference enough between them and the Yale eight to account for such an extraordinary lead at the finish. The victory ought to depend mainly on perfection in form, which can be acquired by careful and persistent training, and which tells against simple strength ; and in regard to the badness of Yale's form there was no difference of opinion. There is hope of a better race next year, for Yale is likely to make a vigorous attempt to retrieve what is, I believe, the worst defeat which she has yet had to bear.

ENGLISH PARTIES AND THE IRISH VOTE.

London, June 19.

WHATEVER may be the faults of Irish members, they know their opportunity and are very skilful in availing themselves of the necessities of English parties. Everybody in Parliament is thinking about the coming election, which cannot now be very far off, according to the best opinion. Parties will be very nicely balanced. A bare majority, scarcely sufficient for working purposes, is likely enough ; the scale may be turned by some fifty or sixty Irish votes.

The Government last session did what was conceived to be a very skilful bit of business in passing the Irish Intermediate Education Bill. So dextrous was the manœuvre thought to be that the leaders of the Opposition were eager to participate in it. Practically the measure endowed Roman Catholic education in middle-class schools, but the forms of unsectarianism were observed. A conscience clause was inserted which is certain to be inoperative ; still, appearances were kept up. Moreover, a gap existed in Irish education which it was thought necessary to fill. For half a century the measure with which the name of the late Lord Derby is honorably associated has given Ireland an ample supply of primary schools, formerly "mixed," now practically denominational. The Queen's University and Colleges, and the University of Dublin, as unsectarian as they, supply institutions for the higher learning which may bear comparison with the university and college system of England and Scotland, and of any country in the world. But the middle rungs of the ladder were wanting, and it required great agility to pass from the lowest steps to the highest. Mere steady climbing could not do it ; it needed an effort of gymnastics. The result was that Irish education stopped short for the great majority of the people in the elementary schools, and many of those who entered Trinity and the Queen's Colleges did so imperfectly prepared. I do not know that this state of things is confined to Ireland, but this is no reason for declining to remedy the evil there if it can be fairly encountered and overcome. The method adopted last session was to establish and endow a board of intermediate education, which offers exhibitions to students who shall pass certain prescribed examinations, thus giving them the means of continuing their education, and which will pay by results the schools which may turn out a certain proportion of successful pupils. The act acknowledges no distinctions of church or sect, but the great majority of the institutions which will profit by it are in the hands of the Roman Catholic clergy. The diocesan seminaries in every Roman Catholic district, the schools of the teaching orders of the Roman Catholic Church, and those in connection with monasteries and convents, will mainly benefit by it. The payments made to the pupils will enable them to continue their education without unduly taxing the resources of their parents. The payments made to the institutions will enable these to improve their methods and to enlarge their apparatus of teaching. The scheme is a plausible one, but it has yet to be tried in its actual working. The Roman Catholic bishops have hitherto contended that they cannot control teaching unless they can control examinations. The examination will itself, and must necessarily, shape the instruction. The subjects of examination, the books in which pupils are examined, and the temper and views of the persons examining will decide everything. A little accommodation will be practised at first, while the thing is still an experiment watched by English opinion, but it requires no discernment to see that when the first difficulties are over, protests will be made against books not written in a Roman Catholic sense and examiners not animated by a Roman Catholic spirit. The Roman Catholic bishops will have logic on their side ; the principle admitted, it will be difficult to refuse the application of it. Given their premises, it will be impossible to avoid their conclusion.

The O'Conor Don's Irish University Bill is a sequel to the Irish Intermediate Education Act. It applies the principles of that measure to the higher schools. The projected University of St. Patrick is the equivalent of the Intermediate Board. Individual students are to receive exhibitions and scholarships, offered too copiously to be a reward of real merit, and the institutions from which they come are to be paid by results. As colleges affiliated to existing universities are excluded from competition, only Roman Catholic institutions will be affiliated to the new university, whose very name denotes its final destination. The issue is obvious. The examination must be adapted to the teaching. After a show of neutrality and unsectarianism the Roman Catholic pupils of Roman Catholic teachers will be tested by Roman Catholic examiners in their proficiency in Roman Catholic text-books. The Roman Catholic religion will thus be far more effectually subsidized than if the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland were itself directly endowed. The funds for this purpose are to be taken from the surplus remaining from the unappropriated revenues of the Disestablished Irish Church, notwithstanding the fact that a clause in Mr. Gladstone's act distinctly prohibits their use for any sectarian or ecclesiastical purpose. If the measure passes, the education of the Irish people outside a few counties in Ulster will be given over without check or control, from the infant-school to the university, into the hands of the Roman Catholic priesthood. The state will furnish the funds, but it will do no more.

The measure, however, will not pass. The Intermediate Education Act of last session was a bribe offered by the Government to Irish members. It was all but publicly announced to be the price offered them for abstinence from obstruction. While the measure was in progress and until it became law parliamentary obstruction ceased. The moment the boon had been secured obstruction began again, and this session it has been more desperate and unrelenting than it was before. The attitude and language of Sir Stafford Northcote and the temper shown by the occupants of the Conservative benches prove that the Government have no intention of repeating the experiment, and that even if they were disposed to do so their supporters would not allow them. Docility would be converted into mutiny. Irish members charge the Government with

something like a breach of faith in the matter. There is, I believe, no doubt that officious representatives of the Government went great lengths in promising the support of ministers to such a settlement as the O'Conor Don has proposed. A good many seats depend on the Catholic vote. In many Irish boroughs and counties where a Home-Ruler has no chance the election may be turned by it as between Liberal and Conservative. This fact accounts for the appearance of the name of Mr. Kavanagh, an Irish Tory, on the back of the O'Conor Don's bill. In the county divisions and boroughs of Lancashire the Roman Catholic electors certainly contributed to the Conservative victory. What is true of Lancashire is true of other parts of the United Kingdom in which there are Irish plantations. The party which could secure the Catholic vote without losing what is more valuable to it would do a good stroke of electioneering business. The dream floats before the eyes, not usually very visionary, of party managers and intriguers, but it is only a dream, which waking perceptions dispel. In the first place, the Irish vote cannot be secured by any English political party. Experience surely ought to have made that clear to the dullest party-broker or stock-jobber. The great measures of Mr. Gladstone's Administration, an administration which may be said to have devoted itself to Ireland, did not secure it even common good-will and friendliness when it had rendered the great services which are among its most honorable titles to memory. The Land Bill and the Church Bill were forgotten in the failure of the Irish University Bill, a bill framed in Roman Catholic interests and under Roman Catholic advice, but rejected in obedience to a sudden and unexpected mandate from Rome. But though the bill had the approval in the first instance of Cardinal Manning and had been privately vouched for by two Roman Catholic members of the Administration—Lord O'Hagan, then Lord Chancellor for Ireland, and Mr. Monsell, now Lord Emly, and then Postmaster-General—its failure showed that nothing further could be hoped from Mr. Gladstone.

The Irish desertion at once took place, and the breach between Irish members and the Liberal party has continued unto this day. The Intermediate Education Act of last session was the Tory bid for their support. The support was given while the bill was in progress, and was withdrawn the moment the bill was passed. In the party divisions of this session which have so reduced the Ministerial majority, the Irish vote was given with the Opposition, as an intimation to the Government that the purchase was not complete, and as an intimation to the leaders of the Liberal party that the Irish members were still open to an offer. If it became law through the agency of either party, the same game would be played with the next Irish question. It is quite certain, therefore, that the Irish alliance cannot be secured for a single session by any capitulation, however complete. If it could be, the price to be paid for it would be ruinous. The Church party would be alienated from the Conservatives. The dissenting secularist parties would be alienated from the Liberals. The Government, it is now clear, will give the measure the go-by. If the leaders of the Opposition are induced to take it up, they will certainly exclude themselves from all chance of power for another Parliament; that is to say, during the political lifetime of Mr. Gladstone and Lord Granville. Lord Beaconsfield will go to the country on a Protestant cry which will be far more potent through England, Scotland, and the North of Ireland than any that has been raised during the last generation. Of course, if the demands of the Irish Catholic party are, in the view of the Liberal leaders, founded in justice and social expediency, it is right that they should be supported at any cost. The Whig chiefs of a former time sacrificed office for a generation rather than acquiesce in the maintenance of Roman Catholic disabilities. A similar, though a less enlightened conscientiousness, would be morally respectable on the part of their successors. But it can be shown, I think, that justice and social expediency do not require the Liberal leaders to ruin their party. The interests of Ireland, and especially of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, demand resistance to the educational projects of the Roman Catholic hierarchy. As this is a subject which is of national and of something more than national interest, I shall be glad if you will allow me to return to it in another letter. †††

Correspondence.

MR. C. A. COLE AND THE *ART AMATEUR*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you oblige me with space in your journal to correct a disingenuousness by "Montague Marks, editor and publisher" of the *Art Amateur*, which my friends at a distance may not understand without explanation?

In the *Art Amateur*, No. 2, just issued, is the paragraph, "For the information of whom it may concern, we would say that Charles A. Cole *has no connection with this publication.*" (This italicizing is my doing.)

Now, though I am thankful that the paragraph is true in the sense that I am not connected "with this publication" any longer, it is fair to complete the truth, and to state that I was associated with Montague Marks from April 28 to May 24, and that in the *Art Amateur*, No. 2, "this publication," the following portions are the work of my friends and myself: The article "Spurious Old Masters," on p. 23, by Mr. John Snare, which I brought to Montague Marks; seven paragraphs in "My Note-book," p. 25, supposed to be written by the editor himself entirely, under the *nom de plume* "Montezuma." The loan of all the wood-cuts, as well as the prices and purchasers' names of the Spencer Collection, on pp. 26, 27, 28, 29; the article "Mr. Haden on Etching," p. 31, which I wrote, only I never affixed plate or date, nor did I append any signature—these were added by Montague Marks himself, after his custom. In the "Art Notes," p. 32, I contributed twenty-eight items. "Buhl Furniture" and "Hints for Home Furniture," p. 34, came from my pen. "Pottery Decoration," p. 37, was contributed by my friend Mr. John Bennett; "Amateur Taxidermy," by my friend Dr. Holder; and "Flowers of June," and "Wild Flowers, Ferns, and Grasses," pp. 40, 41, 42, by my valued correspondent Professor Day, of the Normal College.

Now, sir, your readers can see what "Montague Marks" is as "editor" and paragraph writer.

Respectfully yours, Charles A. Cole.

New York, June 25, 1879.

CHEAP AMUSEMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A judge and jury have recently ascertained that the proper punishment for shooting a young lady friend is a five-hundred-dollar fine. As playing with pistols has become so ordinary a pastime it is well to have a judicial decision to the effect that even when death results the expense need not be severely felt by those in moderate circumstances. A person of large means might, at this rate, slaughter his whole visiting list without feeling it severely in pocket, and without suffering a day's imprisonment.

It is to laxity of this sort that we must ascribe the prevailing increase of lynch law, which always has its origin in the fear that justice will not be done by the ordinary process of law. Judges and juries that do not honestly do their duty by criminals are morally answerable for the irregular proceedings that usurp their functions. M. C. L.

Notes.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, will publish in the fall an authorized translation of Maxime Lalanne's 'Treatise on Etching,' by S. R. Koehler, editor of the forthcoming *American Art Review*. Ten plates etched by M. Lalanne and printed in Paris will adorn the volume.——Houghton, Osgood & Co. have in press 'The Philosophy of Music,' by Dr. Pole.——'Essays from the *North American Review*' will shortly appear with the imprint of D. Appleton & Co.——R. Worthington announces 'A Scotchman's Views of America—Black and White,' by Lord George Campbell.——Macmillan & Co. have received from Professor Masson the final instalment, volume vi., of his comprehensive 'Life and Times of Milton,' and the work will be published in the course of the year. The same house have in press the 'Life of Charles James Mathews,' chiefly autobiographical, edited by Charles Dickens.——The July number of the *Magazine of American History* is largely occupied with an admirable compendious account of the French in Rhode Island, by the editor, Mr. John Austin Stevens, illustrated with maps, plans, views, and fac-similes; and the conclusion of the translation of Fersen's letters to his father, 1780–82. This is a timely reinforcement of the appeal to Congress to purchase the Rochambeau papers.——The Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at its St. Louis meeting last August have just been published (Salem, Mass.) The papers are, as usual, of great and varied interest, from Mr. Edison's "Use of the Tasimeter" to Mr. Bandelier's "Sources for Aboriginal History of Spanish America" and President Newcomb's address on the "Course of Nature." There is a noticeable increase in illustrations, apropos of glacial striæ, the flexi-

bility of the earth's crust, the Rocky Mountain locusts, meteorology, etc.——We lately described the aims of the proposed Archæological Institute of America, "formed for the purpose of promoting and directing archæological investigation and research," by sending out expeditions and otherwise. Life memberships at $100 and annual memberships at $10 are now earnestly desired, and persons of either sex who wish to join the organization should address the Secretary, Mr. Edward H. Greenleaf, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston. Prof. C. E. Norton is President, and the Executive Committee embraces also Messrs. Martin Brimmer, O. W. Peabody, Francis Parkman, H. W. Haynes, W. R. Ware, W. W. Goodwin, and Alexander Agassiz.——From B. Westermann & Co. we have received Part I. of the 'Geschichte der Literatur des skandinavischen Nordens von den ältesten Zeiten bis auf die Gegenwart,' by Frederik Winkel Horn, of Kopenhagen. The work aims to give a succinct account of the literature of Iceland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, and to this is to be added a chapter on Finland. Prof. Horn is well known as the translator into Danish of the Elder Edda (Copenhagen, 1869), and of sundry Old Norse sagas, and his fitness for the work he has now undertaken cannot be doubted. The first part is wholly devoted to Icelandic literature, the old and modern.——We have received the annual report of the Natural History Society (*Naturhistorischer Verein*) of Wisconsin for 1877-78. The Society, which exists in Milwaukee, is exceptional in being composed chiefly or wholly of Germans. It has a museum and library, and has been fairly prosperous during the past year.——Some Italian translations of Longfellow's poetry, including "Excelsior" and "Footsteps of Angels," accompany an anonymous paper in honor of the poet's 72d birthday in No. 75 of the *Rassegna Settimanale*.——In No. 16-17 of the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes* just and high praise is given by Dr. J. Koch to Dr. Jarník's 'Index to Diez's Etymologisches Wörterbuch,' a much-needed clew to a discouraging labyrinth.——*Magyar Amerika* is the title of a new weekly paper published July 1, in this city, half in English and half in Hungarian.

—We have received from F. W. Christern the first few numbers of the new Paris weekly *La Vie Moderne*. It is a quarto of sixteen pages with a buff cover, profusely illustrated by those processes in which the French so far excel every other nation. Some of the cartoons, like Bonnat's important portrait of Victor Hugo, or Ulysse Butin's sea-side studies, or Couture's "Courtisane" (after the original now owned in Philadelphia), occupy two pages. There are reproductions of sketches by Detaille, Meissonier, Gérôme, Paul Baudry, and other well-known masters, in all respects like those of which *L'Art* is so prodigal; there are portraits of literary and artistic notabilities, scenes from every-day life on the streets, and designs for the *feuilleton;* in short, the stamp of this new periodical is above and before all artistic. When we come to the text not much is to be said for it, nor much about it, except that it treats lightly of the stage, music, furniture, bric-à-brac, science, art, etc., and that Edmond de Goncourt and A. Daudet are already among the contributors. Perhaps the most curious feature of the high-sounding programme of *La Vie Moderne* is its intention to be a very proper family paper; to encourage the pride of maternity; "de traiter des questions domestiques et des choses du foyer avec la souci que l'on met à scruter les secrets de la vie galante"; to prove that all women are not adventurers, etc. This way of putting it is characteristically French, and so is the concession which the editors ask in return of the *mères de famille*—some little license (*quelques franchises*) for the contributors, especially in works of imagination; for, these mothers must remember, their husbands have to be won over to the new family paper. One would say that the price of *La Vie Moderne* is not dear to those for whom its pictures would prove the chief attraction—36 francs per annum, plus postage.

—*Solon Shingle*, very firmly planted in his seat, introduces us in the July *Scribner's* to an interesting historical review of "The American on the Stage," meaning by "the American" what a foreigner, who uses the term loosely, would understand better by the Yankee. One is a little surprised at the diversity of the types which have from time to time found favor both here and abroad, from Hackett's *Nimrod Wildfire* to Florence's *Bardwell Slote*. Perhaps reasonable objection might be made to Mr. Matthew's enumeration among more general types of Chanfrau's *Mose* and Jefferson's *Rip van Winkle;* but taken all together they give a rather comfortable sense of high achievement by a few chosen American actors, and encourage the hope of a greater diffusion of histrionic excellence hereafter. Mr. Smith's "Indian Village on the Amazons" (Ereré) is by far the best of the series, and did not need the foot-note which certifies the author's long acquaintance with the Indian people of this vicinity. Of particular interest is the account of pottery-making by the women, as Prof. Hartt had previously described it, and of the process of preparing farinha. Madame Bonaparte's letters from Europe are embellished by Stuart's triple likeness of the writer, and that of her husband by the same artist. A paper on "Summer Entomology" is illustrated with figures of moths and butterflies borrowed from the standard Massachusetts work known as "Harris on Insects Injurious to Vegetation." In these wood-engravings our countryman, Mr. Henry Marsh, not only surpassed all previous efforts in this line of natural history, but will leave a confident challenge to posterity to equal them. Dr. George M. Beard talks at length of the "Delusions of Clairvoyance," but makes no progress towards establishing the unreality of the gift which imposture successfully counterfeits. He narrates his experiments with "healing mediums," after having told us that a certain "formulated biological law" makes investigation unscientific as well as unnecessary. Facts, however, are sometimes of even more value than formulas.

—In another place we have spoken of Mr. Linton's paper in the June *Atlantic*, and of the reply to it in the current number of *Scribner's*. The Linton article was sharp and uncompromising enough as printed; but it appears that the writer took the gravest offence at the omission from it of several expressions which, in the opinion of the editor of the *Atlantic*, were too violent or too grotesque. Mr. Linton has printed a small pamphlet consisting of his protest addressed to the editor, and of the resulting correspondence between himself and the editor and publishers, with some very vituperative comments of his own; the whole of which he submits to the public as the great tribunal of final judgment in such cases. The difficulty in addressing that tribunal is, however, to gain its ear. It is apt to refuse to listen; very apt to underrate (in the appellant's opinion) that which (in its own opinion) the appellant overrates. There is the very greatest danger that, in this case, the judge may think that Mr. Linton is making a prodigious fuss about a small matter. Why should not his paper, however valuable, share the common lot, and receive editorial revision? But, says Mr. Linton, it was positively promised me by Mr. Howells that my article should be printed as I wrote it. In this assertion lies the only sting of the pamphlet in question. It is directly charged against the well-known and respected editor of the *Atlantic* that he promised not to change this paper at all, and that he broke his promise. But Mr. Linton prints what he calls the promise, and it certainly does not, to our mind, convey a guarantee against the trifling changes which Mr. Howells made.

—The *Atlantic* for July opens with an excellent anonymous story, "Massy Sprague's Daughter," describing the early life of a young girl of East Indian descent who lived on a remote island off Newport. It gives opportunity for characterization of two opposite kinds, the ignorant, warm-hearted islanders and the fashionable circles of Newport. The story is pathetic, but quiet and carefully wrought out, and is remarkable for the variety of interest it affords in so few pages. Another anonymous author writes of the "Public Balls of New York," and after an unnecessarily long introduction in regard to observers and observations all over the world, he finally comes to the object of his article, and describes the Charity and the French Cooks' Balls, the Liederkranz and the Arion Balls, in a way which will please those who are not New-Yorkers, and will give a new view of the greatest American city to many persons who have fancied themselves well acquainted with it; but he leaves out one class of balls which M. Taine would have seen and on which he would have commented. The more solid articles are "Recent Modifications in Sanitary Drainage," by Colonel Waring, a matter so important that no one ought to be deterred from reading it by its necessary technicalities, and "Our Commerce with Cuba, Porto Rico, and Mexico," a very plain and vigorous presentation of the bad state of our commerce with those countries and of the reasons for it. The only other noticeable article is Rev. E. E. Hale's "A Fossil from the Tertiary," an account of the origin and early history of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, together with some description of its founders and their personal characteristics. "H. H." and Prof. Boyesen are among the poets of the number.

—The complete history of the Smithsonian Institution rightly seemed to the Board of Regents important enough to merit preserving in a connected form, and this not easy task was assigned to Mr. William J Rhees. The result of his patient labor is a volume of 1,000 pages, derived entirely from original documents. Three-fourths of it is occupied with Congressional proceedings in regard to the Institution; the remaining space being given up to pertinent extracts from the Memoirs of John Quincy Adams, the Treasury account with the Smithson Fund, proposed

applications of Smithson's bequest, and letters on the programme of organization. We remark as of present interest that the late George Catlin was a petitioner to Congress, thirty-three years ago, "for the purchase of his gallery of Indian collections of paintings," which has just now, almost by a miracle, been freely acquired by the Government. Their estimated value was $50,000, which Senator Clayton proposed should be paid off in ten annual instalments. The paintings, he said, about six hundred in number, were then "at the Louvre, in Paris, where they met unqualified approbation." The intelligent Mr. Westcott, however, of Virginia, said bluntly that he was "opposed to purchasing the portraits of savages. What great moral lesson are they intended to inculcate? He would rather see the portraits of the numerous citizens who have been murdered by these Indians. He would not vote a cent for a portrait of an Indian." Neither would nor did a majority of his colleagues. Passages like these enliven the volume as they do the *Congressional Globe*, and even the Index will be found amusing. The wag who compiled it not only makes entries referring to the Smithsonian Institution sometimes under S and sometimes under I, but gravely indexes the rhetorical allusions of Congressmen and others, so that we find "Arabian merchant, story of education of son of," "Bible, story of purchase of, for $2,500 false," "Foedera, Rhymers" (*sic*), "Italians, elastic resiliency of," "Lying-in hospital" (!), etc. Senator Hale had quoted a remark of the *Tribune's* that the Institution "was a sort of lying-in hospital for literary valetudinarians."

—The result of the balloting for Overseers at Harvard on Commencement Day was, that out of seven hundred and sixty-one votes cast, the Rev. Dr. H. W. Bellows received six hundred and seventy-six, and was elected first on the list for the term of six years. This confirms our view that the college is not suffering from provincial narrowness, since but for the prevalence of a feeling we need not say of the importance of the innovation proposed by the Harvard Club, but of the propriety or even unobjectionableness of it, the local element might easily have outvoted the non-resident. President Eliot expressed his gratification at so hearty a verdict, which he thought would have to be passed upon by the courts, and perhaps involve an amendment of the statute. In that case he hoped the whole body of graduates (not those of the college alone) would be admitted to the suffrage, now that the standards of the law, medical, and other schools ensure it against debasement. It certainly seems as desirable to strengthen the attachment of these alumni to the University and to have the benefit of their advice, as to regard the wishes of the non-resident classical alumni. It only remains to observe that the Harvard Club has put forward the best possible candidate to prove the sincerity of its agitation, and that its representation in the Board of Overseers will not be merely nominal.

—Busch's book about Bismarck continues to excite attention as the cause of legal and personal disputes, the last of which is now before a French court. A Mr. Seinguerlet hit upon the excellent plan of publishing the more interesting parts of Busch's two volumes, accompanied by notes explanatory of the persons and events referred to—a sort of editing which would not have injured the American edition. But at the same time Seinguerlet's version was making, an unabridged and unannotated translation was being prepared, and it chanced that the two works were ready for publication the same day. The compiler of the abridgment was as happy in the title chosen as he was in the general idea of his work, and 'Les propos de table de M. de Bismarck' had reached a second edition before the publisher of the full translation obtained an injunction upon the sale of the rival edition. And not content with thus heading off competition in the trade, he at the same time began a prosecution of Mr. Seinguerlet himself as guilty of breach of copyright. The trial has not yet taken place, but the authorized version has reached a third edition.

GAIRDNER'S RICHARD III.*

I.

THOSE who take up this book need not be afraid that they will find in it another whimsical rehabilitation of a tyrant, combined with slanderous disparagement of his victims. It is a learned and judicial investigation of a strange case. "Richard III.," says Mr. Gairdner truly, "is not a monster. He is the natural outgrowth of monstrous and horrible times. He is the fitting termination of the rule of the House of York—the exemplification of an old divinely-attested saying, that they who take the sword shall perish by it." Mr. Gairdner proceeds to qualify this statement, so far as the character of the House of York is concerned, by the admission that Richard's father, the Duke of York, "was not an extreme man, but one who protested by every loyal means against misgovernment, and exhausted every form of peaceable remonstrance before he finally advanced his title to the crown." This is no more than justice. The original fountain of this deluge of blood and horrors was undoubtedly the maladministration of Margaret of Anjou and her Camarilla. York came forward in the first instance, with abundant justification, as a national reformer, and it is pretty evident that the best and most civilized portion of England adhered to him and to his house. The first example of unbridled savagery was also set by the Lancastrians in the treatment of York's body and the butchery of his young son, Rutland, after the battle of Wakefield; and the excesses committed by the barbarous Northern levies of the Lancastrians in their great raid upon the South, at the time of the second battle of St. Albans, may well have awakened a fierce spirit of retaliation. But let the original responsibility rest where it will, it is not the less true that Richard's character was formed by a civil war, and by a civil war remarkable not only for sanguinary ferocity but for boundless perfidy and treachery on both sides.

This, moreover, is the period of English history corresponding to that period of Italian history the characteristics of which culminate in the Borgias and Machiavelli. It is the interregnum between the Catholic morality of the Middle Ages and the Protestant morality which, though it may be said to have commenced with the Reformation, or even with the Lollards, hardly gained a strong hold upon the nation before the close of the Tudor dynasty. Superstition was still rife: relics and ecclesiastical privileges commanded a high price; people could anxiously stipulate for absolution at the hands of Pope Alexander VI., and Richard III. was a founder of religious houses. But, among the higher classes especially, morality, public, domestic, and personal, was at the lowest ebb. In England criminal ambition, of course, took a less refined form than in Italy; it stabbed you with a dagger instead of poisoning you in a consecrated wafer. Still, even in England we can discern the union of Renaissance culture with the depravity of the Catholic decadence. Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, for example, justly surnamed the Butcher, was a man of culture and a patron of letters. Nor are traces of the same tendency wanting either in Edward IV. or in Richard III.

An excuse has been made for Jeffreys on the ground of youth. Richard III. is entitled to the same excuse in larger measure. He was precociously able, for when only nineteen he commanded divisions of his brother's army with success both at Barnet and Tewksbury; and from his very boyhood he sat in the conclave of iniquity and was steeped in criminal intrigue and blood. The murder of his father and his brother by the Lancastrians, coming just when it was likely to make a deep impression on his boyish mind, probably seemed to him to justify any use of his dagger in the interest of his family, and may palliate, or at least bring within the limits of ordinary wickedness, the slaughter of the young Edward, son of Henry VI., at Tewksbury, and the murder of Henry VI. himself in the Tower, supposing Richard to have been guilty of these crimes. With regard to the slaughter of young Edward, the result of Mr. Gairdner's judicial review of the contemporary evidence seems to be that Richard's share was at most that of an accessory, though it is very likely that he was a zealous and forward one. In the murder of Henry VI. in the Tower there is more reason for believing that Richard acted the principal part. That Henry was murdered, and did not, as the official chronicler wished the world to believe, die "of pure displeasure and melancholy" at the overthrow of his party and dynasty, there can be no reasonable doubt; and the truth as to the chief agent in the transaction is probably indicated, though in a cautious way, by the circumstantial narrative of Dr. Warkworth, Master of St. Peter's College, Cambridge, written, as Mr. Gairdner says, certainly within twelve years after the event:

"And the same night that King Edward came to London, King Harry, being in ward in prison in the Tower of London, was put to death, the 21st day of May, on a Tuesday night, between eleven and twelve of the clock, being then at the Tower *the Duke of Gloucester*, brother to King Edward, and many others; and on the morrow he was chested and brought to Paul's, and his face was open that every man might see him. And in his lying he bled on the pavement there; and afterwards at the Black Friars was brought, and there he bled new and fresh; and from thence he was carried to Chertsey Abbey in a boat, and buried there in Our Lady's Chapel."

Some deduction, more perhaps than Mr. Gairdner is disposed to al-

* 'History of the Life and Reign of Richard the Third. To which is added The Story of Perkin Warbeck, from original documents. By James Gairdner, Author of 'The Houses of Lancaster and York,' Editor of 'The Paston Letters,' etc.' London: Longmans.

low, must be made from the value of Dr. Warkworth's testimony, on the ground of the incredible statements with which it concludes as to the miraculous effusion of blood from the corpse. Yet a witness may be trustworthy as to facts in general though with regard to a special class of facts he is not free from the popular superstition of the time.

These deeds, however, if done by Richard at all, were done in the interest of his family or his faction ; they were quite in the moral fashion of his day ; and they do not seem to have affected his position in public opinion ; certainly they did not prevent his being personally very popular in the North, where, when he had married one of the two coheiresses of Warwick and become lord of her estates, he principally resided. He acquired and has retained higher distinction as a criminal by the deeds which he is accused of having committed in the interest of his personal ambition against the members of his own family, and which, if he was really guilty of them, were violations not only of public morality but of natural affection. The first of these is the plot against the life of his brother Clarence. Shakspere's version of this affair has been so deeply imprinted on our minds by one of the highest efforts of his dramatic power that we do not easily liberate our judgments from the spell ; but it must be owned in justice to Richard that the real evidence is very shadowy, and that the matter remains one of the dark mysteries of that wicked and murderous court. Shakspere dramatizes the story told by Sir Thomas More, who for the imputation of fratricidal intrigue which he is disposed to cast on Richard does not pretend to have any stronger ground than the surmise of "wise men," and ends by saying : "But of all this point there is no certainty, and whoso divineth upon conjectures may as well shoot too far as too short." He testifies, indeed, that Richard "resisted openly," though with an insinuation that the resistance was merely colorable and hollow. On the other hand, if the expression of tardy remorse attributed to the king is authentic, neither Richard nor any one else made any effort after the sentence to stay the execution. Richard profited, as Mr. Gairdner shows, by his brother's death, though not to such an extent as to constitute a strong temptation to fratricide, unless he had already conceived the design of usurping the crown. It is perhaps a suspicious circumstance, considering his general character, that he founded, just after the tragedy, two colleges of priests to pray for the souls of the family, including Clarence. Edward IV., however, was a tiger whose ire when once aroused—and there was enough to arouse it in the character and conduct of Clarence—would scarcely need to be stimulated by the artifices of any Iago. Richard's memory would probably have escaped this accusation if he had not been undeniably guilty of other crimes against his own flesh and blood.

On the other hand, there can be no sort of doubt that he usurped the throne of his nephew and ward, well knowing him to be the rightful heir. It seems also certain that, to lend color to his usurpation, he caused an infamous charge to be published against the honor of his own mother. This was an almost gratuitous outrage on nature and decency, since he had another plea, on which he ultimately rested his case before Parliament, exactly adapted to the moral and ecclesiastical taste of his age, and not devoid, it would appear, of a shadow of foundation. It was a thing not unlikely in itself that so reckless a sensualist as Edward IV. should have used, for the purpose of seduction, a false promise of marriage ; and a bishop was ready to attest a precontract with Lady Eleanor Butler, which would have rendered the subsequent marriage with Elizabeth Woodville invalid and its offspring illegitimate. Perhaps this slander of the Duchess of York is the worst part of the transaction. As to the usurpation itself there is not a little to be said for it, at least from the Positivist and Bismarckian point of view. To a kingdom still heaving with the restless elements of civil war the accession of a boy king would have been the greatest of all possible calamities. Only the rule of a man, and of a strong man, afforded the slightest chance of escape from the renewal of a sanguinary anarchy. There was at least as much need of a "constable" on the morrow of the Wars of the Roses as there was when Cromwell felt himself called by public necessity to undertake that part. The government, under a stripling, would have at once become the prize of court factions, and the faction which was worsted in intrigue would infallibly have appealed to arms. Supposing even that Richard had succeeded in ruling for some time in his nephew's name, he might expect that his fate in the end would be that which another Duke of Gloucester met at the hands of Richard II. The Woodvilles were evidently coming up to London with a large body of troops to seize upon the government. Their summary execution and that of Hastings by the Protector were probably measures of self-defence, though savage and precipitate. It was a daring and unscrupulous move in a game which everybody had been playing for thirty years, and the victims themselves would scarcely feel indignant, though they would feel that they had been checkmated. Earl Rivers seems hardly to have taken umbrage at having his head cut off, for he specially commended to "my Lord of Gloucester," in terms implying confidence in my Lord's generosity and piety, the fulfilment of his last will. As to the nation, it no doubt accepted as perfectly familiar and natural these incidents of another revolution.

Pictures of the Past. Memoirs of Men I have Met and Places I have Seen. By Francis H. Grundy, C.E. (London: Griffiths & Farran. 1879.) —Mr. Grundy began life as a civil engineer in the days of the first railroad mania, and from that time to his latest expedition into the Australian bush his career has been full of incident and adventure. Before he left England he had the good fortune to meet several distinguished persons, and his reminiscences of these make the chief literary interest of his book. In his childhood Miss Martineau frightened him by patting him on the head and putting him questions which he had to answer by shouting through her "trumpet apparatus" ; and her brother, the Rev. James Martineau, "benevolently ugly, if ugly at all, with his rough-cut features, wild, upstanding black hair, low, broad forehead and swarthy complexion," seems to have won his boyish affection. While still in his teens he became the intimate friend of Patrick Branwell Brontë, of whose life he gives a frank account, which he does his best to make a defence against Mrs. Gaskell's characterization. The two young men met in Yorkshire, where Brontë, twenty-two years old, was a station-master at Luddendenfoot, having previously been successively usher at a school, private tutor, and self-taught portrait-painter ; they were boon companions, and were thrown together by the entire absence of any other youths of equal education and breeding. This is Mr. Grundy's sketch of the Brontë family at this time, while they were still obscure :

"The father, upright, handsome, distantly courteous, white-haired, tall ; knowing me as his son's friend, he would treat me in the Grandisonian fashion, coming himself down to the little inn to invite me, a boy, up to his house, where I would be coldly uncomfortable until I could escape with Patrick Branwell to the moors. The daughters, distant and distrait, large of nose, small of figure, red of hair, prominent of spectacles, showing great intellectual development, but with eyes constantly cast down, very silent, painfully retiring. . . . Branwell was very like them, almost insignificantly small—one of his life's trials. He had a mass of red hair, which he wore brushed high off his forehead—to help his height, I fancy ; a great bumpy, intellectual forehead, nearly half the size of the whole facial contour ; small, ferrety eyes, deep sunk, and still further hidden by the never-removed spectacles ; prominent nose, but weak lower features. He had a downcast look, which never varied, save for a rapid momentary glance at long intervals. Small and thin of person, he was the reverse of attractive at first sight."

The author describes Brontë at this time as given to opium-eating (a habit which he broke off, but afterwards took up again), to copious drinking, and to fits of passion, during which he would strike his fist through door-panels to soothe himself. He was brilliant in conversation, ambitious of literary or artistic fame, affectionate, attached to his home, but weak-willed, addicted to debauchery, with a character undermined by the self-indulgence to which he had become habituated through his forced companionship with the native villagers at the tavern—the only society open to him in boyhood, because his father had refused to send him to school. His great powers were undoubted. He was the hope of the family, and his brilliancy was widely known. Even Mrs. Gaskell speaks of him as "perhaps, to begin with, the greatest genius in this rare family," and he received the private commendation of men well known in letters. But the wreck was already plain when the author first knew him. He lost his situation through culpable carelessness, and Mr. Grundy lost sight of him for three years. In 1845 Brontë writes in better spirits :

"I have at length acquired health and strength and soundness of mind far superior, I trust, to anything shown by that miserable wreck you used to know under my name. I can now speak cheerfully, and enjoy the company of another without the stimulus of six glasses of whiskey. . . . I would rather give my hand than undergo again the grovelling carelessness, the malignant yet cold debauchery, the determination to find how far mind could carry body without both being chucked into hell, which too often marked my conduct when there, lost as I was to all I really liked, and seeking relief in the indulgence of feelings which form the black spot in my character."

Then followed the three years of the intrigue which ruined him finally with heart-breaking love for a woman who appears to have been both bold and base. At the end of this time, a few days before his death, Mr. Grundy saw Brontë at Haworth Inn, and the description shows a broken-down man, half-crazed by grief, opium, and brandy, on the verge of madness,

from which death saved him. Mr. Grundy would have served his friend better by silence than by publishing such letters as these, which prove only more distinctly the utterly wretched life of Brontë, and bring out in fuller detail than hitherto the abject weakness of his character. There is nothing here to show his genius, and until some better proof is forthcoming, the assertion which the author reports from Brontë, that he wrote a great part of 'Wuthering Heights,' may be disregarded, although Mr. Grundy adds that "what his sister said bore out the assertion."

Meanwhile, during this interval the author had made the acquaintance of the Stephensons, Leigh Hunt and his family, G. H. Lewes, and other eminent men. Of the Stephensons the fullest account is given by a friend of Mr. Grundy, who has contributed a whole chapter on them to the volume. George Stephenson is, of course, the central figure, and as this anonymous friend lived in his house as his private secretary we get a close personal view of the great inventor. He was overburdened with the vanity which besets self-made men, and showed his coarse pitman extraction more than once; simple in dress, contemptuous of all ornament or display, fond of animals, devoted to his gardens, talking much and loudly of himself and his success, he showed the same determined self-assertion in private life as in his experiences with companies and committees. He did not forget his early life or attempt to avoid reference to it, and one of his liveliest stories was of a fight with a brother pitman who was torturing some animal.

"'They said I was beat,' said he, excitedly, 'but I never knew it myself, and just as I was feeling faintish-like Bully Bill gave in. I didn't mean to be beat, and I was just as obstinate then as I was when old Lord —— abused me for it. But I wasn't just myself either for a week or two. Bully Bill was a good 'un.' And then old George would relate how he had 'almost' thought of going into the 'profession'; nay, for the moment he 'almost' persuaded himself and quite persuaded *me* that the 'ring' had lost a bright ornament in him."

There are some characteristic reminiscences of Leigh Hunt, in whose innocent ignorance of the value of money the author believes, but for these we must refer the reader to the book, as well as for what makes up the larger part of its subject-matter, accounts of the last days of inns and stages in Yorkshire, of the perils and toils of engineering, the opening of new lines and the eating of great dinners, the Plug Riots and the Irish famine, together with the graphic description of Australian life in early days in town and bush, so similar, except for local color, to life in Western mining and railroad towns. All of it is entertaining and instructive, although much marred in the telling by a very familiar, loose, gossipy, and disjointed style, which, if it sometimes amuses, will sometimes irritate the reader.

Reading as a Fine Art. By Ernest Legouvé, of the Académie Française. Translated from the Ninth Edition by Abby Langdon Alger. (Boston: Roberts Bros. Pp. 97.)—*The Art of Reading.* By Ernest Legouvé, of the French Academy, translated and illustrated with copious notes, mainly biographical, by Edward Roth. (Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger. Pp. 372.)—Though hardly two years have elapsed since M. Legouvé's little book was warmly commended in these columns, three attempts have been made to render it into English: first Miss Kate Hillard condensed it into an article for *Appleton's Journal*, then the Boston volume appeared, and this has at last been followed by the more pretentious and bulky book from Philadelphia. Despite such strong testimony in favor of M. Legouvé's essay, it may be as well to repeat that it is the best book known to us on the subject, that it is written by an expert, and that it is illustrated with many pertinent and personal anecdotes. Very few books indeed which teach so much and so wisely are so interesting as this. M. Legouvé first asserts and then proves that reading is not a gift but an art; and an art, like any other, long, and worthy of devoted study. After that he drops the part of the preacher and assumes the teacher's office, to indicate errors and to suggest means of correction.

Miss Alger's translation fills only ninety-seven pages, each about as large as M. Legouvé's page, of which he has one hundred and seventy-one. The translation is obviously very much condensed, whereas the original work is only too brief. The omissions are sometimes of a single word, as on p. 10, where M. Legouvé mentions five fine actors with whom he has worked, and the American translator gives us the names of only four; in general they are more important. A passage on pp. 14–15 of the French edition is reduced by nearly one-half on pp. 16–17 of the American, and one whole chapter, "Souvenir de Ponsard," pp. 156–166, is entirely dropped. Allowing for this uncalled-for curtailing, Miss Alger's translation is flowing and free, and fairly represents the spirit of M. Legouvé's teaching. It can be cordially recommended to all who cannot read the original, and yet desire to know what France, a land of good readers and skilful reciters, may have to teach us.

Mr. Roth's unabridged translation is also acceptable, although not as neat or as vigorous as Miss Alger's; it dilutes unduly where the other condenses. "Talma," says M. Legouvé, "avait réduit toutes ces règles en une maxime frappante: Tout artiste qui se fatigue est un artiste médiocre." Mr. Roth's rendering of this is: "All his rules on this subject Talma reduced to one striking maxim: Every artist that lets himself run out of breath is nothing more than mediocre." From a desire doubtless to reproduce freely the spirit of the lively original, Mr. Roth resorts now and then to unpleasant colloquialisms. His translation includes the author's latest utterance on the subject published in Paris about a year ago, and it might be supposed that Mr. Roth would be satisfied with his completeness; but such is not the case. In writing for French readers M. Legouvé, of course, cited many proper names more familiar to Frenchmen than to us. His teaching is perfectly intelligible without any great knowledge of the writers and actors whom he mentions—without any knowledge of them, indeed. An anecdote of Ponsard is scarcely more instructive when we are told in an elaborate note that "a little more life and movement infused into his action, and a little more firmness into his style, would have perhaps raised him to the first class of dramatic authors." But Mr. Roth thinks otherwise, and he gives us more than two pages of a biography of Ponsard, and nearly a hundred other notes of the same sort, covering two hundred-odd pages, or about fifty more than M. Legouvé's text is made to fill. Unfortunately, Mr. Roth has had to cram for his notes—he tells us as much—and they abound in errors, bad taste, and faulty appreciation. Those on Diderot and Sainte-Beuve are perhaps the worst. It is not creditable, after Carlyle's essay and Mr. Morley's biography, that any one should write of Diderot as Mr. Roth does (pp. 205–7), in language such as one may imagine an angry Jesuit to have been capable of when the successive volumes of the 'Encyclopædia' were coming forth. Only a little better is the account of Sainte-Beuve (p. 250).

Epochs of Ancient History. The Roman Empire of the Second Century; or, The Age of the Antonines. By W. W. Capes, M.A. (New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. Pp. 226.)—Mr. Capes's 'Age of the Antonines' is a worthy account of that period in the history of the world in which Gibbon declares that "the condition of the human race was most happy and prosperous," being "governed by absolute power under the guidance of virtue and wisdom." Without forgetting the occasional acts of cruelty ascribed to Hadrian's old age, the incapacity of Lucius Verus, and the melancholy presages of future disaster with which the reign of Marcus Aurelius was filled, one must admit that this encomium was deserved. Hardly another line of sovereigns in history presents so fair a record. Mr. Capes is equally good in narration, in depicting character, and in descriptions and reflections of a more general nature, which last fill up more than one-third of the volume. The noble rulers whom history has singled out as "the five good emperors" pass before us with distinct individuality; there was no sameness or dulness in their virtues. And, although the military events of this period do not possess the graphic interest of the campaigns of Marius or Cæsar or Germanicus, the narrative portion of the work is nevertheless very readable—eminently from the personal and human interest which attaches to them in a high degree.

These narrative chapters, five in number—one for each emperor—are followed by four chapters of a more general nature, which treat respectively of the Christians, of the other religions of the time, of the literary currents, and of the imperial administration. These are all very good—least good, or at any rate least complete, that upon the administration. Its lack of completeness is, to be sure, rather in scope than in treatment. It did not come within Mr. Capes's plan to give a complete account of the government of the empire—that he had already done in his previous volume, 'The Early Empire'; and the reader need only turn to this to find the deficiencies of the present account for the most part supplemented. But this only proves what we said in reviewing that previous volume—that the attempt to make "Epochs" out of the Roman Empire is a mistaken one. As the external history of five reigns forming a definite and independent group, this is all that one could wish; as the account of an important period, the author could not make it complete without repeating what he had said in a former volume. What strikes one most in reading these chapters, especially those upon the religions of the time, is that modern character which has so often been noticed as belonging to it.

Of course, this is so with Christianity; this is the one element that most divides modern from ancient society. But it is equally true of the religious spirit of the age in general. It is not necessary to undervalue the contrast which Christianity presented to the pagan religions, and the epoch which it made in the history of the world; at the same time, it is remarkable how clearly it appears in these pages as part of a great current which was carrying with it all that was best and most hopeful in society. It was indeed destined to become the main stream of the current, and absorb into itself the life and promise of all the rest.

There are two good maps—one of the lands upon the Danube, the other of the East.

A Bundle of Papers. By Paul Siegvolk. (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.)—Occasionally commonplace confronts the world undisguisedly in a book like this, introducing itself carelessly with something from Montaigne, as in this preface : "Ce fagotage de tant de diverses pièces se faict en cette condition, que ie n'y mets le main que lorsqu'une trop lasche oysifveté me presse"—and so on indefinitely with assurance. These papers are such as might form the padding of a third-class magazine without offence. They are concerned usually with the conduct of life, and contain such advice relative thereto as would form the worldly wisdom of a country gentleman, easy-going, observant, well-read, in his lighter hours inclined to garrulity, and in his heavier afflicted by a labored striving after antithesis, in which the distinction is perhaps as frequently in the *but* as in the thought. A legend of the Hudson, a mystery of Narragansett Heights, and the musings of a street-railway conductor vary the subject without varying the interest. It might be prescribed in small portions to tender consciences for absence from church of a Sunday morning in remote country districts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Adams (H.), Life of Albert Gallatin	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Baird (S. F.), Annual Record of Science and Industry for 1878	(Harper & Bros.)	
Biarnois (A.), Self-Instructor in French	(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.)	
Bresciani (Rev. A.), Lorenzo; or, The Conscript	" "	
Collins (W.), The Yellow Mask, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	$0 25
Conyngham (D. P.), The O'Mahony	(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.)	
Cullum (Gen. G. W.), Campaigns of the War of 1812-15	(James Miller)	5 00
Dippold (G. T.), Geibel's Brunhild, translated	(Ginn & Heath)	
Dorsey (Mrs. A. H.), Tangled Paths : a Tale	(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.)	
Eichberg (J.), Girls' High School Music Reader	(Ginn & Heath)	1 25
Elliott (S. B.), The Felmeres : a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.)	1 50
Faber (Rev. F. W.), Maxims and Sayings	(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.)	
German (L.), Slowacki's Maria Stuart, übersetzt, swd	(W. Friedrich)	
Hetty's Boarder, swd	(A. K. Loring)	50
Hogbin (Rev. A. C.), Elsa : a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Horn (F. W.), Geschichte der Literatur des Skandinavischens Nordens, Part I., swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Lamb (C.), Last Essays of Elia	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Littell's Living Age, April-June, 1879	(Littell & Co.)	
O'Reilly (J. B.), Moondyne : a Tale	(Pilot Pub. Co.)	
Pickering (Dr. C.), Chronological History of Plants	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Rydberg (V.), Roman Days	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 00
Stevenson (R. L.), Travels with a Donkey in the Cévennes	(Roberts Bros.)	1 00
Sturgis (J.), An Accomplished Gentleman : a Tale, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Tennyson (A.), The Lover's Tale	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	25
Walford (L. B.), Cousins : a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Young (J. R.), Around the World with General Grant, Parts 1, 2, swd	(American News Co.)	50

Fine Arts.

WOOD-ENGRAVING.

MR. W. J. LINTON'S paper in the June *Atlantic*, entitled, "Art in Engraving on Wood," which contained very unsparing denunciation of the style of illustration for which *Scribner's Monthly* has become celebrated, and specially unfavorable mention of some of the more elaborate cuts, has been answered briefly in the editorial pages of the July number of that journal. The question really at issue is as to the proper task of the designer and engraver of book illustration by means of relief engraving. The wearing out of the block is no longer a consideration, as practically all the prints are made from electrotypes. The wood-block is like the sculptor's clay from which the plaster and the bronze are moulded ; and the artist-engraver on wood has before him the duty of producing the most effective possible expression of his idea, whether original or taken from another artist's design, under the conditions, generally, of the printing of many copies rapidly rather than a few with especial care. The discussion of this interesting subject demands space, and is the business of the monthlies and the quarterlies, perhaps, rather than ours ; but let us see, at least, what Mr. Linton says, and what the editors of *Scribner's* have to say in answer.

Mr. Linton, it should be stated, is a man of ripe years and long experience, an engraver on wood of very great and widely-spread reputation, and of forty years' standing ; an engraver occasionally of his own designs. These last, as they have come under our notice, we have had to speak of without praise or approval; but no student of art can doubt that he has done excellent wood-engraving in his time. He has also been known as a radical reformer, and has edited and helped publish journals of very "advanced" views on politico-philanthropic subjects, and through a long and busy life has enjoyed wide experience of men and of events. Such a life as his has been awakens every faculty of the able and vigorous man, and ensures the interest and suggestiveness of his matured opinions upon the subject of his continued study, and, accordingly, the *Atlantic* article is good reading, in spite of a not very lucid literary style, and is crowded with valuable material. It begins with the statement that art in wood-engraving is young as yet—less than a century old—inasmuch as the cutter of the blocks upon which Dürer or Holbein drew was a skilful workman only, following with care the black line traced by the artist, careless of all except faithful workmanship, and, indeed, responsible for nothing more. With Bewick and Branston art in wood-engraving begins, soon to separate into two schools, of which the Branston school, in spite of its powerful origin and the early appearance in it of the greatest of wood-engravers (not of artists in wood-engraving), Thompson—or perhaps because of that very excellence of workmanship—went off soon into mechanical graces and the display of mere dexterity, as in the illustrations to Lane's 'Arabian Nights.'

All this is very good, and very well put. Mr. Linton is perhaps more fit than any one else to write the history of wood-engraving, especially of the development of the art in the later years of the seventeenth century, and its decay in our own, from Bewick's first coarse labels and advertising cuts up to his consummate work, and such work of the other school as that of the "Northcote Tables" and the "Tower Menagerie," and then down again to the cuts of twenty years ago after Birket Foster and Creswick. And now, in the pages that follow, we begin to find faintly shadowed forth, but never directly expressed, that which we take to be Mr. Linton's conception of art in wood-engraving. This we think can be fairly expressed as follows : As it is assumed that most wood-engravings are to be made after the designs of artists other than the engraver, the duty of the artist-engraver is that of the translator, of the poetical translator of poetry, who takes the thought and as much of the form of the original as, without spoiling his own work, he can, and of it makes a new poem. He should, therefore, be left free. The original artist should not draw upon the block. If he draws upon the block *in line*, he compels the engraver to follow the line, and this is bad because "the true province of engraving on wood" is the white and not the black line, the line cut out by the graver and not the ridge left standing while the wood is cut away from both sides of it. If he draws upon the block in "the more effective and painter-like method" of tints washed in with the brush, this will prevent the engraver from faithfully translating these very tints into line, as it is his business to do, because the picture, as a whole, disappears as he works, and the relations of its parts are destroyed by his first few touches. Then, too, whether the drawing is made on the block or photographed upon the block, in either of these cases the little accidents and the trifling parts of the picture are made too prominent, press upon the engraver too closely. In short, to have the picture on the block in any shape tends toward mere fac-simile work, and is not for the artistic engraver. For him let the picture be set up in front of him, and let him at his will translate its color into black and white, and its gradations into line-work, "faithful to the good which he is not asked to excel, and not caricaturing what is bad."

Now, if this is a faithful translation of Mr. Linton's original (and we repeat that it is hard to be sure, in all cases, just what he means to assert), then this article we are considering contains very sound doctrine. In the properly-made wood-engraving the engraver is "an artist in exactly the same degree in which the translator of poetry is a poet." Excellent ! It is "worth while," as the children say, to have an artist tell us in uncompromising fashion just what he thinks good in his art, and what he considers its proper aim.

But just here we reach the limits of satisfaction, and undergo the experience usual to him who tries to get the whole meaning out of a practitioner's writing about the art he practises. The critical faculty is not given to most men ; the life of an active artist does not encourage the development of the critical faculty. Mr. Linton picks holes in the engravings of Mr. Cole and others in *Scribner's* with a cleverness which comes of perfect familiarity with the mechanism of the art ; he is up to all the dodges, there is no deceiving him as to what is difficult and what is easy, what is the engraver's own and what is taken direct from the original ; Mr. Linton makes the task of the critic (when he shall come) more easy, but in no respect is he the critic himself. The faults he finds in Mr. Cole's work may be the besetting faults of that way of work—he

may be trusted to fix upon them and make the most of them—but what about the virtues of that way of work? what about relative merits? what about the faults of his own way of work? as shown in the illustrations of Bryant's poems, the Christmas books of the last two years, which we spoke of in their place? We name them here not to push the *tu quoque* argument, which is itself the worst style of criticism, but only to ask what we are to think of a criticism that assumes the practical rightness of that spiritless light and shade, that tame and poor designing, that work without force or delicacy, while it sees nothing to admire in Mr. Cole's engravings in *Scribner's*. We repeat that the weak points in those engravings are shrewdly seized; we are not of those who care about the full-page engravings of Bryant and Emerson—they are mere *tours de force* which we do not wish to see repeated. Moreover, the opinions of this journal in art matters have always been based upon the constant reiteration of the importance—the necessity—of developing each art in its own native direction. Thin iron cornices that simulate cut stone, lithography that tries to pass for painting, woodcuts that ape the graces of other arts, are all an offence to us, and are to be characterized as not art at all in the true sense. And "the white line is the true province of engraving on wood"—that is true, and *vivat* Bewick! Only if we should limit our interest in wood engraving to that which shows care for the white line, we should find few modern woodcuts to admire, whether by Mr. Linton or other workmen, while the work of the Anthonys, which he praises and seems to believe in, is about as far away from that "province" as are the black lines of Holbein himself.

The editors of *Scribner's* begin their answer by a "counter," to the effect that Mr. Cole is a very much better engraver than Mr. Linton, at least in the sense that any painter would prefer to have his picture reproduced by the former—in which perhaps they are right. Then they set forth that there are few artists in America who know well how to draw upon the block, and that *Scribner's* has done good service to the artists and to the public by pushing the practice of photographing upon the block drawings of any size, so that the artist is left to his usual habits and his freedom, and the engraver, with the photographed design under his tool, has also the original before his eyes. In this also they are right; but here there should have been notice taken of Mr. Linton's position that an untouched block is the only medium for the artist-engraver, and that no one but him ought to touch it, whether with pencil or brush in preliminary laying out of the work, or with the graver. This position is not clearly stated in the *Atlantic* article, and we take credit to ourselves for having discovered it; but it is certainly there, and needs and deserves careful consideration. Next, attention is called to the successful attempts made in *Scribner's* pages to engrave realistic and literal translations of drawings in charcoal, modellings in clay, bas-reliefs, bronzes, and the like, so that a charcoal drawing can be known from a washed and stippled drawing even in the engraved copy; and there is claimed for these literal translations a merit and a value somewhat more akin than Mr. Linton would allow to the free translation which he prefers. And finally, it is charged upon Mr. Linton that his rigid theory allows of no recognition of originality, the proof being in the absence of any mention by him of Henry Marsh, whom *Scribner's* seems to think, as we do, the greatest of living wood-engravers, and an artist who might have ranked with the few great men known to wood-engraving had his lines been cast (by fate or by his own act) in other places.

There are two old styles of wood-engraving beloved of purists and critical students of this art, and each of them is noble and good—the plain black-outline work, best known to moderns in Dürer's and in Holbein's designs, and the white-line work known as Bewick's, in which the untouched surface of part of the block gives strong blacks, into which the white is carried by touches of the graver, every one of which tells. We might add to these the so-called "chiaroscuro" prints of the Italians and others, but their large scale and use of tints, of color and of shade, put them to one side. The black-outline style and the black-mass-and-white-line style are both excellent, and those who love them may be forgiven for feeling a certain repulsion from modern work; but it is clear that modern work cannot follow both those styles at once. No person can conceive a combination of the two. We agree with Mr. Linton's definition of the first as a mere mechanical cutting out of an outline-drawing made by a master, and of the second as the earliest and greatest development of fine art in wood-engraving—provided always that we except the chiaroscuro prints. And we think there is a tendency visible through the exaggerations and mistakes, and even the affectations, of the new and peculiar style of engraving which is now being developed by *Scribner's Monthly* and *Harper's Monthly*, to work back towards the conception and handling of the Bewick school. Its noble simplicity it may not be for the nineteenth century to attain, but its directness of method we may reach; and if we do, it will be through such work as Mr. Linton either assails with violence or passes with contemptuous silence.

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Thirty-first Semi-Annual

STATEMENT

OF THE

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Hartford, Conn., July 1, 1879.

ASSETS.

Real estate	$591,210 87
Cash on hand and in bank	201,903 02
Loans on bond and mortgage, real estate	2,155,115 63
Interest on loans, accrued but not due	56,051 24
Loans on collateral security	500 00
Deferred Life premiums	58,466 08
Premiums due and unreported on Life policies	48,165 16
United States Government bonds	341,448 75
State, County, and municipal bonds	374,845 49
Railroad stocks and bonds	417,825 00
Bank stocks	533,196 50
Hartford City Gas Light Co. stock	19,950 00
Total Assets	$4,798,677 74

LIABILITIES.

Reserve, four per cent., Life department	$3,089,496 10
Reserve for re-insurance, Accident department	246,897 61
Claims unadjusted and not due, and all other liabilities	175,340 66
Total liabilities	$3,511,734 37
Surplus as regards policyholders	$1,286,943 37

STATISTICS TO JULY 1, 1879.

Whole number Accident Policies written	540,000
Whole number Accident Claims paid	37,500
Total amount Accident Claims paid	$3,235,000
Total claims paid in Life Department	1,250,000

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Surplus, including dividends of 1879	$2,357,424 65
Surplus on New York Standard (market values)	5,937,161 18

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Premiums received on Marine Risks rom 1st January, 1878, to 31st December, 1878	$4,009,309 47
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1878.	1,848,697 36
Total amount of Marine Premiums	$5,858,006 83

No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire disconnected with Marine Risks.

Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1878, to 31st December, 1878	$4,186,024 72
Losses paid during the same period	$2,012,784 45
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$859,960 58

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$10,086,758 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise	704,200 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	619,034 50
Premium Notes and Bills receivable	1,529,259 74
Cash in Bank	381,210 92
Total Amount of Assets	$13,320,463 16

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Fourth of February, next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1875 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Fourth of February, next, after which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates must be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1879.

The Week.

THE subject of State sovereignty and national supremacy which the political platforms are just now taking so much interest in could hardly avoid engaging the attention of some of the Fourth of July orators. It appears to have been discussed from an ideal and independent standpoint rather than with any practical recognition of circumstances such as the Constitution and the Laws. Senator Hoar referred to it in his Social Union Address at Amherst we infer from the report of the Boston *Advertiser*, which says that he "dwelt with force upon the principle of national unity found in the Declaration of Independence, and in the constitutions of Massachusetts and Virginia," which must have been a dangerous view to take, implying, as it does, the validity in any degree of State sanction in national questions. The address of Mr. Stanley Matthews at Mr. Bowen's Woodstock celebration had less to say of objective sanctions of any sort, and seemed to rest confidently upon its rhetoric. Mr. Matthews said, in answer to a hypothetical enquiry as to who "we are," that we are an organized body whose "identity is single and consists in its oneness," a people "dwelling in one land, speaking the same tongue, thinking the same thoughts; with similar tastes, affections, sentiments, and hopes, . . . reconciling subordinate discords of diverse interests and passions into the richer, loftier, and deeper harmonies of a choral unity," etc., etc. Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, however, who must be acknowledged on all hands to have made an otherwise sensible and straightforward review of our history and statement of our present condition, delivered an oration in the Boston Theatre for certain expressions of which he has been roundly taken to task. "The injury then suffered by the rights of States is the gravest result of the war, simply from its effects upon our minds and habits of thought," he observed, which leads the *Transcript* to refer to Webster's reply to Hayne, and to reproduce part of Harrison Gray Otis's inaugural address as mayor of Boston. Nevertheless Mr. Lodge's address seems upon the whole especially worth reading at this time.

Tammany Hall on Independence Day is apt to be filled with an enthusiastic rather than a critical audience, a circumstance which possibly Senator Ben Hill was aware of when he made his "long talk" there on Friday. He could hardly have found elsewhere more sympathetic listeners to his statements that "We have accomplished more for the liberties of the people than has ever been accomplished in any four months of your history," and "if you continue in power in times of peace a party which owes its success to war you wreck your liberties," etc., etc. What the specific liberties likely to be thus wrecked were Mr. Hill did not mention, but it will doubtless seem to his Stalwart critics that some unwitting reference to them was suggested in what he had to say of the liberties curtailed by Commissioner Davenport so ruthlessly every November. It may, however, be said that the whole address was successful in the course which alone the Democrats have left open to themselves—namely, of taking the bull by the horns. The "satisfaction" expressed by Senator Hill with his party's conduct during the past four months is expressed perhaps somewhat feverishly, but it is very clear that anything like timid expressions of it have become quite useless.

The Fourth of July oration has been a source of trouble in Springfield, Mass., where the Committee invited Mr. Daniel H. Chamberlain, some time governor of South Carolina. The selection was an unfortunate one for divers well-known reasons, but Mr. Chamberlain had the good taste to avoid Stalwart matters and confine himself to reflections in which men of all parties could concur. The Springfield *Republican* very properly objected strongly to the choice of the Committee for reasons, among others, drawn from the history of Chamberlain's official career in South Carolina. This drew forth a defence of him from Mr. M. P. Knowlton, which is a curiosity in its way—viz., that he was a "very young man" (thirty-three) when elected attorney-general; that he behaved well when governor in 1875 and 1876; and that the thefts and frauds of the commissions on which he served were known before he was elected governor. The inference here suggested is that the constituency which elected Moses, when "Speaker and thief," to be "Governor and public robber" (New York *Times*), would not have elected Chamberlain had they believed him guilty of complicity in the Scott-Kimpton frauds. The Springfield *Republican*, we see, makes no mention of Chamberlain's published letters to Kimpton and others, which are all but conclusive evidence against him, and the authenticity of which he has not dared to deny. In fact, the efforts of the party to keep him afloat as a martyr are an odious reminiscence of one of the most disgraceful episodes in political history.

The "arithmetic men" of both sections have begun their predictions in regard to the effect of the next census on the political strength of the South in Congress. The Stalwart reckoners rely chiefly on Kansas; the Brigadiers on Texas and Arkansas. When these examples are departed from the guessing is of the loosest. It may be that the "solid South" will become of small importance after the readjustment of the representation, though it will make no contemptible part of the Senate; but morally it will exist just so long as sectional dissensions growing out of the war are fostered by one party or the other. The editor of the Kansas *Nationalist* has reprinted in his paper a warning article, bearing date of Christmas, 1875, in which the danger to the country of a "political Macedonian phalanx" from the South was pointed out, and an *internal* remedy proposed instead of the external so fruitlessly applied by Grant's Administration. Mr. Griffin urged the systematic colonization of selected States in the South, with a view to introducing a fresh Northern or European population which would "nationalize" them. He now, *à fortiori*, renews his exhortations to this effect, and shows how easily Florida and Arkansas, for example, could be won over, not to Democracy or to Republicanism, but to sympathy and co-operation with the North on national questions, by an Emigrant Aid Society like that which rescued Kansas from being a slave State. Mr. Griffin has perfectly sound ideas in regard to the mode of colonization—in masses, or by accretion where Northern settlements have already established themselves, and with no party distinctions or noisy propagandism; and he certainly gives reasons for thinking that those Eastern philanthropists who are contributing money to General Conway's exodus steamboat, would better employ their money in some such scheme as he advocates.

The Mississippi Valley Cotton Planters' Association held its second monthly meeting at Vicksburg, July 1, and its aims and achievements appear in a long and interesting address by the president, which the Vicksburg *Herald* publishes. The association, to which several State bodies report monthly, is devoted to securing that protection of common interests and that furtherance of common plans which co-operation only can secure; and its prospects, even thus early, seem good. It arranged at its recent meeting to found, in an indirect way, a "Planter's Journal," which will be its official paper; to subscribe $3,000 to the Mississippi Valley Immigration Company; to "ascertain the best method of cultivating cotton, corn, and grasses," and to have a "general trial of agricultural machinery and implements some time this fall." The president's address and the speeches of different members were marked by enthusiasm, for which, however, ample statistical basis was set forth. Cotton was not, indeed, referred to exactly in the terms nor with

the arrogance which mention of it used to provoke at the South before the war; but so far from expressing discouragement at the "exodus," or bemoaning the bankruptcy brought about by "carpet-bag rule," a feeling of confidence and courage was evident, and it is clear that, so far as the Association represents the mass of Southern planters, these are devoting themselves quite as heartily to the business of rehabilitation as to conspiracy against the Federal Government. "To say nothing of the increased wealth and prosperity otherwise," said the president, "if the cotton we raise was manufactured in the South it would save the planter nearly $50,000,000 annually in transportation"—a statement which is suggestive certainly, whether or no its economic implication be sound.

The ladies of Cincinnati have begun a very important movement which concerns the entire population west of the Alleghanies. In the interest of domestic cleanliness, and of the fair appearance of a city possessing many natural and architectural attractions, they propose to discover by experiment the surest and most economical mode of suppressing the smoke which now obscures and begrimes everything. A public meeting was held last week under their auspices, with ex-Secretary Cox in the chair, at which some account was given of smoke-consuming methods already in use in Cincinnati, and much information concerning the various devices (some nearly two centuries old) by which in this and in foreign countries the end has been sought to be attained. As in the case of all new inventions, especially those of which the first cost is considerable, the difficulties in the way of adopting any particular method lie in demonstrating that it is economical—or will pay, in other words—and that its chances of being superseded by something cheaper and more effective are remote. The local tests appear to be very satisfactory as regards the saving of fuel, which one firm set down at 14½ per cent. No arrangement of flues and draughts seems to be so promising as some of the recent contrivances for the complete consumption of fuel by sub-division. When this has been achieved railroad travelling will be robbed of half its annoyance, and the locomotive cease to be the greatest incendiary of the age.

Mr. John F. Seymour, a cousin of Bishop Seymour, was shot and killed on the evening of the third inst., in this city, while making his accustomed tour of the grounds of the General Theological Seminary, in which he resided. The "suicide theory" of the police in explanation of this occurrence, aside from its outrageousness in causelessly wounding the sensitiveness of Mr. Seymour's afflicted relatives, is noteworthy for its illustration of the detective incapacity of the force. It is the familiar explanation given by the police of every "mystery" which they are called upon to investigate and which can possibly admit of it. It is not that there are commonly any reasons for inferring suicide, but that suicide is, under the circumstances, a physical possibility, that determines their notions. The truth is that the police are utterly unfamiliar with the mental processes of any one to whom the "Habitual Criminals Act" does not apply, and it seems to them just as reasonable that a well-to-do Christian gentleman should commit suicide as that one of the "loose characters" who lodge in the station-houses should do so. Under the system by which the New York detectives are selected this is natural enough. So far as there is any test at all which they are supposed to answer, it is that of familiarity with the methods and habits of habitual criminals. Intellectual capacity is never in the least demanded of them. It may be said, since the recent Scotland-Yard scandal and the scandal concerning the Paris police, that the New York force is not more generally corrupt, nor more subservient to political uses, than that of other large cities. But it cannot be maintained that it is not essentially stupid. Imagine a London or Paris detective assuming that Mr. Seymour committed suicide, before any search had been instituted for a possible murderer, or the circumstances of a Fourth of July celebration had been considered with any care!

We are sorry to see that the Brooklyn *Eagle* attempts to justify its course in the matter of the Blair homicide. It devotes a column and a half to the case, and again finds Blair guilty of wilful murder, aggravated by the fact that he has been defending himself in "the spirit of Ananias," and put a low value on his coachman's life because he was a coachman. We should be sorry to follow the *Eagle* through its vituperative analysis of the evidence. We shall only point out once more that if trial by newspaper be proper or sufficient the courts are a useless expense. If the process which the *Eagle* is performing in the Blair case be justifiable, and its judgment worthy of attention, criminals ought to be taken before a managing editor instead of a magistrate, and be sent to the gallows or the State prison by his sentence, on a statement furnished by a reporter. If, on the other hand, trial by an unprejudiced jury and a learned judge, on a full hearing of the evidence, be the right mode of investigating crime, such articles as the *Eagle's*, published in advance of a judicial enquiry, deserve richly some sort of legal punishment. These are almost as reprehensible as corruption of jurors or subornation of witnesses.

The case of Blair, as well as many others during the past few weeks, is a striking illustration of the mischief of the pistol mania by which the community is so cursed that a religious paper has actually lately taken to giving revolvers as premiums for new subscribers. What with carrying pistols, and keeping pistols, and thinking of pistols as a means of defence, that reliance on the police which occupies, or ought to occupy, so large a place in civilized life has been with a large number, even of the most respectable people, seriously diminished among us. One of the most striking and most barbarous features of Southern life is the fact that when a man hears that somebody else is looking for him to kill him, far from going for a warrant and having him arrested and bound over to keep the peace, he gets a pistol or a knife and lies in wait, just like a savage, and then they stab or shoot each other. This sort of incident rarely occurs here, but larger numbers than is generally supposed of peaceable, well-behaved citizens carry pistols in their pockets, on the theory that they may be engaged in some kind of fourteenth-century encounter with a foe. Many deplorable murders result from having weapons at hand, but we think there does not occur once in ten years a case in which an honest man saves himself with a pistol from a robber. We wish some of the reforming fanaticism of the day could be turned against pistol-carrying; or that those who carry pistols could be compelled to wear them openly in front in an outside belt, and streak their faces with red ochre, like other heathen.

The Aldermen voted, Tuesday, to discharge the Committee on Streets, to which the report of the Rapid-Transit Commission had been referred, from any further consideration of it. A reconsideration of the vote by which this was done was ordered by the majority for the purpose of clinching the matter, and, of course, promptly voted down. Nevertheless, according to the Commission, the action of the Aldermen is "premature, and therefore nugatory," the proper time for action on their part being after the Commission has completed its work, which it has not yet done. It is not unreasonable to infer from the history of the Common Council that many things may happen before then, and the Aldermen feel very differently. Much sensitiveness was betrayed, or rather proclaimed, at Tuesday's session. Alderman Haughton, who could not tolerate the idea of considering the report, "would teach this man [Mr. Vanderbilt] that if he can buy up the Legislature of this State, he cannot do the same with this board." Alderman Morris, on the other hand, disliked to vote "to perpetuate the infamous monopoly formed by the two roads now running." Mr. Vanderbilt is said by an anonymous "legal friend" to have known nothing of the Fourth Avenue scheme before his recent return from Europe, and to have "positively taken no steps whatever towards promoting the matter." Cynical persons may find some connection between this circumstance, if it be true, and the action of the Aldermen. At all events, nothing appears to have been decided positively hitherto.

It has been a barren week in the financial markets. The Stock Exchange adjourned from Thursday until Monday, and business has been on a restricted scale even at places which are at liberty to close only on legal holidays. The July disbursements, interest and dividends, amount to not far from $50,000,000, and a good part of this will probably be reinvested in securities. The demand for U. S. 4 per cents. has been active, and it is expected that it will be more so as the large amount of called bonds due in July matures. In London the accumulation of money is embarrassing, prime 3-months notes being discounted for less than one per cent. per annum (⅛). The price of silver there fell from 52⅛*d.* per oz. to 51⅞*d.*, and here at the close the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar was $0.8739.

The various accounts of the effect of the news of the Prince Imperial's death in France, which have come out by mail, concur in the opinion that Prince Napoleon will make no attempt to assume the Bonapartist heritage, and that he will not allow his son to do so. He refused to see the Bonapartist chiefs after the news arrived, and only attended the funeral service on the understanding that it was to be strictly religious. Paul de Cassagnac at first announced that Prince Victor, Prince Napoleon's son, was now the head of the party, but he subsequently confined himself to alleging that the party had a prince without saying what prince it was. The inability of the Prince Imperial to dispose of the succession by will, in defiance of the Senatus Consultum, is acknowledged on all hands. That the blow to the Bonapartists is a serious one may be inferred from the fact that M. Rouher fainted under it. The Duke of Cambridge has produced the letters by which the Prince was accredited to Lord Chelmsford, and they show that he went simply as an amateur. His escort when killed was composed of colonial volunteer cavalry, but only six men in all. The unfortunate officer who commanded the escort is to be court-martialed, though what for it is hard to see. He and the Prince mounted or began to mount together, but the Prince's horse got away from him, a fact which the officer, who was by that time running himself vigorously, did not perceive for two or three hundred yards.

Such time as can be spared in London from hearing and discussing and entertaining the Comédie-Française, and the death of the Prince Imperial, has of late been bestowed on the alarming condition of British agriculture. On the motion of Mr. Chaplin, on the 5th inst., the House of Commons agreed to the formation of a royal commission to enquire into and report on the causes of the crisis, the gravity of which all admitted. The cause to which it was most generally attributed was the growth of American competition, but it was agreed that there was no way of meeting this by retaliation. Mr. Bright said the only way of meeting it was by a reform in the laws regulating the transfer of land. The great fear arising out of this agricultural crisis which now hangs over English society is, of course, that the conclusion may any day be reached that the land can only support the farmer and will yield nothing for the landlord. This, if true, would produce a social disturbance the like of which has not been witnessed in England since the Conquest, and would ruin at a blow perhaps the ablest political class which has appeared in history since the fall of the Roman Republic—the English landed gentry. But there are already sober-minded men saying that to this complexion it must come speedily. The Rev. Barham Zincke, who may be remembered as a very intelligent traveller in this country ten years ago, has an interesting article in a recent number of the *Nineteenth Century*, showing that the system of poor relief has ruined the character of the English poor, and the only remedy is the introduction among them of the land-hunger of the French peasant, by making the acquisition of small holdings in fee easy. In Ireland the mere talk about the matter has raised an anti-rent agitation which is causing a good deal of uneasiness.

The discussion in the Committee of the Whole in the British House of Commons over the Army Discipline Bill on a point of apparently small importance has revealed publicly the split in the Liberal ranks on which the Tory leaders have long based their hopes of being able to stay in power indefinitely. The Opposition were successful in having the legal amount of flogging reduced from fifty to twenty-five lashes, and in compelling the insertion in the bill of a schedule enumerating the offences for which flogging might be inflicted, instead of leaving it to the discretion of the court-martial, or, in the field, of the provost-marshal. But the Radical wing of the Liberals were not content with this, and insisted on the total abolition, and resorted to the policy of "obstruction" under the rules of the House to carry their point. The Marquis of Hartington, who occupies the recognized position of leader of the Opposition, thereupon repudiated their course, which led Mr. Chamberlain, of Birmingham, who heads the Radical wing, to declare, amidst the cheers of his followers, that the Marquis, "who was formerly the leader of the Opposition, was now only the leader of a section."

The importance of this is greater than appears on the surface, owing to the near approach of the general election. The Tories, who came into office largely owing to Mr. Gladstone's over-activity as a reformer, have always maintained that bad as Gladstone was, he was nothing to the Radical wing of his party, which was bent on disestablishing the Church, abolishing the House of Lords, and doing divers other dreadful things, and that they were gaining rapidly on the Moderates. The Liberals, by resort to nominating conventions in the large cities and other devices, have been making desperate efforts to keep this division in their ranks out of sight, or, at all events, to prevent its telling at the polls. But the resort of the Radicals to "obstruction," which is really a sort of appeal to physical force, and Mr. Chamberlain's repudiation of Lord Hartington's leadership are likely now to give the Tories a powerful weapon.

The news from Zululand shows that the prospect of peace is not nearly so assured as was supposed, and Cetewayo is again suspected of simply wishing to gain time by the late negotiations to get his crops in and destroy the grass on the line of the British advance. He is said, in the meantime, to be entrenched at Ulundi, in the north of his territory, in an impregnable position, but he is also said to believe that if he can get one chance at the British army in the open field he will finish it. In fact, it seems not unlikely that if battle is offered him on open ground he will accept it, and there is no doubt that defeat under these circumstances would crush him. The difficulty of reaching him, however, with existing means of transportation is enormous. Sir Bartle Frere, who brought on the war, and who is really responsible for all the disasters that have occurred, and who has been disapproved and removed by the home Government, appears to be not in the slightest degree abashed. He has been making a triumphal progress through the colony, delivering eulogies on his own policy and receiving the plaudits of the colonists, who rather like to have the English carrying on a great war for them and spending enormous sums among them.

Prince Bismarck has carried his tariff scheme very nearly in the form in which he presented it. It comes into operation part on the 1st of October next and part on the 1st of January. Fifty per cent. extra duty is to be imposed on the goods of countries which treat German goods unfavorably, which, of course, is simply an assertion of a claim to equality with the most favored nation. It is estimated that the new tariff will bring in an addition to the revenue of 120,000,000 marks, of which the Empire will get 22,000,000, the rest going to the separate states. There is not much likelihood, however, that the arrangement will stand very long. The tariff is too complicated and onerous to be administered without great vexation, and the duties on foreign grain and provisions are likely to increase discontent and disaffection in the great towns.

THE SITUATION AFTER THE ADJOURNMENT.

THERE has probably been no session of Congress since Congress began which has ended so miserably as that which ended last week. A large proportion of the members had gone home through sheer weariness and disgust, and the public had ceased to take the slightest interest in the debates, or, for that matter, in the measures passed or attempted to be passed. This is a not unnatural consequence of the insincerity on both sides which marked the proceedings since December of last year. The Democrats undertook, as soon as Congress assembled, a number of enterprises which they could only have expected to carry out by frightening their enemies. They were met by the Republicans in a similar spirit; they pretended to be terribly frightened, and declared that, bad as was what the Democrats *said* they were going to do, what they meant to do was far worse. The Democrats said that unless they had their way about the use of the Army at the polls, and about the powers of the supervisors and marshals and deputy-marshals at elections, they would leave the country without an army and without national courts of justice or sheriffs. This was a sufficiently horrid prospect, but the public left to itself would have had some difficulty in believing that any political party could be so desperately foolish as to do anything of the kind. The Republicans in Congress had, therefore, to fan the popular faith in Democratic recklessness, which they did in the best way by professing to believe that, bad as the legislative schemes of the Democrats were, they were really simply the opening of a "revolution" in which the Government would be entirely transformed, and which would fill every American household with gloom. The Democrats were evidently not prepared for this game. They had supposed that they would be allowed a monopoly of the business of "alarming the country" and "spreading anxiety among all classes," and that they could stop the process at any point they thought proper. When they found the Republicans trying to make the Democratic scarecrows even more hideous than the original designers intended them to be, they began the process of "backing down"—or, in other words, of pretending they never meant to do the things they had in the beginning threatened to do. This at first sight seemed likely to put the Republicans in an embarrassing position. They had maintained that the Democrats were even more desperate characters than they seemed, and that their avowed designs were mere covers for others still more hellish. Consequently, to the simple-minded observer it seemed as if a retreat on the part of the Democrats would be a very awkward thing for them. But the simple-minded observer was greatly mistaken, for when the Democrats did begin to retreat and passed the Army Bill with a very harmless modification, and passed the Judicial Bill without any change except the withholding of appropriations for the expenses of the United States marshals between now and December next, the Republicans began to crow as lustily over "the backdown" as if it was this, and not "revolution," which they had always predicted as the probable ending of Democratic operations.

In so far as the controversy has furnished material for stump oratory in the fall elections it cannot be denied that the Republicans have the best of it. Whatever may be said for the objects at which the Democrats have been aiming, it would be difficult to compose any better defence for the manner in which they sought to reach them than the *tu-quoque* argument that the Republicans had resorted in times past to similar means. But then the Democrats constantly forget that the Republicans are in the position of a man who has enjoyed a good character, and although people are beginning to suspect him, nevertheless has all the presumptions still in his favor, while the Democrats are in the position of a desperate reprobate who is trying to persuade people that he has reformed and may now be trusted to any amount. There are certain things which, however desirable in themselves, it is not judicious for the reprobate to call for. It may be that people in his neighborhood are spending too much money on the police, and on bolts and bars for their houses, but he is hardly the person to decide on the urgency or the futility of it, and to demand economy in this direction. It may be, too, that the temperance legislation of his community is too stern in its prohibitions, but he is hardly the person to declaim against it on this score. There are, in fact, most cogent reasons of party policy why the Democrats should attempt nothing which looks like a diminution of the powers of the general Government. There is still a generation on the scene in whose mind Democrat is a synonym for rebel, and who cannot believe that a Democrat is serious when he talks of reforming the United States Government. There is still another—a younger one which has grown up since the war and is making money—which believes Democrats so eager for power that they are willing to seek it through anarchy, and in order to get it are quite ready to leave property without protection. To alarm or offend both of these classes together is, for a party in the position of the Democrats, little short of suicide.

Matters are not much mended, either, by "backing down." This only causes alarm to be succeeded by contempt. One of the United States surveying parties has an amusing story of an attempt on the part of a desperado in one of the mining towns to rob their negro cook of his mule as he rode in with one member of the party. The desperado fiercely demanded the mule, with a cocked pistol, and the cook's teeth were chattering; but the surveyor warned him that it was dangerous to meddle with them, as they belonged to an armed party with an Army escort which was close behind. At this moment the rest of the party with the soldiers came round the corner; whereupon the robber lowered his pistol, accepted the situation, and exclaimed cheerfully, "All right, cap; can I do anything for you?"—and then busied himself with providing them with an oven. They took the oven, but the desperado had won neither their confidence nor respect. The story has some application to the present political situation. That the Democrats have not attempted, and probably never intended to do, all the dreadful things which Messrs. Chandler and Gorham assured us they were going to do, is plain enough. But the way in which these charges have been disproved has done nothing to make people willing or ready to see all three branches of the Government in Democratic hands. On the contrary, we believe a very large proportion of the more sober-minded Democrats themselves have been thanking their stars during the past three months that there is a Republican President. That this state of things is a great misfortune for the country there is no denying. The Republican party will probably never be a whit better led than it is now until there is an opposition in whose fitness for power, as far as honesty and capacity go, the sober and intelligent classes of the people have confidence. Nothing can be more demoralizing to a party than to know that there is nothing to take its place. It affects it very much as the inheritance of a fortune affects a lazy man.

COLLEGE EDUCATION AND "THE EDUCATION OF CIRCUMSTANCES."

THE annual college commencements have called forth the usual amount of comments from the press upon the usefulness of a college education, and if we were to infer the state of public opinion from what the press says, we should conclude that the community as a whole disapproved of universities, and considered the time passed in getting a college degree for the most part wasted. The new graduates are greeted on their appearance in the outside world with a storm of warning that their acquirements have little real value; that they have still to learn everything which they are likely to need in the battle of life, and that in our time the most successful men are those who have spent least time in their youth over books. Part of this discouraging criticism is undoubtedly due to a desire to console that vast majority of youths whose parents cannot afford to send them to college; but much of it is justified by observation of the difficulties in which college graduates who do not intend to follow any of the professions, so called, find themselves when they try to engage in trade or industry. That they enter these fields at a consid-

erable disadvantage there is no denying. Not only are they matched against competitors who have been learning the business for at least five years, but employers think them too old for beginners, and are loath to give them those places at the bottom of the ladder for which alone they are suited. A man is not so teachable at twenty-one as at fifteen. It is more difficult to give him orders, and more difficult to exact from him the needful accuracy in the execution of them. But this is not all. The graduate is in some respects worse fitted for business than a man of twenty-one who has had no business experience whatever. The education he has received naturally and inevitably gives him a self-confidence and unteachableness which the wholly uneducated man does not feel, and disposes him to studious rather than to active life. It gives him, too, what is in business one of the worst of defects, a dislike and even contempt for details, and yet a love of details and a strong sense of their importance may be said to be the foundation of business capacity. Nor does he acquire in his college course—or, in other words, during the period in which habits are most easily and firmly formed—the method, the punctuality, and the sense of order which are so important a part of a business man's equipment, and to which successful administrators in every field attach so much value.

The undergraduate is, in fact, during his college life exempt from discipline to a degree which to young men who are beginning to learn any trade is unknown. As long as he presents himself at prayers and recitations he has complete command of his own time, and all his work is literary work. He may do it during the night if he pleases, or at any hour of the day not devoted to recitations or examinations. He may do it in bed, or in an easy-chair, or in a dressing-gown. Nor is there anything practical in it, or which brings him in contact with persons who have the right to exact anything of him. His associates in his daily life are young men of his own age and of his own tone, so that he may pass weeks and months without, except during the recitation hours, ever finding himself exposed to a critical eye, or compelled to obey anybody, or be accurate or painstaking in speech or conduct.

The disadvantages of a college training for those who are desirous of entering on a business career of course grow more and more striking as trade and industry play a larger and larger part in human affairs. Nor is it in this country only that they attract attention. The reluctance of parents in England who wish their sons to go into business—that is, to engage in commerce or manufacture—to send them to the universities, notoriously increases. In the discussion which has been recently going on there over the project of erecting Owens College into a great northern university, the fact was brought out very prominently that the great industrial chiefs of Lancashire and Yorkshire, who did not intend their sons to be rich idlers, looked on the universities with no friendly eye, and were less and less disposed to send their children to Oxford and Cambridge.

What the universities seem to need to meet the demands of the business world is what military schools like West Point supply—namely, machinery for taking possession of a young man with something like completeness between the ages of sixteen and twenty, and giving him not simply good mental habits but good physical and moral habits, teaching him not simply how best to acquire knowledge, but how to be prompt, punctual, regular, orderly; how to be ready with his hands and feet and eyes, as well as with his mental attention. There is hardly any administrator in the country to whom a West Point education would not recommend a young man, or, at all events, who would not vastly prefer taking a West Point graduate into his service to taking a Harvard or Yale or Columbia graduate. This, of course, is somewhat due to the difference in the course of instruction; but it is due in a still greater degree to the difference in the discipline, to the fact that the West-Pointer has passed four years learning to be exact, to obey cheerfully, quickly, and to use his hands and feet and eyes, and to attach great importance to the small details of material life. It would, of course, be very difficult to assimilate all colleges, even in a moderate degree, in their discipline to West Point or any military school. The machinery of a military school is necessarily far more elaborate and costly than that of any university. Such an education as is there given could not be paid for fully by any but well-to-do parents, and it would have to be supplied by a very different class of men from the quiet scholars who now fill the professorships elsewhere. The attempts which are made to approach it in the colleges by subjecting students to more supervision and stricter rules, or any unusual interference with their habits or mode of life, are apt to be great and irritating failures. In fact, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that there is no way of making a university course a good preparation for a business life in the great majority of cases. We say in the great majority of cases, because for a man who has real force of character and is determined to succeed, although it may make the beginnings of a business career a little hard, and even bitter, a university education is a great possession. There is no doubt it makes it easier for him to learn afterwards everything he is resolved to learn, and there is no successful business man who has taken a college degree who does not regard it all through life as the best of his possessions. Nothing does more to sweeten business success and increase the enjoyment of fortune.

But those who decry university education as a preparation for life overlook the fact that it is not often taken by persons who mean to follow a business career. In other words, a process of selection is performed before boys enter college, and, as a general rule, only those enter whom a college education will help; that is, those who are about to take up some intellectual pursuit—theology, or law, or medicine, or natural science. It is very doubtful, indeed, whether for these a better training could well be devised than that which our leading colleges now give, though the defects in it, which we have pointed out above, are obvious enough. They are taught to acquire knowledge, and to arrange it in their heads in such a way as to be able to produce it when called on, and are made familiar with the experience of the race in all fields of activity by methods which could not readily be bettered, and under highly favorable conditions as regards society and surroundings. It may not be the best preparation for buying and selling, or manufacturing, or farming; but those who take it rarely intend to be traders, or manufacturers, or farmers. They intend to be teachers, lawyers, legislators, doctors, and discoverers; and all these classes play a very prominent part—many people think the most prominent part—in carrying on the work of civilization.

There is a view of the matter, too, and a very important one, which was mentioned by Senator Hoar the other day in his address at Amherst College, which most of those who decry college education disregard. They assume, almost invariably, that the youths who get no college education, but begin to earn their bread at the age of sixteen in trade or manufactures, surely succeed in life. This is a most singular and mischievous delusion, as Senator Hoar pointed out. The statistics of trade, in so far as they show the percentage of failures on the part of those who, even in this, the most prosperous country in the world, try to acquire wealth, or even a decent competency for their latter years, are the most melancholy reading we know of. The great mass of the poor boys who begin "the education of circumstances" in a store never make a fortune, or if they make one fail to keep it, and simply make a poor subsistence for themselves and their families, and die in obscurity. The number of successful business men is, in fact, vastly smaller in proportion to the whole number of those who try business as a calling, than the number of successful professional men. A profession is really in our time the best gift a father can bestow on his son, because it is the only thing in which a man succeeds by his own character and capacity simply, and the only possession of which nothing but his own negligence or misconduct can deprive him. The lawyer or doctor or minister or professor may never become rich, but he need care nothing for panics; he never becomes "rotten wood," and he "walks on the bottom" all the time. Even in adversity he is apt to have mental resources and consolations which are only rarely within reach of the unfortunate business man.

FREEDOM OF TEACHING IN FRANCE.

PARIS, June 13, 1879.

THE great struggle of the parliamentary session is about to begin. It is a struggle of paramount importance, not in its immediate effects, but as a mark of the tendencies of the new republican Government. A report has been read to the Chamber on the subject of the new law on public education. It seems somewhat absurd to me that I should have been condemned to read this report, as I have for a long time known its author. M. Spuller has the sort of notoriety which attaches itself to the shadow produced by a great light. The luminary which he has always followed is Gambetta; he is the Pylades of the new Orestes. He followed Gambetta in the days of the Empire; he went up with him in a balloon; he followed him to Tours, to Bordeaux, to San Sebastian; he became the principal writer in the *République Française*, the paper founded and inspired by Gambetta. Spuller is not an Alsatian; he has been accused of not being a Frenchman; but his father was naturalized, and the fact that he sits in the French Chamber of Deputies shows that he has all the rights of a French citizen. He is a good-humored, hard-working giant, with a very big head, little humor but some drollery, a fountain of political small talk, always ready to develop ideas on every subject. He has written a voluminous report on the great question of the day. With a truly German fondness for the "Literatur" of his subject, he has cited an immense number of authorities, with title and page—Montesquieu, Domat, Troplong, Cousin, Laboulaye, Guizot, Dupin, the Duc de Broglie, etc., etc. He has made citations from the edicts of Francis I., of Henry IV., of Louis XIV., and proved in the most peremptory manner that the state has always had a right of control over public education. Nobody denies the rights of the state, but the limitation and definition of these rights is not an easy matter. The reporter of the Chamber says that freedom of public teaching is a novelty in France; it does not even date from the Revolution, and the Revolution, in his eyes, condemned it by the mere fact that it did not establish it. Bonaparte, who disciplined the Revolution, organized public education as despotically as he organized his regiments. M. Spuller confesses that this new liberty "appeared for the first time with its name, and with all the pretensions and claims which it conceals, in the *Charte* of the constitutional monarchy of 1830." He confesses candidly his surprise at seeing this recent liberty accepted in principle, and inscribed in 1850 and in 1875 in laws "which assumed the character of contracts between the state and certain religious and political interests, cleverly concealed behind the rights of the individual and of the father of a family."

In good French this means that M. Spuller considers the liberty of public teaching as a "clerical and monarchical" liberty, therefore as a danger to the Republic. He takes great pains to prove that such a liberty cannot be found in his own political gospel, the famous "Declaration of the Rights of the Man and of the Citizen" of the Revolutionary period. To be sure, the fourteenth article of this declaration says: "The free communication of thoughts and of opinions is one of the most precious rights of man; every citizen can therefore speak, write, print freely, while he is called upon to account for all the abuses he makes of this liberty in the cases determined by law." Yes, says he, "this involves the liberty of teaching, *lato sensu*, but positively, *stricto sensu*, it does not." This *lato sensu* and *stricto sensu* will probably not have much effect on the readers of the report; it would amuse Pascal, if Pascal was still among us; it will make the Jesuits smile.

The Constitution of 1848 was made after the downfall of the monarchy of July, by a Republican Chamber named by universal suffrage. This Constitution said: "Teaching is free (*l'enseignement est libre*); the liberty of teaching is exercised on the conditions of capacity and morality determined by law under the control of the state; this *surveillance* is extended to all establishments of education and of teaching without any exception." Under the reign of Louis Philippe, with a chamber elected by a restricted suffrage, the French University, instituted by Bonaparte, was represented in the Government by very eminent men, such as Cousin, Villemain, Guizot. The freedom of public teaching was in the *Charte*, but it could not become a reality, notwithstanding the efforts of Montalembert in the House of Peers. The Revolution of 1848 gave two things to France: universal suffrage, and this liberty of teaching which M. Spuller considers a dangerous novelty. This liberty has been completed since 1870 by the permission given to lay or clerical corporations to create faculties and universities, and to give what we call "secondary and high" instruction. It would be difficult to say what has been the moving spirit of the Republicans who wish to undo now what has been the work of the last forty years. Nobody contests in reality the state's right of control and supervision; nobody denies that the state has a particular right of control over the examinations which are made for degrees in law and in medicine; nobody denies that the state has the right to claim certain guarantees of morality and of instruction from the men who open schools, either primary or secondary. All these matters can be settled without difficulty, the laws can be amended and corrected; but hitherto there has been no ostracism pronounced in matters of education against any members of the civil society.

The gravity of the new law presented to the Chambers lies in this fact, that some Frenchmen would be by this law declared *incapable* of teaching; and for what reason? For the reason that they belong to religious associations not recognized by the state. Now, in what does such a recognition consist? It consists merely in the fact that some associations have not corporate rights; they cannot, as corporations, buy, sell, sue or be sued, borrow, mortgage, etc. But this absence of corporate rights is not a privation of individual rights; the Jesuits, since their name must be pronounced, cannot, as such, act in any corporate capacity, but individually why should they be deprived of all the common rights which are enjoyed by all? If they take the degrees which are required by the state from the schoolmasters or directors of high schools, why should they not become schoolmasters and directors of such schools? All the declamations of M. Spuller against the ambition of the Catholic Church, against the Syllabus, cannot alter the main facts of the case; the intolerance of the Church does not justify the intolerance of the enemies of the Church; in order to rob the Jesuits of the right of teaching, M. Spuller goes so far as to make such citations as these from the work of an unknown writer:

"We have seen the clerical passions unchained after the 24th May, 1873, and the 17th May, 1877. Convoys of fanatical pilgrims have crossed France in every direction. The clergy has been mixed up with the electoral struggles. The bishops have given their opinion on the making of the laws, have written letters to the ministers on the incidents of our interior policy, have written pastoral letters in which they have warned foreign powers, without fearing to create diplomatic difficulties."

The animus of this passage is very transparent; if the Jesuits must be persecuted, why should not all pilgrimages be forbidden, why should not all the bishops be condemned never to write a line? I can, I confess, only see in the present movement the old despotic, Jacobin spirit of the Revolution. The French clergy can very easily be maintained within the bounds of the famous "Concordat"; if a bishop ventures out of the limits of it he is at once stopped by the Council of State. As for the inferior clergy, there is no cause of complaint against them; the war begun against the Church has really no excuse, as it has no cause. It has not even a political cause. The Republicans distrust the Church, and think it hostile to republican institutions. This is an error; the Church of Rome has always professed the greatest indifference to kings and emperors; it knows no earthly crowns; it does not attack the republic in America nor in Switzerland. The Church, by its very nature, must of course feel an inclination for old institutions, old dynasties, and have a certain dread of innovations in politics. But Lacordaire appeared in his Dominican's white robe in the Republican Chamber of 1848; the doctrine of the Church has always been, "Render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's." The Church of France could not feel much sympathy for the Commune of Paris, which took its choice victims from its ranks. But even the dreadful massacre of the archbishop, of the curate of the Madeleine, of the Dominicans of Arcueil, did not turn the French bishops into open enemies of the Republic, though M. Paschal Grousset, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Commune, is now writing articles in an English review under the title, "How the Commune made the Republic."

Of course M. Spuller defends his party against the imputation of attacking the Church; his friends only mean to attack what they call the "Counter-Revolution," and they do the Jesuits the honor of identifying them with this "Counter-Revolution." Spuller cites these words of Sainte-Beuve:

"If you insist and tell me that the Jesuits are gaining visibly every day, that there is no longer among our modern Catholics any spirit of opposition to them, that it is now almost the same thing in France to think as a Jesuit or as a Catholic, I will tell you, with much regret, that if it is so, it is very well for the Jesuits, but not so for the Catholics; . . . that it would be very serious if all the French Catholics seemed to hold as a principle, that on any question more or less Roman they must, at the first word received from Rome, be like 'the staff in the hand of the old man'; that such a thought has always seemed anti-French, and that, if ever it becomes popular, there are many dangers ahead."

Since Sainte-Beuve wrote these lines the "old man" has lost his temporal power, a Protestant power has gained the ascendant in Europe; new dangers of which Sainte-Beuve did not dream have appeared before the eyes of the world; sects of assassins are trying to undermine all the governments of Europe; and I cannot help thinking that the fear of the Communists has not been without its influence on the policy adopted against the Church. If you go along the boulevards now and look at the kiosks, you will see everywhere caricatures against the Jesuits; the black hat and soutane of Basil is the loaf thrown to Cerberus.

At the end of his long report M. Spuller gives an official list of the unauthorized congregations which by the new law would be declared unfit for public teaching. There are, in all, in France 59 establishments of Jesuits, with 1,502 Jesuits; 23 establishments of Dominicans, with 327 Dominicans; 19 establishments of Marists, with 222 Marists; and 14 establishments of Benedictines, with 230 Benedictines. A few other orders have very few members: Eudists, 193 members; Basilians, 65; Barnabites, 22; Oratorians, 14; Congregation of St. Bertin, 91; Congregation of the Holy Hearts of Jesus and Mary, 105. The Dominicans are almost exclusively given to preaching, the Benedictines to preaching and to works of erudition. The famous Article 7 of the Ferry law, which says that "no man can be allowed to direct an establishment of public or private teaching, of whatever order this establishment may be, nor admitted to teach in it, if he belongs to a non-authorized religious congregation"—this article is almost exclusively levelled against the 1,502 Jesuits who are now living in France. The whole force of the state, with its Chambers and Senate, its army of soldiers, gendarmes, and officials, is in line against a thousand men. And when these thousand men leave France and go to Jersey, or Guernsey, or Belgium, or Ireland, the Jesuit will disappear in the caricatures of the kiosks; and what shall we see then? what will Cerberus devour next?

THE RESULTS OF THE WAR IN AFGHANISTAN.

London, June 16, 1879.

THE war in Afghanistan is over, and the English people, absorbed in the excitement of the Zulu war, have dismissed it from their minds as if it had no more of a practical interest for them than the siege of Troy. The peace, however, which has been arrived at is but a patched-up affair dictated by political necessities at home—settling nothing, and effecting nothing beyond the placing of the British Government in a position which leaves them no alternative except to evacuate Afghanistan altogether, or to incorporate it with the British Empire in India. The former course cannot be adopted without a loss of *prestige* (and is, therefore, certain not to be adopted); nor the latter, without placing in jeopardy the existence of British rule. Such is the agreeable dilemma into which Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues have brought the country. It is the peculiarity of the present Cabinet that they seem—every man of them—utterly incapable of calculating either the consequences of their policy or the means requisite for carrying it out. They are full of bluster and brag till the moment for action arrives, and then eat their leek with beautiful resignation and go off in search of other adventures. Thus, having posed before Europe as the "defenders of her imperilled liberties" and the upholders of "the sanctity of treaties," when required to vindicate their position by corresponding action they can do nothing beyond the transferring of 7,000 Sepoys from India to Malta. This producing no result, they eat their leek in the form of a number of secret engagements annihilating the treaties of which they had constituted themselves the defenders, and call this discreditable proceeding "peace with honor." It would occupy too much space to enumerate all the leeks which, in one way or another, have been devoured by Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues since first they determined to electrify the world with a "spirited foreign policy." But there is not a people with whom they have come into contact that has not administered this leek-diet in considerable quantities. Turkey, Egypt, Greece, the new Bulgaria, not less than Russia, have either presented or are at present presenting their leeks to the English Cabinet, nor is there now any doubt but that all such presentations will be duly honored. In Afghanistan they rushed into a war without a pretext of any kind, and for some time past the whole strength of Indian diplomacy has been put forth in order to persuade Yakub Khan to make peace and so preserve the English Government from the humiliation of publicly eating one more leek. The peace has for the moment concealed the failure of the invasion of Afghanistan, but the far-reaching consequences of this disastrous campaign cannot be so lightly conjured away.

The Afghanistan war of 1838 demonstrated two facts—the one, that it was physically impossible for an army under the modern conditions of war to march from Herat to the Indus, via Candahar and the Bolan Pass; the other, that a permanent occupation of Afghanistan was impossible by reason of its costliness. Without the incidents of the retreat and destruction of General Elphinstone's army, we should have had to withdraw from the country on account of the enormous charge which our presence there entailed upon the revenues of India. Undeterred by the experience of the past, the British Government resolved to repeat the experiment. Your readers must not imagine that the pretexts which have been assigned as justifying the war had anything to do with it. The war had been resolved on fully eighteen months before the Russian Embassy appeared in Cabul; and no concessions on the part of the Amir, short of yielding up so much of his dominions as the Government thought necessary for the construction of a "scientific frontier," would have sufficed to avert it. We know now that the one man in Afghanistan sincerely desirous to maintain a friendly alliance with the British Government was the Amir Shir Ali, whom Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues have hunted to death. And to preserve that friendship he was willing to concede anything short of an actual surrender of territory. But nothing less than this would content the English Government. Still, as robbery pure and simple is a little too strong meat even for a party educated and disciplined by Lord Beaconsfield, it became necessary to devise means for throwing upon the luckless Amir the responsibility of bringing on the war. This was effected by the now famous "repulse of our mission" from the Khybar Pass. In truth, there was no repulse. Every one in India is perfectly well aware that had ordinary time been given to the Amir to think over and respond to our announcement that a mission was about to proceed to Cabul, he would have consented to receive it. But the Government of India wanted the mission to be repelled, not to be received; and, therefore, Sir Neville Chamberlain was ordered to proceed through the Khybar, when it was known that the Amir's officer in command there must, in the fulfilment of his duty, request him to return. This request, by the confession of the officers with the mission, was made with the utmost courtesy; and the veracious Indian Government thereupon telegraphed to England that he had threatened to open fire upon the English troops. Thus was the British nation committed to a war as wicked as any recorded in the annals of mankind. Lord Beaconsfield, with characteristic cynicism, frankly avowed that the war had nothing to do with any indignities that we supposed had been inflicted upon us by the Amir, but was undertaken in order to construct a "scientific frontier" at the cost of that luckless sovereign.

The "scientific frontier" was, it need hardly be said, supposed to be necessary in order to protect India from a Russian invasion. Notwithstanding the experience gained in our former campaign in Afghanistan, a number of military and political wiseacres had again got frightened by this bogey, and this wretched war was the result of their poltroonery. Well, now we have got our "scientific frontier," and it is found to consist in a right to administer the revenues of, and quarter troops in, the district of Sibi, the Kurram Valley, and the Peshin Valley. Of these, Sibi is a small district wholly detached from Afghanistan proper, and surrounded on all sides by British possessions. It has nothing to do with any frontier line, good or bad. The Kurram Valley is a mere *cul-de-sac*, closed in on every side by lofty mountain ranges, and conducting nowhither. For what purpose, scientific or other, we have taken upon ourselves the burden of collecting and administering its revenues it is impossible to divine. This, however, is well known. Among the Indian officials who have been most urgent in their demands for a forward policy in Afghanistan is Dr. Bellew, a well-known traveller and linguist, and a man who is, probably, better acquainted with Afghanistan and its people than any Englishman living. Throughout the late war he has been in the confidence of Lord Lytton and one of his principal advisers. Regarding the acquisition of the Kurram Valley he expresses himself as follows:

"The Kurram Valley would involve the addition of about one hundred and fifty miles of hill-frontage to our border, and would bring us into contact with the independent Orakzais, Zaimukhts, Toris, Cabulkhel, Waziris, and others, against whose hostility and inroads, here as in other parts of the border, we shall have to protect our territory. By its possession, as we are now situated, we should be committed to the defence of a long, narrow strip of land, a perfect *cul-de-sac* in the hills, hemmed in by a number of turbulent robber tribes, who are under no control and acknowledge no authority. In ordinary times its acquisition would add to the serious difficulties of our position. In times of trouble or disturbance on the border its possession would prove a positive source of weakness, a deadweight upon our free action. In it we should run

the risk of being hemmed in by our foes in the overhanging hills around, of being cut off from our communications with the garrison at Kohat, by the Orakzais on one side, by the Waziris on the other. These are the disadvantages of the step. In return, what advantages should we derive? Not one. With Kurram in our possession, we certainly could not flank either the Khybar or the Goleri Pass, because between it and the first intervenes the impassable snowy range of the Sufed Koh, and between it and the other intervenes the vast routeless hilly tract of the Waziris. From Kurram we could neither command Cabul nor Ghazni, because the route to either is by a several days' march over stupendous hills and tortuous defiles, in comparison with which the historical Khybar and Bolan Passes, or even the less widely known Goleri Pass, are as king's highways."

This testimony is decisive. Whatever its advantages, the Kurram Valley has no more reference to a "scientific frontier" than has the district of Sibi. There remains, then, only the Peshin Valley. The "scientific frontier" must be discovered here, or the search for it abandoned altogether. The only line by which an invading army could ever hope to penetrate to India from Central Asia is by way of Herat, Candahar, the Bolan Pass, and across the Sinde Desert to the Indus. There is no difference of opinion as to this. If an invasion is attempted, it must be attempted along this line or not at all. Hitherto the Russophobists have considered that they made out their case if they could establish that along this route there were no physical obstacles sufficient to detain an army. They argued that if it could be demonstrated that an invasion of India was not physically impossible, it ought to be assumed as a certainty that it would be attempted. And what the march of General Stewart to Candahar has, for the second time, demonstrated is, that an invasion of India along this route is physically impossible. Starting from Sukkur on the Indus, the first fifty miles of this line of march extends over a level country which during the rainy season is flooded to a depth of seven feet. From that point up to the hills which form the southern boundary of Afghanistan extends a bare and arid desert. At all times of the year, along this tract of country—about one hundred and forty miles in breadth—there is neither water nor food sufficient for even a few thousand men; while for six months of the year it is traversed by a pestilential hot wind fatal to man and beast. In the former war with Afghanistan, a force of about six or seven hundred native soldiers with fourteen officers made an attempt to cross this desert after the hot wind had begun to blow. In four days, out of the fourteen officers, nine perished, together with one hundred of the native soldiers and three hundred camp-followers. This desert is therefore an absolutely impregnable obstacle between India and any invasion from Central Asia. On the outer margin of the desert, and immediately below the southern Afghan hills, is situated the town of Dadur. The Bolan Pass begins at three miles distance from this, Quetta marks its terminating point at the other extremity, and the intervening space is about seventy miles in extent. Road there is none through the Bolan. The line of march winds along the dry bed of a stream which during the rains is filled from bank to bank with a swiftly-rushing torrent of water, effectually severing all communication between the uplands of Afghanistan and Sinde. There is, moreover, neither food nor forage in the Pass, and an invading army would have to carry all supplies with it; while in the winter the Pass is liable to be swept from end to end with terrible storms of wind and snow. From Quetta on to Candahar the country is open and practicable enough, but supplies sufficient for a large army are not procurable. General Stewart's troops had to be fed almost entirely from India.

Such was the country across which General Stewart had to conduct 14,000 men to Candahar. The difficulties of transport and commissariat were so great that had he met with any opposition it is certain that the attempt to reach Candahar would have failed. As it was, no less than twenty thousand camels perished on the march; and when Candahar was at last occupied, ten thousand men had immediately to be withdrawn to India to preserve them from starvation. The four thousand men who remained at Candahar were literally nailed to the spot on which they were encamped. The want of carriage was such that they could not have moved, in a body, for thirty miles in any direction. A further advance upon Herat, had such been necessary, would have been totally beyond our power. Without any active opposition the mere physical difficulties of the march had been found to be such that all the resources of the Indian Empire had only sufficed to place four thousand men in Candahar, and to leave them there helpless and isolated. The demonstration was complete. If we could not move an army of 14,000 men half way to Herat, it was absurd to suppose that the Russians could move for the whole distance an army sufficient to meet and conquer eighty thousand British troops in an entrenched camp upon the Indus. The revulsion of feeling was as sudden as it was complete. The folly, the madness, of the war was recognized and confessed even by those who had once been most emphatic in demanding it. The natural frontier of India was conclusively shown to be also the "scientific frontier"—and, in truth, a frontier literally impregnable. But having gone to war in order to obtain a "scientific frontier," the Government were compelled to appropriate something and declare *that* to be the "scientific frontier"; and the English nation is consequently required to believe that by the acquisition of the Kurram Valley and the Peshin Valley the Indian frontier has been rendered scientific, and that Lord Beaconsfield to his other claims on popular gratitude has added that of being the saviour of India.

Here, then, are the material results of the war in Afghanistan: We have acquired the right to locate troops in the Kurram Valley, a privilege entailing heavy responsibilities and large expenditure, but destitute of any advantage to us either present or prospective. We have also acquired a similar right with regard to the Peshin Valley. The Peshin Valley lies about midway between Quetta and Candahar, and the troops quartered there will be removed from their base of supply and support by a tract of difficult country nearly three hundred miles in extent. The Sinde desert now lies behind us, instead of being, as heretofore, an insurmountable barrier, guarding the line of the Indus. In return for the concession of these two costly and dangerous privileges we have undertaken to pay Yakub Khan a subsidy of £60,000 a year, and to defend his throne against all foreign aggression. This last is the provision in the treaty of peace which is fraught with such incalculable danger to the Indian Empire. But the length to which this letter has extended compels me to defer the explanation of this for a second letter.

Correspondence.

MR. C. A. COLE AND THE *ART AMATEUR*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I hardly know whether to be amused or annoyed at Charles A. Cole's communication to the *Nation* in regard to his connection with the *Art Amateur*. A person not acquainted with him might suppose that he had written one-half of the July number and inspired the other half. As a matter of fact, let me say that he was for the most part employed on simple routine work, chiefly outside of the office, and it was while thus engaged he became acquainted with most of the gentlemen whose names he quotes so glibly as those of his "friends." He failed to give satisfaction, and I had to dispense with his services. But Mr. Cole positively refused to be discharged, and since his dismissal has systematically annoyed me. This in itself would not have been worthy my notice; when he went to the extent, however, of writing to my contributors, telling them to forward to *him personally* their articles for the *Art Amateur*, as if he were still connected with it, and tacitly giving other persons having business relations with the publication to understand that he was in my employ, I found it necessary for my own protection to publish the paragraph to which he takes exception, informing the public that he has no connection whatever with the *Art Amateur*.

Respectfully yours,

Montague Marks.

New York, July 8, 1879.

NATIONAL ELECTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article on "Politicians and State Rights," in the issue of your paper dated June 26, you say: "Among these principles the one at which Republicans have professed most alarm is, that under our system there can be no such thing as an United States election, but that all elections, those of *President and Representatives* as well as of governors and State legislators, belong exclusively to the State."

Unless I misunderstand you, you put the election of the President and the election of Congressmen on a par, as far as "national elections" go. As I understand the Constitution, the election of Presidential electors is a State election, and the electors are State officers. The Constitution says: "Each State shall appoint [them] in such manner as the legislature thereof shall direct." "Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors," but has no other control over them; they may be elected by the legislature itself or by the State Senate, or be appointed by the Supreme Court of the State. In Massachusetts they are paid by the State, and if the whole number is not chosen in the manner pre-

scribed by statute, then the governor must call the General Court together to choose the rest.

Congressmen, on the contrary, are by no means "State officers"; they are only, and the only, United States officials chosen by the people. Their election must not of necessity be held under and by the State authorities, but "the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations" as now exist, and have their election held under and by its own officers.

Hoping that you will enlighten me with your views on this subject, I remain yours, very truly, SUMNER CHASE CHANDLER.

EQUITABLE BUILDING, BOSTON, July 1, 1879.

[The Democrats maintain the principle that all elections are State elections. *We* have not said that they were, but have said that this doctrine alarmed the Republicans. We also said, or suggested, that the cheating or negligence of the State authorities at the election of Congressmen, against which Republicans have been seeking with such eagerness to provide on utilitarian grounds, was no more dangerous to the Republic than the cheating or negligence of the State authorities in the election of Presidential electors, against which the Republicans held in 1876 that they were solemnly bound not to provide. It must be remembered that in that year they were not asked to take the election of electors out of the hands of the State, but simply to enquire whether it had really been conducted in the manner provided by the Constitution, by State officers, in accordance with State law. Mr. Hoar and Mr. Garfield were then, however, so sensitive about State rights that they held it to be improper even to ask a question as to the authority under which Wells and Anderson and Company acted, or as to the manner in which they discharged their duties.—ED. NATION.]

THE LATE GENERAL TAYLOR'S HISTORICAL ACCURACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Under ordinary circumstances the recent death of an author should, perhaps, in a measure shield him from severe criticism, but when a man puts on record and calls "history" such wild and reckless statements as the late General Richard Taylor has uttered, his writings should not be suffered to pass unchallenged.

Except to the readers of that magazine it is not generally known, probably, that General Taylor preceded his recent extraordinary book (which has been so justly rebuked at all hands) by a series of articles on war subjects in the *North American Review*. These were, most of them, characterized by the same spirit that pervades his book, and seem to have been fired off as "range-finders," as it were, before opening fire with all his guns. It is one of these to which attention is invited in this note.

In the March-April, 1878, number of the magazine referred to, on page 238 *et seq.*, is the third of his papers, entitled "Stonewall Jackson, and the Valley Campaign." The article pretends to give the history of the Shenandoah Valley Campaign of 1862, and particularly that part of it covered by the retreat of the small command of General N. P. Banks before the largely superior force of the rebel army under General Thomas J. Jackson, familiarly known by the sobriquet of "Stonewall."

While by no means endorsing General Taylor's account of this affair, I do not propose now to enter into any general criticism. Facts alone are what I intend to handle, not opinions or beliefs. He says (p. 243):

". . . Jackson had struck the Valley pike at Middletown—twelve miles south of Winchester—along which a large body of Federal cavalry, with many wagons, was hastening north. He attacked at once with his handful of men, overwhelmed resistance, and captured prisoners and wagons."

In general terms this is not a proper, nor even a true, statement of the result of the engagement at Middletown; but let that pass.

He then goes on to say:

". . . The cavalry was from New England—a section in which horsemanship was an unknown art—and some of these centaurs were strapped to their steeds. Ordered to dismount, they explained their condition, and were given time to unbuckle. Many breastplates and other protective devices were seen here, and later at Winchester. We did not know whether the Federals had organized cuirassiers, or were recurring to the customs of Gustavus Adolphus. I saw a poor fellow lying dead on the pike, pierced through breastplate and body by a rifle-ball. . . ."

All this I pronounce absolutely false, even when General Taylor asserts, as he does, that these things are what he himself *saw*.

There was no one, officer or man, in the cavalry of Banks's army, or in any part of Banks's army, who wore at that time or any other time "breastplates and other protective devices," or anything that could, by the remotest probability, possibly give the most careless observer the impression that any such thing was worn or thought of. When General Taylor says he "*saw* a poor fellow lying dead on the pike, pierced through *breastplate* and body by a rifle-ball," he states what he knew to be a deliberate falsehood.

I am quite well aware this is strong language, but so is General Taylor's, and this is a case deserving heroic treatment. That it may be seen I was in position to know, I may say at once that I was present and on duty through this whole campaign as the adjutant-general of Hatch's brigade of cavalry, which comprised *all* the cavalry in Banks's army. It would have been impossible for a single man to have worn a breastplate or anything that looked like a breastplate without my knowledge. The officers and men wore the ordinary uniform which all the rest of the United States forces wore, first and last; and nothing more, nothing less. The troopers of my brigade wore either the ordinary loose blouse or the cavalry jacket of coarse, dark-blue cloth, trimmed around the edges and collar with narrow, yellow worsted lace, light blue pantaloons, and light blue army overcoats, and black rubber talmas or ponchos when the weather required. Every man was armed with an ordinary sabre and one Colt's revolver (cal. .44), and some of the command (I don't think all) had breech-loading carbines of the Sharps or Burnside pattern in addition, nor had they any "protective devices" whatever against the bullets of the enemy but these arms and their own gallantry and valor.

General Taylor says:

". . . The cavalry was from New England—a section in which horsemanship was an unknown art—and some of these centaurs were strapped to their steeds. Ordered to dismount, they explained their condition, and were given time to unbuckle."

Except that three of the nine regiments composing our unusually large brigade were from New England, every word of this is absolute falsehood, without shadow of foundation, and "was cut" by General Taylor "out of whole cloth." No officer or man, no bugler boy even, in the whole command was *ever* "strapped to his steed," at any time, for any purpose whatever. Every man sat and rode in his saddle, and mounted and dismounted as occasion required, much as other people do, and quite as well, no doubt, as did General Taylor or any of the other numerous rebels in arms, who to this day have very lively recollections of "Hatch's Cavalry." Any man to-day who served in 1862 in the cavalry opposed to us, commanded by that gallant rebel leader, Colonel Ashby (who was himself killed in a fight with our brigade), will agree with me in saying that the sharp chases we sometimes gave them, as they, in turn, gave us, were not made by men to whom "horsemanship was an unknown art." It is undeniable that our cavalry in 1862 was not so effective as that arm of service afterward proved itself (nor was any other part of the army for that matter), but defective horsemanship was no part of our deficiencies. People in the North certainly do not ride horseback as universally as they do South, and for the good reason that as we here are half a century in advance of most of that region in civilization, as a consequence among other things we have good carriage roads everywhere where we haven't steam transportation, so that horseback riding, save as a recreation, is unnecessary. Still, out of the cities, and particularly among the farmers, the men and boys are all familiar with horses, and as much at home on their backs as any Southerner. All the regiments of our cavalry brigade but *one* were country organizations, and the whole command had been well drilled in riding as well as in other matters before taking the field at all. The single city regiment, the Fifth New York Cavalry, was, singularly enough, an exceptionally fine and effective cavalry regiment. Nor am I sure that all of the troopers were city men. My impression is that several of the companies were from the country round about New York City.

To show what utter nonsense this is of General Taylor's, at the risk of tediousness I give the list of the organizations composing our brigade, by which any one may judge, from whence the men came, whether they were people likely to be found "strapped to their steeds":

Fifth New York Cavalry, commanded by Colonel O. De Forest; First Vermont Cavalry, commanded by Colonel Chas. H. Tompkins; First Michigan Cavalry, commanded by Colonel Brodhead; First Maine Cavalry, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Doty; First Rhode Island Cavalry, commanded by Colonel Lawton; First Virginia Cavalry, commanded by ——, and composed of loyal West Virginians; First Maryland Cavalry, commanded by ——, and composed of loyal Marylanders; First Battalion "Potomac Home Brigade Cavalry," recruited along the

banks of the Potomac, besides the Eighth New York Cavalry, which at that time had not received its mount, and hence took no part in the campaign.

The whole was commanded by Brigadier-General John P. Hatch, United States Volunteers, at that time a captain in the Mounted Rifles (now the Third United States Cavalry) and at present the lieutenant-colonel of the Fourth United States Cavalry, who since 1845 has been a distinguished cavalry officer in the regular army of the United States.

Colonel Brodhead was killed at the head of his regiment at the second battle of Bull Run; Colonel Lawton and Colonel De Forest have died since the war; Colonel Doty, I understand, is still living, and Colonel Tompkins is now a lieutenant-colonel and one of the deputy quartermaster-generals of the Army. The other colonels I have forgotten entirely, even their very names, it is so long ago, but these surviving commanders of the troops, together with General Hatch, will, I have no doubt, corroborate all I have said.

I look upon this matter as an unwarranted attack upon the soldierly honor and military character of this gallant brigade, and I have taken the trouble to write this not for the purpose, in turn, of assailing the memory of General Taylor, but rather because duty to my comrades requires that *truth* should be substituted on the record for what I cannot but regard as malicious and silly falsehood. Others may not attach to this the importance I do, or would, at least, pass it by in contempt. But the exposure of these falsehoods of General Taylor's at this late day is in one sense timely, since it serves to brand with suspicion every statement he makes in his recent astonishing book entitled 'Destruction and Reconstruction: Personal Experiences of the Late War.'

It is to be presumed, were General Taylor still living, he would attempt proof of the statements quoted, since he was at such pains to give them utterance. It would, however, be interesting to know if any of his fellow-rebels now living who were with him in the Valley campaign of 1862 also saw any Yankee cavalrymen, dead or alive, in "breastplates or other protective devices," or any Yankee cavalrymen "strapped to their steeds."

In common with other reasonable people I entertain the highest respect personally for all the gallant soldiers of the South who sternly followed what *they* believed to be the right. As a rule they have, like true soldiers, accepted their defeat, conquered though not convinced. General Taylor would also have proved himself a true soldier had he quietly followed the meritorious example of his comrades-in-arms.

Respectfully yours, J. A. Judson,
late Capt. and Asst. Adjt.-Gen. U. S. Vols.

Newport, R. I., June 24, 1879.

[We print the above, with the exception of one phrase, as the writer sends it, but we must say that, considering that General Taylor's article in the *North American Review* appeared a year before his death, some of the severity of language expended on it would have been more appropriate at an earlier date. The statements criticised struck us at the time as extraordinary, and we have never been able to understand why none of the many surviving officers and soldiers who know them to be untrue has come forward before now to contradict them.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

DIXON & SHEPARD, publishers of the Chicago *Alliance*, will shortly issue 'In the Toils,' a romance of Mormonism.——A. Williams & Co., Boston, have ready 'Summer Vacations at Moosehead Lake and Vicinity,' a tourists' guide-book, edited, with illustrations and map, by Lucius L. Hubbard.——'Appleton's General Guide to the United States and Canada' is so far without a rival that it might have been less well edited than it is and still have been indispensable to tourists dependent upon guide-books of equal scope. It is a conveniently bound 12mo, of some five hundred pages, elaborately indexed, and modelled upon the Baedeker hand-books. Its standpoint is very properly that of the traveller and not that of the statistician, and in the ordinarily irreconcilable elements of conciseness and completeness it is unusually successful. It is copiously illustrated with maps and woodcuts of noteworthy places and objects, and is especially arranged for the use of European travellers and others, to whom the smallest details are useful so long as they are practical.——No. 10 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* deserves mention for an excellent article on General Henry Bouquet, prefacing some hitherto unpublished letters of his to a young lady of Philadelphia. These, if they do not add much to the meagre details of his personal history, confirm his reputation for amiability and reveal a thoughtful and philosophic mind. His correspondent's desire to charm him back to civil life extorts from him a rational defence of war, and some uncomplimentary remarks on Pennsylvania society. Mr. George H. Fisher, who edits the letters, shows that society was then in a transition state, owing to the necessary withdrawal of the Quakers from the government of a commonwealth which their principles unfitted them to maintain.——Miss K. M. Rowland, 225 Fremont Street, Baltimore, will receive subscriptions to a proposed collection of poems by the late Dr. Frank O. Ticknor, of Georgia. A third of the eighty or ninety poems in the volume were written in war-time, but ought not, it is said, to give offence to Northern readers. J. B. Lippincott & Co. will be the publishers.——The Concord (Mass.) "Summer School for instruction by conference and conversation in literature and the higher philosophy" will reopen on July 15, at the Orchard House of Mr. Alcott, and continue for five weeks. All the course tickets have been taken, but single tickets can be procured at any time. Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Concord, is the Secretary of the Faculty.——Some recent English announcements are: the fourth volume of Kinglake's 'History of the Invasion of the Crimea'; 'Europe and Asia: Discussion of the Eastern Question in Travels throughout Independent, Turkish, and Austrian Illyria,' by Mr. Stuart-Glennie; 'Rotamia and British Guiana, with a Glance at Bermuda, the West Indies, and the Spanish Main,' by J. W. Boddam-Whetham; 'The Life and Work of Mary Carpenter,' by the Rev. J. E. Carpenter; and 'The Music of the Bible,' with an account of the development of modern musical instruments from ancient types, by Dr. John Stainer.——A Berlin bookseller has made a list of translations from the German published during the previous four months in countries between which and Germany there is no copyright treaty. Altogether, 108 translations have been issued, the Netherlands having published 38, the United States 23, Russia 18, Scandinavia 17, Spain 11. As regards the character of the works translated, 30 belonged to the department of belles-lettres, 14 to medicine, 11 to theology, 8 to natural science, 9 to juvenile literature, 6 to the stage, 3 to pedagogics, 2 to law.

—Harper & Bros. have published the 'Annual Record of Science and Industry' for the past year, 1878. According to the later plan of its editor, Professor Baird, it consists of general reviews in the respective domains of astronomy, physics, geology, agriculture, technology, etc., by well-known American scientists, to all the information in which an index gives ready access. Comparing it with Louis Figuier's 'L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle' (New York: F. W. Christern), its greater fulness is apparent, at the same time that the French work is a by no means superfluous addition to the scientific library. Thus, even in the matter of the New York elevated railroads, M. Figuier goes much more into details of construction and operation than does the *Record*, intended primarily for American readers, and, again, M. Figuier gives a minute account of a Pennsylvania cyclone from which one of his countrymen (M. Faye) deduces conclusions which alone find their place in the *Record*. In the one volume we find Alluard's observations on temperature, in the other, on atmospheric pressure, at different altitudes. M. Figuier has nothing about anthropology, and his natural history is a poor substitute for the *Record's* zoölogy and botany, but he gives a section to medicine and physiology, and a special account of the Paris Exposition, with a useful plan. His annual lacks the bibliography which is so important a part of Prof. Baird's. His necrology is also much more meagre numerically, but it contains many French names not likely to be known outside of the country and not found in the *Record*, and the lives are much more elaborate. This department of the *Record* is least well executed. It omits Claude Bernard, Robert von Meyer, and Aug. Petermann, to mention no others; while misspelling occurs too frequently, reaching its climax in "Hoffner" for "Hoefer," and "Seine-et-Pise" for "Seine-et-Oise."

—The Third Library Convention has been the most successful of all. The weather was perfect, the attendance large, the papers interesting, and the social gatherings unceremonious and cordial. The fault of this, even more than of the London Conference, was that the papers were too many and too long, and that there was not enough discussion. The Convention took no action, decided nothing, and the general impression left on the mind of the listener was that there are two sides to everything; that it is not so easy to decide just what is best to be done in regard either

to the building or the catalogue or the book-supply. Whether one shall build on one floor only, with the disadvantages of high ground-rent and wide dispersion of the books—the latter evil to be remedied by telephones and railways—or whether lofty buildings shall separate the books vertically, with a remedy and an expense in elevators, is not yet settled. Housekeepers know the advantage of a single story; but a lot 200 by 800 feet is not readily obtained in the centre of a city rich enough to need a large library. The expense of foundation and roof increase in almost exact proportion to the superficial extent of the building; and there is no compensation in any diminished cost for the side-walls. No doubt the Providence Depot would be better than Bunker Hill Monument for a library, but in this matter, as in regard to fiction, a middle course would have got the most votes if the librarians had voted.

—The second day was the most interesting and the most profitable. The great fiction question was not left, as it might have been, just where it was before. Three ideas—only one of them absolutely new, to be sure—were brought forward with unusual force. It was urged by Mr. Adams that a city has no right to use the tax-payers' money to furnish mere amusement. It might have been replied that it has as much right to provide entertainment throughout the year as on the Fourth of July. But it must be confessed that we are coming here dangerously near the *panem et circenses*. Another argument of the advocates of fiction—that it is an assistant of the police, and keeps the people from the street-corners and from grog-shops—if pushed hard, leads to the municipal establishment of coffee-rooms and Holly-Tree Inns. Mr. Adams would exclude all fiction that is not educational, leaving the rest to the circulating libraries, so that the public libraries should contain only standard literature ; a course which he confessed would reduce their circulation one-half. He might have added that in some communities it would breed an unpopularity for the libraries that would reduce one-half the means at their command for the purchase of the standard literature. Mr. Adams's forcible views will hardly prevail, but they may support the more moderate suggestions of Mr. Green, that the quantity of fiction be gradually diminished with a view of substituting better reading, and his original proposal that fiction branch-libraries be established in quarters of the city which cannot yet bear a very high standard, the main library and the branches in better neighborhoods being left comparatively unprovided with light literature. The third noteworthy idea was Miss Bean's, that school children should not be allowed to take out more than one novel or story a week. The evils of the present unlimited reading of stories by children are very great. The mischief done by sensational stories in diverting their thoughts entirely from their school studies, and occasionally—very seldom—sending a boy to sea, or off on a tramp, or inducing him to join a band of juvenile pirates with their headquarters in a lumber-pile, have been sufficiently insisted upon. Quite as much harm is done, to girls especially, by the reading of unsensational, idealess trash, and of what a clergyman lately complained of as "silly pious stories." It is a favorite idea that the young novel-reader is going to develop into the lover of sound and improving books. But children who skim a volume of this milk-and-water every day and remember nothing of it the next, are sedulously cultivating non-attention and non-retention to an extent that is more likely permanently to incapacitate them for anything better than a newspaper. It is a serious question for educators, because the process is going on by wholesale. Miss Bean's remedy would be more promising if it were not certain that the children would club together and lend one another the books they borrow, and so get their daily dissipation as easily as now. The true remedy would lie in parental oversight if parents were not themselves offenders. There is, in fact, no single remedy.

—An article entitled "The Flooding of the Sahara," in the July *Scribner's*, lends currency to errors which are worth, perhaps, the pains necessary to expose them. The French engineers do not propose "to flood the great desert with the waters of the Mediterranean," but simply the submersion of what is known as the region of the *shotts*. This is an extensive valley, with isolated areas below the sea-level, enclosed by two mountain ranges, extending eastward through the southern parts of Algeria and Tunis, and believed to be a part of the great Atlas range. The west end of the valley, where the two ranges separate, is near the intersection of the meridian of Paris with the 34th parallel of latitude. The southern range forms an effective barrier between the Sahara and the region of the shotts. The number, the width, and the depth of the river-beds that descend from the *south* to the region of the shotts prove that the watershed on that side is very extensive, and the formation of these beds indicates that the sources of the rivers are far distant from their mouths and their courses not those of torrents. The reverse of this is observed on the north side of the shotts, where the southern slopes of the mountain range are precipitous and the water-shed towards the Mediterranean, with all its beds now dry. Everything, therefore, confirms the well-founded opinion that flooding the Sahara by admitting water into the shotts is not only "visionary and impracticable" but impossible. The writer informs us that "at a meeting of the French Academy of Sciences, held December 9, 1878, M. de Lesseps gave an account of his visit to Tunis in company with Captain Roudaire and his expedition. The exploring party arrived in the Gulf of Gabes in the latter part of November of the same year. *The tidal rise and fall was ascertained to amount to two and a half metres in the gulf*, while the average tidal variation of the Mediterranean is only three-tenths of a metre." The italics are ours. The observations of Captain, now Admiral, Mouchez in 1876, during his admirable survey of Gabes Gulf, prove conclusively that its maximum rise and fall, or greatest difference between the high and low-water levels, is one metre and four-tenths. The result agrees with that derived from the observations made by British surveyors in the early part of this century, and also with those made since Mouchez's survey by competent officers. Tidal observations do not require genius, and therefore it is justifiable to accept, as correct, results which differ from those obtained by M. de Lesseps and his party.

—The writer continues :

"Midway between the extreme limits of the Gulf of Gabes is the mouth of the Melah, a small river selected by Captain Roudaire to permit the flow of the water into the shotts. The tide ascends this river for several kilometres, retiring with such force that, at a distance of 500 metres from the shore, opposite the river's mouth, it has scoured out a channel forty fathoms deep."

The river Melah is really the dry bed of what was once a stream. Mouchez's chart, Roudaire's report, and other equally good authorities give it a course of about three miles ; and from Roudaire's map we find that at its source the ridge has an elevation of fourteen metres. The mean fall is, therefore, about two and four-tenths metres per kilometre. How is it possible for a tide that only rises one and four-tenths metres to ascend this river *several* kilometres? Perhaps we are indebted to M. de Lesseps for adding to the many brilliant achievements of his busy life the discovery of a novel tidal phenomenon or natural law that will enable him to cut ship-canals and flood deserts until everything is either an island or an ocean. The influence of the Suez Canal has been felt in many ways, and it may be that this influence has extended even to natural laws governing the action of fluids. But the most extraordinary feature of this wonderful tidal phenomenon is the "retiring with such force that at a distance of 500 metres from the shore, opposite the river's mouth, it has scoured out a channel forty fathoms deep." The discovery of this hitherto unknown force stored up in an ebb tide may lead to important results. Before accepting the statement as strictly exact it would be well to examine the charts of Gabes Gulf made from different surveys, and especially those from Mouchez's survey in 1876. Such an examination will prove conclusively that at 500 metres from any spot on the shore of Gabes Gulf the greatest depth is seven metres or *four* fathoms ; and that a depth of forty fathoms (seventy-three metres) is not found anywhere in Gabes Gulf, nor within a radius of ninety miles from the mouth of the river Melah, opposite to which a bank of rock and gravel extends off two miles from the beach, where the depth is about three fathoms. We are told, finally, that "MM. de Lesseps and Roudaire ascended the river Melah a distance of fifteen kilometres," but their mode of ascent is thoughtlessly omitted. It would be interesting to know whether they ascended in a boat floated up an incline with the wonderful tide of the region, or whether they rode or walked along the dry bed. It was very thoughtless, too, of the chemist to have too many parts in his analysis of the "compressed sand" taken from the banks of the river, for even M. de Lesseps cannot make us believe that 109.9 = 99. In Number 694 of the *Nation* (Oct. 17, 1878) the report of Captain Roudaire was convincingly reviewed, and to this we refer our readers for information about the shotts. It should be understood that faith in M. de Lesseps, and the desire of the French to create a water-way through their favorite colony and effect some amelioration in its climate, are not the only reasons for the persistent pushing of the scheme of flooding the shotts, in spite of conclusive proof that it is impracticable. The strongest argument presented in its favor is that, the shotts once flooded, the valley would become the most productive cotton region in the world. Cheaper labor and transport to the markets of Europe would enable the producers

of North Africa to undersell those of America, who would be driven out of the European markets.

—A subscriber writes us from St. Louis as follows:

"The *Nation* has exposed the mischievous attempts at tying the hands of Government in the matter of election supervision and of control by the United States courts of inter-State questions. Perhaps, in that connection, the *Nation* may make good use of the opinion of that good Democrat, Jefferson, who advocated the organization of a navy for the immediate purpose of punishing the piratical Barbary States, and the ultimate purpose of 'arming the federal head with the safest of all the instruments of coercion over its delinquent members.' Of course at that time a naval force was sufficient, as the coast was the line of densest population; also, transportation by sea was doubtless more expeditious. The extract is from 'Memoir, Correspondence, etc., from the Papers of Thomas Jefferson,' edited by Thomas Jefferson Randolph, 1829 (vol. ii. p. 37, Letter to John Adams). Vol. i. p. 47 sets forth Jefferson's views as to the proper mode and spirit of discussion in Congress which might instruct our 'statesmen' of the day. I give but one of the many golden sentences, and it is really more questionable than may at first be thought, whether Bonaparte's dumb legislature, which said nothing and did much, may not be preferable to one which talks much and does nothing."

—In No. 618 of the *Nation* we noticed the first number of the *Rivista di Letteratura Popolare*, conducted by G. Pitrè and F. Sabatini. Since then the first volume has been completed by the issue of three more numbers, the last of which has recently appeared. The most valuable articles in the new periodical are those devoted to popular songs. One of the editors contributes three articles on the popular songs of Rome, and A. Gianandrea completes his work, 'Canti popolari marchigiani' (Turin: Loescher, 1875), by three articles on the songs and games of the children of the same locality. The curious class of songs peculiar to prisons is illustrated by some from Calabria, collected by A. Lumini. From beyond Italy are 'Chants populaires du Pays Messin,' contributed by Th. Puymaigre, and serving to supplement his well-known work (Metz, 1865). Next in value are the popular tales represented by stories from Tuscany and Bergamo, including a Tuscan variant of Tom Thumb. Connected with the same subject are articles by Th. Braga, 'Litteratura dos contos populares portuguezes,' and by R. Köhler, 'Das Räthselmärchen von dem ermordeten Geliebten.' Other important articles are F. Liebrecht's 'Croyances et superstitions populaires norvégiennes' and C. Mayreder's 'Die polyglotte Sprichwörterliteratur.' The department of customs and usages is weak, being represented by two articles only. The value of the *Rivista* is further increased by its reviews, contents of periodicals and announcements. We trust that its first year has been successful enough to ensure its continuance.

GAIRDNER'S RICHARD III.*

II.

THE usurpation entailed, almost inevitably, another act for which only the most thorough-going positivism could find a plea. By the fundamental law of the monarchy Richard, when his title had been recognized by Parliament and he had been duly crowned by the representatives of the Church, became king, just as the claimant of an ordinary estate became the legal owner when his title had been recognized by a court of law, though all the world might be convinced that his claim was morally unjust. When Richard, on his progress to the North, visited Oxford and lodged in Magdalen College, Bishop Waynflete, the founder of the college, a saintly man, who had been the chancellor of Henry VI., came up expressly to do honor to his sovereign, creating thereby a precedent which the Nonjurors of later days might have found as much to the purpose as that of the Thundering Legion. But a rival claim, while unextinguished, was sure to breed rebellion, especially a claim so manifestly valid as that which Richard and the Parliament under his influence had thrust aside. Henry IV., though by no means a man of blood, had not ventured to let Richard II. live, and the same fear had impelled the heads of the house of York to the assassination of the discrowned Henry VI., though he was imbecile and childless, while his party had sunk into utter ruin. In the reign of Charles II. the skeletons of two young lads, corresponding in appearance to the ages of the two princes, were found buried beneath a heap of stones under the staircase leading to the chapel of the White Tower, the place of sepulture indicated in the confession of the reputed murderers. If any one is still sceptical enough to doubt that these were the skeletons of the two nephews of Richard III., murdered by order of their uncle, a perusal of Mr. Gairdner's pages on the subject will probably set his doubts at rest. Some of the objections to the current story, as Mr. Gairdner shows, are based on the assumption that Richard was extraordinarily cold-blooded and unimpulsive, whereas he seems to have been liable to transports of passion, and his end at Bosworth was that of a Berserker. The fact appears to be that at Warwick, on his Northern tour, he became alarmed and exasperated by the conspiracies which were hatching against him with the special object of liberating the princes; and, perhaps without reflecting very carefully on the consequences, despatched Sir James Tyrell on the fatal errand. If he exercised forecast, his judgment was miserably at fault; for the murder, as soon as it was known, kindled the most violent indignation throughout the country, caused the smouldering fires of disaffection at once to burst out at all points, and was the principal cause of the murderer's overthrow. Hardened as that generation was in all ordinary crime, carelessly as it would have viewed the erection of a hundred scaffolds by ambition or revenge, and even a hundred assassinations of the common type, regard for the tie of blood and the pity due to helpless innocence still found access to its heart. Perhaps Richard was to some extent the victim of an *idolon specus;* he mistook the moral condition of the class immediately around him for that of the nation at large. The princes and nobles who actually took part in the long train of mutual conspiracies, murders, and confiscations had, no doubt, become thoroughly depraved. It is evident that the wavering of the Stanleys, for instance, between the standard of Richard and that of his rival, arose entirely from a policy in which morality had no part. But the mass of the people, who had merely followed their feudal superiors to the field, thereby keeping the allegiance which was their political morality, were probably in a more normal state, and less ready to condone a crime against which nature appealed in every peasant's breast.

The story of Perkin Warbeck, even if it were true, would not acquit Richard of the murder; it would only show that one of his victims had escaped. But the story of Perkin Warbeck was not true, as we are more than ever convinced after seeing the facts once more set forth by Mr. Gairdner with a little additional light from the Spanish and Venetian archives. In such an age as the fifteenth century the secret murder of a royal personage with a title to a throne was certain to be followed by the appearance of a personator. Even in our time if the body of "Napoleon IV.," instead of being recovered from the Zulus, had been lost in the bush, we should be prepared for a claimant, who, even if he were of the size of an elephant, with no more education than a butcher and unable to speak French, would, as we see from the Tichborne case, find plenty of dupes. Henry VII. had enemies enough ready to embrace any means of shaking his throne. The policy of courts was dark, and in that of Scotland, where Perkin's story found most credence, the hatred of England was so intense that no imposture would have been too gross if it could have furnished an instrument for giving her trouble. But evidence of Perkin's identity with the Duke of York there is none. The Duchess of Burgundy, to put the case in the mildest form, was biassed both by interest and feeling in the highest degree; she was ready to countenance Lambert Simnel as well as Perkin Warbeck. Moreover, it appears that she could only have seen the Duke of York once, when he was six years old. At that time she had paid a visit to her brother, Edward IV., but with this exception she had been, when Warbeck came upon the scene, resident on the Continent for twenty-five years. The sagacious Ferdinand of Spain came ultimately to the conclusion that the story was "a jest." Henry VII. himself, not less sagacious than Ferdinand, and well served in the department of secret intelligence, was evidently satisfied that he had succeeded in identifying the Pretender with the son of John Warbeck or Osbeck, a citizen of Tournay, and of Katherine, his wife. His treatment of the prisoner is entirely in accordance with that belief. Full details of the Pretender's parentage and early life were given in his confession. Copies of a letter written by Perkin in prison to his mother have also been found in the archives of Tournay and Courtray. The confession may have been dictated, and the letter, supposing it to be authentic, as Mr. Gairdner believes it to be, seems to us not free from the same suspicion. But in publishing such details the king must have appealed to the knowledge of a multitude of living persons, in face of enemies able and more than willing to expose a fabrication.

One more count of the long indictment against Richard remains, and it is the most revolting of all. He has been accused of poisoning his wife to make way for his marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, whom, by the murder of her two brothers, he had made the heiress of the House of York, and whose hand it was a vital object of his policy to prevent his

* 'History of the Life and Reign of Richard the Third. To which is added The Story of Perkin Warbeck, from original documents. By James Gairdner, Author of 'The Houses of Lancaster and York,' Editor of 'The Paston Letters,' etc.' London: Longmans.

rival, Richmond, from obtaining. At Christmas the king, triumphant for the time over his enemies, gave a splendid ball at court, and it was noted as ominous that Elizabeth danced in a dress of the same shape and color as that of the queen. People asked whether it was intended that she should be queen indeed. On the 16th of March the queen died. There seems to be no doubt that the king then thought of marrying his niece, but was dissuaded by his principal adherents, who saw that the incestuous marriage would give the greatest offence in itself, and would be taken as a confirmation of the charge of murder. That Queen Anne had died by poison was, however, mere surmise, and perhaps the eclipse which took place on the day of her death was as much the ground of the dreadful rumor as anything else. The queen dowager appears to have favored the marriage of her daughter with Richard. Hence it is inferred that she could not have supposed that Richard had murdered her sons. But what did she think had become of them? If she believed them to be alive, why did she carry that secret with her to her grave? Her conduct, and there is some reason for adding that of her daughter also, in this disgusting affair was simply a proof of the extraordinary demoralization which has been already noticed as prevailing among her class. Queen Anne herself was Warwick's daughter and the affianced wife of the prince whom Richard was believed to have stabbed at Tewksbury. Marriage was a matter not of affection but of policy, and followed the turns of policy, whatever they might be.

"Was ever woman in this humor woo'd?
Was ever woman in this humor won?"

So Richard is made to exclaim at the close of the scene in which he woos and wins the daughter of Warwick. But of wooing there was very little in any of these cases. The purchaser of a wealthy or highly-connected wife paid his addresses to the vender, not to the article which he wished to buy.

Descriptions of the tyrant's personal appearance penned by his enemies after his fall were naturally not flattering. In his countenance, it is certain, nature had not effectually warned the beholder, for he was able to fascinate a good many people, and some who might have been supposed to be little susceptible of his fascinations. His portraits, which are pretty well authenticated, represent intellect of no mean or vulgar kind, with a strong shade of what, knowing his history, we call severity, but if we did not know his history we might call sadness. We need not expect to find in the face of a cruel and unscrupulous politician the glare of savage wickedness for which we should look in the face of a man-eating tiger, such as Eccelino or Ivan the Terrible. It may be taken as certain that Richard's fiery spirit was enclosed in a puny frame. But the hump which Lancastrian prejudice raised upon his back has gradually subsided under the treatment of impartial criticism into a slight inequality between the shoulders. He had certainly no bodily defect which could prevent him from fighting like a demon.

The record of Richard's government, both administrative and legislative, is undeniably good. But we must remember that during his brief reign he was compelled assiduously to court popularity in order to win support for his tottering throne. We cannot tell what he would have been had fortune at Bosworth made him securely master of the kingdom. No doubt, on the morrow of the victory there would have been plenty of work for the headsman. Those who care to ponder over the unfulfilled contingencies of history may speculate on the line which a king of the popular house of York, and one greatly in need of money, would have been likely to take with regard to the new religious opinions and the property of the Church. But the prolongation of Richard's reign could hardly have made any material difference in the course of political events, because it could not have altered the main elements of the political situation. The feudal aristocracy had been decimated and ruined by the civil war. The middle class was not yet in a condition to aspire to political power. The monarchy stood alone, and, whatever the dynasty might be, a period of personal government was sure to ensue. It had, indeed, already commenced. Autocracy and its curious attendant, etiquette, were as fully developed under Edward IV. as under any one of the Tudors, though the series of dynastic revolutions was not exhausted till the factions were united and their feud brought to a close in the person of Henry VII.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'LES FRÈRES ZEMGANNO' is a peculiar and interesting book, in which the realistic method is appropriately and effectively employed. It is a monograph of a carefully limited subject, and the reader moves contentedly within limits so exclusive that one half forgets the outside world, and looks at life for a moment from the *saltimbanque* point of view. The opening chapters describe a migratory troupe of wrestlers, dancers, and jugglers—travelling in wagons; stopping to-day where the director thinks fit; setting up the scaffolding, pitching the tent, and giving an exhibition of their faculties, and to-morrow off for fresh ground.

"One day the troupe encamped in a steep-sided road in Berry; another day it had halted at the foot of a Calvary in Anjou; next they were picking up chestnuts in a chestnut forest in Limousin; then pushing their wagons up a steep road in Franche-Comté; and now travelling in Languedoc during the vintage, where the white oxen were crowned with vine-leaves. . . . This fashion of life gave them always a free space before them and the purest light of heaven around them; fresh air to breathe, scented with hay and sweet-brier, and the daily beauty of dawn and of twilight. They ate by the side of the hedge, they drank of the freshest springs, they rested on the wide-spread grass with the birds singing over their heads."

This is the pastoral prelude which introduces us to a world of acrobats, spring-boards, sawdust, and trapezes. Stepanida, the gipsy wife of Tommaso Bescapé, the director of the troupe, is a powerful sketch, and there is effective contrast between her half-savage passion for her youngest child, Nello, and the boy's joyous, petted existence. Tommaso and Stepanida die, so the troupe breaks up, and the two brothers, Nello and Gianni, begin their independent lives together. They are devotedly attached to each other, but Gianni is a silent enthusiast and Nello of the enjoying, unambitious temperament. It is hardly worth while to tell the whole story, and M. de Goncourt lacks *vraisemblance* in his description of one character; but we lay down the book with a sense of enlarged sympathies, and a hearty desire that M. de Goncourt's "system" might always find subjects as fit, and as much of the imaginative be mingled with his pitiless method.

Mr. Sturgis has given us in 'An Accomplished Gentleman' a story which makes rather more of a claim than his first book, and yet which hardly has the charm of 'John-a-Dreams.' It is ironical—always—except for a few pages, and the deepest touch of irony, perhaps, lies in the fact that all the important events in the story, the material of the plot, are brought about by the absurdities or the selfishness of his characters. A love-story gleams through the book like the old simile of a golden thread in a dark tapestry, the rest of woof and warp being not so much gloomy as factitious and a touch fantastical. The author is, perhaps, trying the different strings of his instrument, and by and by we shall have the full harmony; and it would be very unfair not to acknowledge the delicate, if somewhat cool and scientific, analysis of that stratum of character which he elects to represent in 'An Accomplished Gentleman.' We take it to be Mr. Hugo Deane who is personified in the title, a man who is essentially a fiction, without the gifts which alone might be thought to justify his assumptions, lying like a mildew on the lives of his family, and utilizing his wife's devotion as he would so many yards of list to quiet a noisy door. The description of his gentlemanly person and the luxurious comfort which at last surrounds him, through the admiration of a foolish woman, leaves a sort of dull ache in the reader's mind, which instinctively requires some retribution for him.

Mr. Sturgis may fairly say that he does not propose to redress the balance of eternal justice, and that since such people inhabit the world it is his vocation to describe them; but the number of lives like Mr. Deane's lived to the end without the retribution of consequences are few and exceptional, perhaps too exceptional to be a fit subject for art on a small scale. The scene of the story is laid in Venice, and the descriptions of the town and its sea and sky are charming; sunshine and moonlight illumine the pages, and there is the light touch of the man who, however strong his sensations may be, dreads above all things to be "heavy in hand." There is a piratical countess, a stout female devotee of art, a boyish, knowing young British peer, a foolish society man for whose marriage we predict no good, and then an enchanted island, a youthful divinity and a gallant wooer, whose failure (not with his divinity) works to his greater good, a friendly friend and a maestro full of good intent; these last and the Venetian setting make the charm of the book. There are many felicities of phrase, as when we hear of Mr. Bonamy Playdell "throwing back his coat and, as it were, baring his waistcoat to the breeze"; and some too elaborate similes, one of which tells us of a breeze on the Lido which "comes cheery and debonair as a courtier of Elizabeth"; also, when the author gets tired of his countess he drops her rather suddenly. Whatever criticisms we make

* 'Les Frères Zemganno. Par Edmond de Goncourt.' Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.

'An Accomplished Gentleman. By Julian Sturgis.' (Handy Volume Series.) New York: D. Appleton & Co.

on the book are, in fact, indications that we believe the author is preluding and running over the strings, and that with a little searching he will find his true note.

'Just One Day' is a lively little book, which will appeal to many mammas who, like the heroine of the book, persist in the attempt to combine fashionable dress, expensive housekeeping, social activity, and devotion to their husbands with the almost entire care of four unruly young children, with ungoverned tempers and tongues, and no training to good habits. We have no doubt that this story gives a true picture of the struggle to reconcile the incompatible and achieve the impossible in which it pleases large numbers of American women to waste their lives. The author is far from any active moralizing; perhaps she thinks that such futile incoherence "to be hated needs but to be seen." "So mote it be!"—but, on the contrary, we apprehend there will be room for a second volume in which political muddles and excitements will be added to the restless hurry of many Mrs. Mayburns' lives.

There can be no need of saying any word more concerning Mrs. Burnett's earlier stories, of which two are just published. "Miss Crespigny" is quite unnatural, but both that and "Theo" can be easily read and composedly flung away when finished.

Henry Gréville's stories follow one another so rapidly that the author's fertility becomes one of her most marked traits. 'Dosia,' 'Markof,' and 'Dournof' are all Russian stories with a certain amount of local color, but not dyed in grain. Of the three 'Dosia' is the liveliest and 'Markof' the most interesting. One would call 'Markof' a very clever story did it not leave on the mental palate a final flavor as of a *purée* of many French novels. This makes the earlier part of the story, which describes the hero's youth in a little Russian hamlet and his father's house, much the best. One gets side-lights as to the rural priesthood, and of the chances which mitigate the absolutism of the Seigneur. 'Dournof' gives us the biography of a rather weak-minded young man, who succeeds better in his worldly ambitions than in his matrimonial ventures, and who, finally, finding his home intolerable, kills himself on his first wife's tomb. Mme. Durant has some excellent qualifications for her work. She is a very good story-teller; the plot moves on with no hitch or pause, her personages talk and act with fluency, there are no troublesome insertions of philosophy or metaphysics, and she has the advantage of telling us something of a little-known country and society; but, with all due recognition of her good gifts, one may grow quite tired of various and vivacious action in a stratum about an inch deep.

'The Abbé's Temptation' is a specimen of M. Zola's powerful method, and also of its indiscriminate use. He describes the half child-like, half saint-like life of a lonely country priest, his devotion, his simplicity, and his *selfless* innocence. The author shows us the wide landscape, the homely vicarage, the wild bloom of wayside flowers, the dilapidated church, and with the same vivid detail gives the growth of a forbidden love and the stirrings of physical passion. The power of truth, the force of genius, run through it all, but since it has pleased Providence (or whatever represents that notion to M. Zola) to cover the human body with a non-transparent skin, is it art or is it surgery to expose the bleeding, quivering nerves and fibres of our lower mental organization? The exposure, the vivid presentation of social evils may lead to their cure, since "of knowledge cometh sympathy, and of sympathy help"; but to work among those less honorable portions of human nature which undoubtedly exist, brings the writer into close correlation with the Jesuit director.

'Rudder Grange' is an amusing extravaganza giving the adventures of a young couple in search of a house. High prices and poor accommodation send them to housekeeping in an old canal-boat. Hence the title. They finally settle in the country after many amusing adventures, the story of which is quite amusing, not too violently extravagant, and not vulgar at all.

In Mrs. Forrester's world all men, married or single, flirt and gamble; most of them swear at women who are certainly foolish, ignorant, and *exigeantes*. Fascinating scamps of both sexes pervade the best society and are received by the most careful hostesses. There is a great deal of promiscuous kissing, many fine clothes, and a general sense that in respectable households the wife is the victim and the husband an unrestrained *vaurien*, while in the less decorous the wife retaliates in kind, and that nothing better is to be looked for until people grow old and stupid, and contrive to be very well off. It is all poor stuff, but one can read it and is likely enough to finish it.

'Cousins' is something very near pure comedy. It is thoroughly English in material: Sir John Manners, the whimsical country baronet, with a passion for shooting; his charming wife, who is a model of domestic virtue, such as the British aristocracy is famous for; his sons and daughters and their cousins at Lutteridge, are all personages to be met with nowhere else than under the rule of the British constitution. But the treatment of this material is far more artistic in manner and method than the treatment it usually receives at the hands of British novelists. The book is a picture of English country-life simply. Its author's fancy is occupied solely with its subject, and is almost constantly held in check by the subject's natural requirements and capabilities, is never allowed to succumb to any temptation to transcend natural limits, and never to concern itself with anything other than the best representation possible. And as the author is a person of keen observation and simplicity of mind, it results that her picture is a distinct and true one. Her characters are very vivid and very real. They are of a sort that a well-bred Englishman meets in his daily life, and nothing in them is in any way distorted to excite the reader's sensibility. Any one fortunate enough to be invited to such a house as Wancote would be likely to meet just such nice girls and tolerable young men as Sir John's sons and daughters. And nothing happens to them which is not likely to happen to just such people. Moreover, the narrative of their rather uneventful life is not only real and vivid, but it is vivacious as well. Its tone is gentle, and at the same time fresh and of a charming humor; it is, in truth, sparkling, without in the least losing the undercurrent of seriousness which a true picture of any phase of life must have. So far as treatment goes, nothing could be more satisfactory from the point of view of literary art than such a picture so painted.

The difficulty with it is that when one has done his utmost with such material as is here treated his accomplishment is far from important. And, however perfect her manner and method, Mrs. Walford is prohibited by the very nature of her attempt from producing a really notable work of fiction. We all know the English upper class and its life, how unstirred by any deep emotions this is liable to be, how unlikely is anything really eventful to occur in it. It is, to be sure, not full of "hideousness and immense *ennui*," as the English middle-class life is accused of being; it is eminently free from the lower-class tendencies to "gin, beer, and fun," and is, perhaps, further from vulgarity than that of any other class in the world. But it is not to be denied that its elements are not romantic, and that its emblem will for a long time to come remain the gig of respectability. Consequently, any real representation of it, any truly artistic picture of it, will hardly be a dramatic picture, will hardly attract wide attention or awaken deep interest. This is why 'Mr. Smith,' which dealt with bright young girls of the English *bourgeoisie*, was so much more piquant and inspiriting than this its successor; and why 'Cousins' so perceptibly drags that after one has read two hundred pages the five-hundredth seems a long way off.

"It was not, in short, Sir John's hobby, and he could not understand it. Would his guest have talked of breech-loaders, muzzle-loaders, setters and pointers, he would not have found his companionship wearisome. Would Mrs. Cotterill have laid down for half an hour of the day her canvas-work, Lady Manners would have been better able to endure her smile. She was no needlewoman, Sir John no antiquarian; and thus all sympathy between them and their guests was wanting."

And it is for a similar reason that all sympathy of a quick kind between Mrs. Walford's personages and her readers is wanting. The nature of the subject is as important as the execution in any work of art. All the same, few persons, we imagine, who begin 'Cousins' will fail to finish it, or to notice what a clever and genuine contribution it is to the better class of English comedy.

The Lover's Tale. By Alfred Tennyson. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.)—This youthful poem of Tennyson's, written in his nineteenth year, is founded upon a tale of Boccaccio. The lover, Julian, relates the story of his childhood, passed in constant companionship with

'Just One Day.' New York: George R. Lockwood. 1879.
'Miss Crespigny: Theo. By Frances Hodgson Burnett.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. 1879.
'Markof, the Russian Violinist. By Henry Gréville. Translated from the French by Miss Helen Stanley.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.
'Dournof: A Russian Story. By Henry Gréville. Translated from the French by Miss Marie Stewart.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.
'Dosia: A Russian Story. From the French of Henry Gréville by Mary Neal Sherwood.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
'The Abbé's Temptation. By Emile Zola. Translated by John Stirling.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.
'Rudder Grange. By Frank R. Stockton.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879.
'Rhona: A Novel. By Mrs. Forrester, author of 'Viva,' 'Mignon,' etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co 1879.

'Cousins. By L. B. Walford, author of 'Mr. Smith.'' (Leisure-Hour Series.) New York: Henry Holt & Co.

his cousin and foster-sister, Camilla, who was of the same age and received the same care as himself. In his eighteenth year one summer day when they were wandering together, and he seems to have been on the point of declaring his love for her, she confided to him her love for his cousin Lionel. Julian goes into solitude, and there hears sounds of funeral and of wedding-bells and sees strange visions, such as haunt a half-distracted mind; at last the event, which has been before narrated in "The Golden Supper," comes, and is told by Julian's friend. This story is wrought out with care, and, although Tennyson in his preface calls it "boy's work," and apologizes for printing it on the ground that it has been widely pirated in imperfect form, it shows quite as clearly as the early work of other great poets his characteristic virtues as well as the faults from which he has freed himself—the thought overweighted by the phrase, the word-play of which he is now a master, but which in this poem reminds one of battledoor and shuttlecock, the passion diluting itself with too voluble language, and other blemishes easily discerned. The natural description especially suffers from the attempt to heighten beauty through mere words; compare, for example, the opening description of the Lover's Bay with that of the port in "Ulysses." But in spite of this excess and luxuriance that reminds one of "Endymion" sometimes, in spite of the need which the inexpert workman feels of looking as much to his management of his tools as to the work itself, the strain of melodious verse and the flash of poetic thought are frequent. Such a simile as this, for example, is more than promise:

> "There be some hearts so airily built, that they,
> They—when their love is wreck'd—if Love can wreck—
> On that sharp ridge of utmost doom ride highly
> Above the perilous seas of Change and Chance;
> Nay, more, hold out the lights of cheerfulness;
> As the tall ship, that many a dreary year
> Knit to some dismal sand-bank far at sea,
> All thro' the livelong hours of utter dark,
> Showers slanting light upon the dolorous wave.
> For me—what light, what gleam on those black ways
> Where Love could walk with banish'd Hope no more?"

Or this, where Julian is speaking of his whole life contracted into the compass of one past hour, so that he lives in order to remember that early time, and is indeed

> "A portion of the pleasant yesterday
> Thrust forward in to-day and out of place,"

and compares himself to the camel:

> "And like the all-enduring camel, driven
> Far from the diamond fountain by the palms,
> Who toils across the middle moon-lit nights,
> Or when the white heats of the blinding noons
> Beat from the concave sand; yet in him keeps
> A draught of that sweet fountain that he loves,
> To stay his feet from falling, and his spirit
> From bitterness of death."

Lines of music and of that almost dainty fitness of words so frequent with Tennyson abound, and careful readers will distinguish the germs of favorite passages in later poems. But the "Golden Supper" would have been as entire without this prelude of the "Lover's Tale." Piracy, which the curiosity of the public encouraged, made the publication necessary, for a poet is to be excused for wishing his boyish work to appear as good as it really was; but Tennyson has taught an excellent lesson, would any youthful aspirant heed it, in setting the standard of his work so high that he rejects this poem as unworthy.

The Botanical Text-Book. Sixth edition. Part I. Structural Botany, or Organography on the Basis of Morphology. To which is added the Principles of Taxonomy and Phytography, and a Glossary of Botanical Terms. By Asa Gray, LL.D., etc. (New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1879.)—It is twenty-one years since the fifth edition of Dr. Gray's 'Botanical Text-Book' was published, and forty-three since the appearance of his 'Elements of Botany'—a work which may be regarded as the precursor of the several editions of the 'Text-Book.' Each former edition, in its turn, has been regarded as the standard American treatise on structural botany, and it may be safely assumed that this volume will for many years rightfully hold the same position. The former editions included parts or chapters on "Vegetable Physiology and Anatomy," on "Cryptogamic Botany," and on the "Natural Orders of Flowering Plants"; but now these subjects are to be treated of in separate volumes, of which Professor Goodale is to write the first, Professor Farlow the second, and the last, we are told, it is rather the hope than the expectation that Dr. Gray himself may prepare.

Since the 'Botanical Text-Book' was last re-written the various departments of botanical science, as structural, physiological, cryptogamic, and even systematic botany as applied to flowering plants, have been studied more deeply, and correspondingly with more satisfactory results, than ever before. Up to the year 1859 structural botany was, in the main, only descriptive. In that year Darwin's 'Origin of Species' was given to the world; and from that time the teleological signification of form and structure has been studied with the closest scrutiny. Darwin's successive works on teleological morphology in vegetation, such as his 'Fertilization of Orchids,' 'Insectivorous Plants,' 'Climbing Plants,' 'Cross and Self Fertilization,' etc., have followed one another in quick succession, and have nowhere met with a more appreciative interest than they found with Dr. Gray. In preparing this new work on structural botany, therefore, the author has had to review the wonderful outcome of twenty years' labor, not only of Darwin, but of Sachs, Eichler, Von Mohl, Hermann Müller, and many others, and to treat carefully of subjects which were not even known by name twenty years ago. Though much of this new science is a part of physiology rather than of structural botany, and will be treated at greater length in Professor Goodale's volume, yet, as far as it concerns *form*, it claims a place in this book, and the reader will find in the fourth section of chapter vi. a masterly review of "Certain Adaptations of the Flower to the Act of Fertilization."

But it is in chapter x., on Phytography, that the author's pre-eminence as a systematist has enabled him to treat the subjects of nomenclature, glossology, and description, not so much in the way of a seeker after truth as in the manner of one who makes enduring laws. Even here, where he is entitled to speak in his own right, his modesty has induced him to introduce a quotation from an illustrious English systematist. This whole chapter is so excellent and so timely in these days, when a misapplication of the "laws of priority" has seemingly bewitched the reason of many naturalists, that it may well be commended to the careful perusal not only of students in universities and colleges, but of those who are considered masters in their respective branches of natural history.

A History of the Mass and its Ceremonies in the Eastern and Western Church. By Rev. John O'Brien, A.M., Professor of Sacred Liturgy in Mount St. Mary's College, Emmittsburg, Maryland. (New York: Catholic Publication Society Co. 1879.)—The arrangement of this book is somewhat peculiar. It does not present the history of the Mass as a whole in chronological order, but rather a separate history of each particular detail. It commences with a short dissertation on the different liturgies in use in the East and West at the present day. It then gives an account of the origin and meaning of the word Mass, and of its different kinds, such as "High Mass," "Low Mass," "Bridal Mass," etc. It then takes up the ceremony as it is ordinarily performed in Catholic churches, and beginning with the preparations of the priest for its celebration, it follows each step minutely down to the dismissal of the congregation, which is also the conclusion of the book. If a person who had never attended a Catholic church were to take his seat in one at the commencement of the ceremony, and at every step in its progress the priest were to stop and give a history of its origin, a full description of the instruments employed, an account of the different customs in different churches, and of the mystical meaning which the Church attaches to the minutest detail, the listener would come away with very much the same impression that is left by the perusal of this book.

One thing is throughout apparent, the unyielding rigor with which the Church insists upon a strict adherence to the minutest detail of her ritual, while at the same time with wonderful skill she dispenses with almost any part of it when she is satisfied that the object to be attained is worth the sacrifice. Thus, at the altar, when in actual celebration of the Mass, no one, "not even the highest dignitary," may have the head covered, but the missionaries in China are exempted from the rule because the Chinese regard it as "indecent for a man to appear in public with his head uncovered." In chap. xi., which treats of "Crucifixes and Crosses," is a passage to which we invite the attention of the publishers of 'Webster's Unabridged.' Under the word "Cross" the latter work says: "3. Triple cross; carried only before the pope." Prof. O'Brien says (p. 127):

> "Triple Cross.—A cross with three transverse bars or transoms is generally denominated the Papal cross; but this is nothing more than pure imagination; for no such cross ever existed among papal insignia and it exists nowhere to-day. When the Holy Father moves in procession nothing but the simplest kind of cross, viz., that with one transverse beam, is carried before him. . . . A triple cross, therefore, is a misconception, invented by painters, but never authorized by the Church."

As everything connected with Russia has at the present time special

interest, we will mention that the ceremonies of the Russian, generally called the Greek Church, are treated with nearly as much fulness of detail as those of the Roman Church. The author has, in one respect, precluded all criticism. He says that no attempt whatever has been made at what is usually called *style*, but only to give a plain and intelligible statement of facts. In this he has certainly succeeded, and the book will prove hardly less interesting to the general reader than to the members of his own Church.

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Six Prize Medals. Paris, 1878.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 17, 1879.

The Week.

THE death on the 10th inst. of a citizen of Memphis from undoubted yellow fever, followed speedily by three cases of the disease in another family, naturally produced a panic in the Southwest. There was a general rush of frightened people to get out of Memphis; the governor of Texas issued a proclamation quarantining the State against "Memphis and other points which may become infected"; quarantine was generally established at all points along the Mississippi River; the Cincinnati Board of Health at once appropriated $16,000 with which to "place the city in the best possible sanitary condition," and similar precautions were taken where similar need for them was felt; the Chicago grain and provision market declined largely—mess pork, for example, 9 per cent., short-ribs 13½ per cent., wheat 2½ to 3 per cent. Altogether, for a time the recurrence thus early of last year's epidemic was looked for. The panic has, however, subsided, and it seems clear that the danger, if not over, is at least postponed. There have so far been six cases, and no new ones since the 10th inst. The first is said to have arisen from fever-germs shaken out of clothing that had been packed away last year; but there is no explanation given of the others. Memphis is reported "as clean and in every respect in as good sanitary condition as any city in the Union." Nevertheless, aside from the circumstance that this is not perhaps high praise for it, Memphis and the Southern cities generally will probably be all the cleaner for this scare. The National Board of Health, through its executive committee at Washington, has issued a warning circular, advising the free use of disinfectants, pointing out the necessity of cleanliness, and containing instructions as to the proper method of conducting sanitary inspections. The Board, however, has not yet, so far as appears, committed any serious outrage upon the liberties of sovereign States.

Secretary Sherman is enjoying experiences the spectacle of which must make the public financiers of the European despots pale with envy. His estimates of the receipts for the fiscal year which has just expired have been exceeded by $9,500,000. The customs have brought in $4,500,000 more than he expected, which we consider a sign of growing prosperity, but which to many people means that the American people is once more plunging into a course of unbridled luxury, and contracting debts to the foreigner which will some day cause the sale of their houses and lands at auction for a mere trifle. The internal revenue has decreased by about $2,000,000, owing to the proposal in Congress to reduce the tax on those old friends of the politician, whiskey and tobacco, which caused the distillers and tobacconists to hang back from the market. Congress did reduce the tax on manufactured tobacco from twenty-four to sixteen cents a pound. There was a gain from miscellaneous sources of over $6,000,000, but this consisted largely of profits on the coinage of silver, and therefore as long as the silver lies in the Treasury is not realized in fact. In considering the increase in receipts, the net surplus for the year being $7,946,664, it must be remembered that the expenses were increased by the payment of $5,500,000 on account of the Fisheries Award, the same amount on account of arrears of pensions, and $1,800,000 paid to Captain Eads for the improvement of the mouth of the Mississippi. No government in the world can exhibit such a magnificent basis of credit as the taxpaying powers of this people supply, and, in fact, their credit has nothing to fear from any quarter but Congress itself.

Public announcement was made last week that the Government engineer inspecting the Mississippi jetties had certified the existence of a channel whose central depth between them is thirty feet, and at the head of the passes twenty-six feet. This means the completion of the great enterprise, though not, we suppose, the cessation of dredging to keep the channel clear of lumps; and it is still too early to settle the original question in dispute between Captain Eads and the U. S. Engineers about the re-formation of the bar and the consequent necessity of indefinitely extending the jetties. Should this contingency arise, however, we may hope that we shall already have found our profit in the temporary relief to commerce, as well as be able to overcome at a less expense any renewal of the obstacles to navigation. The moral and political consequences of Captain Eads's success are visible in a closer union of feeling and interest between the interior section and that lying along the lower Mississippi and the Gulf, and in numerous ill-considered schemes of internal improvement, partially staved off in Congress, in which the Mississippi occupies the first place, and in which Captain Eads is greatly relied upon. In other words, we might say that the jetties have contributed their share to the "nationalizing" of the Government, just as the yellow fever has done; the South, by a sort of poetic justice, being the chief agent in both cases.

The month has been further signalized (more strictly the event occurred on the last day of June) by the opening of the famous Sutro Tunnel, completed after unremitting labor for ten years. Intended as a drain-tunnel to the richest mines in the world, it surpasses in extent all other constructions of the same kind. It taps the deeper mines of the Comstock lode at the level of 1,750 feet, leaving a remaining depth of some 450 feet, which can now readily be pumped out. Prospecting of course can hereafter be carried 2,000 feet lower, and whether the lode will maintain its richness or the veins be found to "pinch out," as the expression is, is a question of some scientific interest, but of still greater "speculative" interest, involving as it does the duplication of values in the mines of the region. The water from the Savage and Hale & Norcross mines was an hour and twenty minutes in reaching its discharge at the mouth of the tunnel. The cost of this immense achievement of man over nature has been six millions of dollars, mostly furnished by German capitalists. Drainage is only one feature of its usefulness, though not the least. It had as an incidental object the exploration of the formations through which it passes, and this does not cease with the completion of the tunnel. But besides, it provides for the transportation of the ore removed from the mines to mills situated on the Carson River, at a cost sufficiently low to make deep mining profitable.

The steady growth of the New York *Times* in rationality and truthfulness on all Stalwart matters is, to those who remember its state of mind from 1876 even to last year, a most hopeful sign as regards the political outlook. Even two years ago it would have gone into the "exodus" movement with as much tender credulity and holy indignation as General Conway or Wendell Phillips, would have sworn that half a million suffering blacks were assembled on the banks of the Mississippi and prevented from embarking for Kansas by ferocious planters, and would have encouraged Conway and Phillips to go down, as they have threatened, with an army and navy and raise the blockade of the river. It now, however, evidently shares the belief of the judicious that there are no negroes prevented from leaving Mississippi for Kansas by any other agency than the too common one of inability to buy passage tickets, and it makes the following truthful statements with apparent indifference to the Ohio election:

"Reports from Kansas are not favorable to its revival [the exodus]. Some of the persons avowedly connected with it as promoters are not of the kind that commands implicit confidence. Ex-

pectations sedulously cultivated will not be realized. With all its resources Kansas is not the promised land, and its population are not inclined to give the impoverished new-comers a very hearty welcome. Nothing less than the persistent use of the forcing process will enable the professional philanthropists who have the matter in charge to renew the movement with anything like its original vigor. The humane interest awakened by representations conveying the idea of a genuine flight from cruelty, oppression, and want ceased the moment politics were found to be at the bottom of the movement. Honest sympathy with suffering refuses to be perverted for the purposes of vulgar partisanship."

This is hard on the exuberant Conway, but it is the gospel of politics. It is in talk of this kind—plain, wholesome truth—that salvation both for the black and white American lies. Surely the *Tribune* will be moved before long into imitating its rival, and will sell out the theatrical "properties" of Stalwartism, and lead a simple, sincere, and healthy life. The worst of Stalwartism is that it degrades a man to the savage level by the gross credulity it exacts of him. In telling lies one's self there is a certain play of mind which keeps the faculties awake and makes the perception of the beauty of truth still possible. But the effect of pretending to believe other people's lies is altogether besotting and benumbing. Nobody who has passed a year, for instance, swallowing the stories of a Louisiana Custom-house Republican probably ever feels the same again. He may grow tired of these tales and shut his ears to them, but he finds his appetite for ordinary provable facts gone, and his reluctance to reproduce them or reason from them all but unconquerable.

The canvass in neither Maine nor Ohio has reached anything like excitement as yet. In both States the Republicans profess confidence of success. In Maine the Democrats, after a futile attack upon Mr. Davis's "war record," appear to have fallen back upon his obscurity as a statesman. It is asserted that Governor Garcelon forced his nomination upon them, and perhaps this is the reason for the defection of the Democratic *Belfast Journal*, the accession of whose "able and brilliant editor" the *Maine State Press* "hails with unaffected delight." The reason assigned, however, is the Democratic financial unsoundness. In Ohio the two parties have agreed to wait until the 20th of next month before firing the first salvo of campaign artillery. Meantime "Tom" Ewing is to deliver some speeches in Maine, probably to the end of persuading the Greenbackers; and during his absence it is intimated in Democratic circles that "Charley" Foster will devote himself to electioneering of the Colfax sort—a method said to consist in chucking babies under the chin and acquiring an encyclopædic knowledge of voters' given names. Secretary Sherman, however, who is now on his way to Maine, is already announced to deliver some speeches in Ohio after the ball has been fairly opened, and possibly Senator Blaine may be heard from. Mr. Conkling's rumored declination of an active part in the campaign is perhaps accounted for by the latter circumstance.

The Washington correspondent of one of the Stalwart papers reports an interview with "Zach" Chandler, which, if correctly given, makes us fear that there will be rough work in the Senate yet if this statesman does not have his way, and it goes far to account for his bold and defiant attitude towards Jeff. Davis, which many ill-informed people thought so singular. He says that twenty years ago he employed Heenan's trainer to give him boxing lessons for six months, "became an adept in the use of his fists, and got up a first-class muscle, *which he has preserved to this day.*" The italics are ours. "No person," he says, "in the Senate suspects that he is a boxer, and that he can strike a blow of iron," but "if he is ever assailed his assailant will discover that he can defend himself without resorting to weapons." The reporter then by request felt his muscle, and "found it hard as iron, and of enormous size." We shall only observe on all this that it was a dastardly thing to sit a whole session in the Senate with the Brigadiers without letting them know that he was a boxer, and could deal these frightful blows. The Brigadiers thought him an elderly politician like some of themselves, saturated with whiskey and tobacco-juice, and utterly out of condition. They might, consequently, have been readily betrayed into incautious expressions which might have brought on them a fatal blow from his terrible arm. The crowned heads of Europe, too, who have listened with indifference to his scathing attacks on their system of government, had they known that he could knock any male monarch of them out of time in a single round, would have caused their ministers plenipotentiary to take notes of everything he said, and would even have tried to laugh over his pot-house "stories."

The Legislature of this State at its last session passed an act reducing the legal rate of interest from seven to six per cent. The penalties for usury were left as they stood in the Revised Statutes, and a question has been raised what the effect of the change is. The Mutual Life Insurance Company has published a legal opinion furnished by its solicitor, Mr. O. H. Palmer, which shows that the Legislature has introduced great confusion into the subject. The act just passed follows the section of the Revised Statutes relating to interest, merely changing the rate, but provides that no contract made before "the passage of this act" shall be affected by it. By another section it is provided that the act "shall take effect on the first day of January, 1880." The act was passed, of course, on the day it was signed by the Governor; and the first question arising under it is, What is the effect of the law on contracts between the date of passage and January 1, 1880? The answer seems to be that loans at seven per cent. may still be made until that date. The second question is, What penalties, if any, exist for the violation of this law? The penalties in the existing law are all against the taking of interest above 7 per cent., and the only change made is in the *rate*. The penalties were all made to attach to the old rate, and the question is whether the change in the rate changes the penal enactment. The statute as it now stands seems to be open to this singular interpretation, that after January 1, 1880, the legal rate of interest will be 6 per cent., but that there will be no penalty for usury unless more than 7 is charged. That is, any rate between 6 and 7 is illegal, while at the same time no punishment for taking it will be enforceable. But, further than this, Mr. Palmer expresses a doubt whether under the recent law there is anything left of the penalties for usury at all. The State Constitution provides that "no act shall be passed which shall provide that any existing law, or any part thereof, shall be made or deemed a part of said act, or which shall enact that any existing law, or any part thereof, shall be applicable except by inserting it in said act." From this it might appear that the penalties now in force cannot, by implication, be made applicable to the new interest law. But Attorney-General Schoonmaker regards the act as an amendment of a single section of the older enactment, and this section is explicitly quoted.

Tammany Hall has found an unexpected ally in the Rev. Howard Crosby, who is betrayed into saying that Governor Robinson has in the pardon of a recent criminal "thwarted every effort of the Society for the Prevention of Crime at securing the good order of the city." This is a grave charge, and we trust his Tammany opponents will admit it to be graver than anything they have yet been able to bring against Governor Robinson. Mr. "Jake" Berry undoubtedly maintained a very disreputable variety theatre in this city, and managed to exasperate the Society for the Prevention of Crime by his repeated evasions of their attempts to suppress him. But the daily papers show apparently ample reason why he should be considered to have by this time expiated his offence. Both the judge who sentenced and the district-attorney who prosecuted him favored his discharge, and there were humanitarian reasons also which Dr. Crosby may not have had in mind when he denounced the offender's pardon. Now, Tammany does not hate Governor Robinson for himself, for his vetoes of Tammany legislation, and his supposed reliance upon the rural democracy, so much as for his personal and political intimacy with Mr. Tilden. Neither does the

Commercial Advertiser. Both Mr. Kelly and the machine Republicans of this city are now engaged in an anxious effort to prevent the renomination of Governor Robinson, which to them would mean Mr. Tilden's ascendency in the State, and a consequent acceleration of his "boom." Against this consummation Dr. Crosby has a perfect right, of course, to labor, and we are far from criticising the wisdom of such procedure; but if his intention is otherwise, it must be a matter of surprise and chagrin to him that his apparently hasty criticism of Governor Robinson has been so profoundly satisfactory to Tammany Hall.

Another week of dulness has succeeded in the financial markets, excepting that for U. S. bonds and other strictly investment securities, which were active and strong by reason of the reinvestment of July disbursements. The Secretary of the Treasury gave notice that he will prepay without rebate all 10-40s falling due on the 18th and 21st inst., the total amounting to $184,556,300. Holders of these bonds, by promptly sending them to Washington, will therefore get full interest up to their respective dates. Silver in London ruled at 51¼*d.* to 51⅜*d.* per ounce. Here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week was about $0.8759. The Treasury has resumed its weekly purchases of silver bullion for the Philadelphia mint. As to the general drift of speculation in "the Street," there is but little to be said, except that the volume of business keeps well up to the average, and that prices as a rule are well supported. Some of the leading operators who have been absent at the watering-places have returned to the city, and their presence has been signalized by increasing activity in certain lines of stocks, more especially the grain-carriers of the Northwest, the future business of which, it is believed, is assured under the improving prospects of the harvest. In mercantile circles, as usual "between seasons," there is a very perceptible lull, but on every hand the feeling, as regards the autumn trade, is very hopeful.

It appears that the story of the existence of a political codicil to the will of the late Prince Imperial was true. M. Rouher brought the will back with him to Paris, and it was read at a select meeting of the Bonapartists. The codicil bequeaths the Bonapartist claim to Prince Victor, the son of Prince Napoleon, passing over his father, and disregarding the Imperial law of succession in a way which has drawn forth many comments on the testator's ignorance or his insouciance. Of course the party cannot abide by this disposition of their cause—a fact which M. Rouher recognized by announcing his withdrawal from public life, as he cannot act with Prince Napoleon. A deputation communicated the contents of the will to the Prince, and acknowledged him as the head of the party, but did not succeed in extracting anything from him beyond an acknowledgment of their courtesy, and to this day he refuses to say whether he will become a Claimant or not. In fact, it is generally believed that he will make no declaration of his intentions, knowing that if he did so he would be promptly expelled from France, and there is nothing he dreads more than exile. This puts the party in a wretched position, but one from which there is apparently no escape so long as Prince Napoleon lives.

Full accounts of the manner of the young Prince's death have been received, and it seems to have been a wretched business. He was present in the British camp simply as a guest, but with every indulgence necessary to enable him to see the war, and he went about seeing it in a most hair-brained spirit. The reconnoissance in which he met his death he undertook at his own desire, and Lieutenant Carey, who accompanied him, was directed not to interfere with him in any way. He started with a small escort of six men, rode off ten miles into the enemy's country, and dismounted, unsaddled, and rested in a place surrounded by thickets; remained over an hour, so that the Zulus had ample time to see him and collect a party to attack him; started for home at his own pleasure; was fired on as he was mounting, and his frightened horse getting away from him, he was speedily overtaken and slain. The affair was, of course, a most mortifying one to the British officers on the spot, and as somebody had to be blamed, Lieutenant Carey and the escort have been selected for that purpose, because they did not see that the Prince was safely mounted or else return to die with him as soon as they perceived he had fallen —for death was certain had they stayed. Carey does not appear to have comported himself very coolly or heroically, but he probably behaved as ninety-nine men out of a hundred would have done under like circumstances, though not as people who were not there think they would have done. A small party bolting from an ambuscade does not rally readily, and is seldom cool; but then nearly everybody who reads about an ambuscade thinks he himself would have faced about and performed prodigies of valor had he been on the spot, and poor Carey will probably have no defender. There are, however, signs in the English press of shame over the young man's having been allowed to go there at all. The three men of the escort who were killed were as recklessly sacrificed to enable the Prince to play his political game as the dead who died at Saarbrück in 1870. This trip to Zululand was simply an adventure intended to dazzle the French public, and it is not creditable to the British army to have been mixed up in it. The Prince was buried with much military and other parade.

The sensation in England over his death, and the semi-official honors paid to his remains, naturally cause more or less annoyance to the French Republicans, who cannot be expected to see nothing in it but expressions of sympathy with a bereaved mother and sorrow for a young man who fell under the British flag. It was the British alliance which first gave respectability to the perpetrator of the *Coup d'état*, and it is unfortunate but true that the demonstrations in England connected with the Prince's death have given a sort of revival to Bonapartism. The Queen has been most devoted in her attentions to the ex-Empress, and they are doubtless a natural expression of sympathy with a sorrowing woman on the part of a woman who has known much sorrow; but they none the less grate a little on the feelings of those whose brothers and fathers and sons fell in heaps at Gravelotte and Sedan, in a war undertaken at the Empress's instigation for the simple purpose of giving the youth who has just perished a better chance of succeeding his father.

The session of Parliament in England is drawing to a close, for the Chancellor of the Exchequer has made the usual announcement in the House of Commons as to the measures he will attempt to pass and those he will abandon. The only one of importance actually pending, however, is the bill creating a new university in Ireland on the model of the London University, an account of which we gave some weeks ago. The dissolution, it is now acknowledged, will come this fall, and although the Government is probably better prepared to meet the elections than it was before the Afghan war closed, the prospect is not bright. The Cyprus venture is an admitted failure; Lord Carnarvon called attention once more the other day to the indefinite postponement of the reforms in Asia Minor, which the Convention with Turkey provided should be made "without delay," and Lord Salisbury had nothing to answer except that they had done the best they could; the Zulu war is not over, and is full of terrible possibilities, and has revealed the collapse of the British army under the present system of recruitment, which nobody now denies; and though last, not least, Turkey is slowly drifting to ruin, Russia looking on and being now fully aware of the emptiness of the threats with which Lord Beaconsfield stayed her progress last year. Mr. Forster has made an attempt to give the Liberal programme in case of Liberal success. He said they would give household suffrage to the counties as well as to the boroughs; would make a redistribution of representation; they would reform the county government; they would seek to relieve the farmers by facilitating the legal transfer of land, and apply the law of commercial contract to the relation of landlord and tenant, and restrict gamekeeping. These are not bad bids, as the times go.

WHAT THE WAR SETTLED WITH REGARD TO "STATE RIGHTS."

WE drew attention some weeks ago to the remarkable extent to which the opinions of the politicians of both parties with regard to the powers of the General Government are affected by the politicians' own relation to the General Government. When they are in opposition, and can get nothing from it either for themselves or their constituencies, they are very apt to be champions of "the reserved powers" of the States. When they are in power, on the other hand, or are seeking some grateful application of Federal funds, there is hardly any length to which they are not prepared to go in defence of "the implied powers" of the United States. In fact, the principle on which they appear to interpret the United States Constitution is that the Federal Government is a very strong government when it is in the right hands, but that when the wicked men get hold of it it is little better than a temporary league. There is, consequently, not much to be learned from the late debates in Congress as to the real position of either party with regard to the line between national and State sovereignty. We gave some illustrations of this in the article referred to. We may here add another which is more striking than any of those we mentioned. The Republican Convention at Chicago in 1860, which nominated Abraham Lincoln, put this plank in their platform, which now appears in other terms in all the Democratic platforms of our own day:

"That the maintenance inviolate of the rights of the States, and especially the right of each State to order and control its own domestic institutions according to its own judgment exclusively, is essential to that balance of powers on which the perfection and endurance of our political fabric depend; and we denounce the lawless invasion by armed force of the soil of any State or Territory, no matter under what pretext, as among the gravest of crimes."

Should the Democrats get possession of the Government within the next ten years, and begin to use the various powers with which the Republicans have armed it since 1860, for the realization of their own political ideals, there can be little doubt we shall see the Republican party planted solidly once more on the ground of 1860. Nor do we think there is anything to be regretted in this apparent inconsistency. On the contrary, the readiness with which both parties fall into it is perhaps one of the most useful of all the safeguards of our political system. The party in possession of the Government is always disposed to stretch its powers to their last limits, and to disregard or belittle all checks or restraints in the use of them. It is, therefore, part, and a very important part, of the business of the Opposition to resist this tendency, and to insist on strict construction, and it is not in human nature for it to base its resistance upon purely selfish grounds. It naturally supports it with a theory of constitutional interpretation and with the argument of danger to the public liberties, and in so far as it forces the majority to pause and deny itself, it does good service.

What we wish more particularly to point out to-day, however, as in some sense supplemental to our article of June 26, is the exceeding vagueness of the notions apparently entertained by a great many Republican writers and orators of the Stalwart school as to the effect of the war on State rights. *Harper's Weekly*, for instance, seldom refers to State rights except as a "pestilent heresy" or noxious doctrine, which the war is supposed to have killed, and in the eyes of all right-minded people did kill, but which the Democrats are trying to resuscitate. Now, it so happens that the "State rights" which the war killed are not the State rights which are now under discussion, and have not, so far as we have observed, been revived by any Democratic orator of prominence or by any Democratic platform. The State-rights theory which brought on the war, and which the war did undoubtedly dispose of, was the theory that a State has a right to secede from the Union at its pleasure, and *à fortiori* to refuse to permit the execution within its limits of any Federal law to which it objects. This was the old ante-bellum State rights which the Southern Democrats were always preaching and finally took up arms to enforce. To call this doctrine "pestilent" is to use a mild term. It was simply anarchical, and gave the Constitution the air of a farce. It was impossible, too, to put it down or extirpate it by argument. There was only one way to get rid of it, and that was a resort to force. The war reduced it to the rank of a rather foolish speculative opinion, like the opinion that a man would be justified in killing his father when he gets old, or ought, if he is poor, to have a house rent-free from Mr. Astor. Opinions of this sort are held by large numbers of people, but they are not considered dangerous, or worth notice by the law, because the holders are pretty sure not to try to put them into execution. In fact, the old "State rights" occupy now with us exactly the same place as the right of revolution. Everybody believes that he has the right to revolt if the government he lives under becomes intolerable to him; but nobody considers this a dangerous doctrine as long as there are police and courts. Everybody, too, believes that a State has the right to leave the Union if it can, under certain contingencies; but the war has made the exercise of this right so difficult, and put the contingency which would justify an attempt to exercise it so far off, that it has no practical importance. Discussion of it is hardly more serious or profitable than discussion of "the things that might have been."

The Republican writers and orators of whom we have spoken, however, by a curious bit of mental confusion, treat all denials of Federal power and all attempts to restrict it through interpretation of the Constitution, as assertions of the old right of secession and nullification. They are apparently under the impression that arguing or legislating about a strict construction of a section or clause of the Constitution is necessarily indicative of a desire or intention to overturn the Constitution, and that anybody who talks of "State sovereignty" means thereby to declare that each State is completely and exclusively sovereign; which is absurd and really inexcusable. All Americans are taught in their school-days the nature of the arrangement by which the Federal Government was set up. Each State parted with a portion of its sovereignty and reserved the rest, which constitutes its "rights," and there is nothing dangerous, disreputable, or "pestilential" about them, any more than about a man's right to equal taxation, or to the ordering of his own home. The line which separates the rights of the States from those of the Union, however, as laid down in the Constitution, was somewhat vague. No human ingenuity could make it otherwise. As Chief-Justice Marshall said:

"The Constitution unavoidably deals in general language. It did not suit the purposes of the people in framing this great charter of our liberties to provide for minute specifications of its powers, or to declare the means by which those powers should be carried into execution. It was foreseen that this would be a perilous and difficult, if not an impracticable, task. The instrument was not intended to provide merely for the exigencies of a few years, but was to endure through a long lapse of ages, the events of which were locked up in the inscrutable purposes of Providence."

No mode has been provided by which the interpretation of the Constitution can be protected against those differences of opinion which attend the interpretation of every human convention under which conflicting interests arise. All that can be done is to interpret it reasonably, or, as Judge Story says, "by the aid of maxims which have found their way not only into judicial discussions, but into the business of common life, as founded in common sense and common convenience."

As the nation grows and as its affairs multiply, new applications of the Constitution will constantly be called for; and as often as they are called for, the old dispute as to where the State sovereignty ends and where the national sovereignty begins will break out afresh. There is nothing hurtful in this; on the contrary, this is the proper way of settling in every generation where the line lies. There is, therefore, nothing "pestilential" in contending for a strict construction of the Constitution, or a construction restrictive of Federal powers, any more than for a liberal construction. The war did not decide that strict constructionists were public enemies, or that any view of State rights which told against the exercise of any

power by the Federal Government which the party in office thought useful, was dangerous to the public peace. It simply relegated the right of secession to the limbo of speculation and added certain amendments to the Constitution. But it did not, as some of us seem to imagine, change the rules by which the Constitution is to be interpreted. These remain just what they were before the war, and they furnish now, as before the war, materials for controversy which is in all ways healthy, and promises, we are glad to say, to last as long as the Constitution lasts.

FRENCH ACCEPTANCE OF CÆSARISM.

THERE is still a good deal of doubt expressed in the European papers outside France as to the possible effects of Prince Napoleon's death on the fortunes of the Bonapartists. Paul de Cassagnac declares that Gambetta, whom he admits to be a sagacious man, exclaimed, on hearing the news, that the Republicans "had lost their counterpoise," and the story, if not authentic, is probable. It means, if true, that the fear of a Bonapartist revival or reaction helped to strengthen the moderate wing of the Republican party, and that this fear removed, the Radicals of the Clemenceau school would be encouraged and gain ground which the moderate Republic cannot afford to lose. There is no doubt that there is a considerable body of its supporters which it has not carried with it in the Ferry Education Bills, and which the execution of these measures will be very apt to alienate. It may or not be true—it probably is true, if we may judge from the experience of Belgium—that the retention by the priests of a powerful hold on the schools of the country would cause the next generation to be brought up in greater or less hostility not exactly to the Republic, but to the ideas on which the Republic must rest if it is to endure. The Catholic clergy never relished either the social or the political ideal of the Republicans, and since the growth of Ultramontanism they are less likely to relish it than ever, and it is not in human nature for them to refrain from communicating their dislike of it in a thousand subtle ways to the children whom they teach.

Unfortunately, however, it does not seem as if the bulk of the French people, certainly the bulk of the middle classes, were as fully alive to the danger as the politicians. In fact, it would seem as if the Catholic clergy and Catholic monks and nuns were as yet, in spite of all their faults, to most French parents the fittest persons to teach their children. The French public, even the sceptical portion of it, has apparently not as yet got used to the idea of lay instruction for youth, and refuses to believe in its moral safety, so that the Republicans in attacking the teaching orders of the Church touch the prejudices of a very large body of persons who do not ordinarily give much attention to politics, and like or dislike a government rather by reference to its influence on their domestic comfort than to its fundamental principles or its foreign policy. Consequently the Republic is just now, before it is really a year old, for it was only in October last that its existence was assured, weakening its hold on the popular confidence.

This hold has not yet grown strong enough, or lasted long enough, to cause people who dislike the present policy of the Cabinet to look for relief in the regular constitutional way through a change of ministry. In fact, it is doubtful whether the expectation of relief in that way has ever yet obtained a secure lodgment in the political department of the average Frenchman's brain. He is still inclined to fancy that when things are going wrong they must be righted by a change in the form of the government; or, in other words, by a revolution. Many foreign friends as well as enemies of the Republic are now disposed to believe that he is beginning to tire a little of the Republic, and would not be sorry to see it go if something else offered itself in its place that would give him a quiet life. The thing to which he turns when he is dissatisfied with monarchy is the Republic, and so also when he is dissatisfied with the Republic it is feared that he will turn to monarchy, and the kind of monarchy he most easily takes to is, say these critics, not exactly Bonapartism but Cæsarism. To use the words of one of them, the London *Economist:*

"The Imperialist party in France is a considerable one, with a great idea for its creed. That idea is the notion that a large and democratic community, devoted to the theory of equality, compelled by circumstances to remain permanently armed, and exposed to serious social dangers, requires a stronger and simpler instrument to express its will than a large public meeting; that it must, in fact, speak and act through a representative individual and not through a representative assembly. It must both give and receive orders as they are given and received in an army or a ship, and must, therefore, in the common interest, delegate immense powers to an individual, who, for the sake of dignity in Europe, and of the permanence essential to all useful authority, may as well be called emperor as dictator. The desire for such a man is very strong in France, and if the Republic became paralyzed, or if it assailed or threatened the passion of property, or the passion of religion, might become temporarily irresistible."

Now, it may be quite true that this idea is powerful in the French mind, but its force as an agency in shaping events at any particular crisis can only be estimated through historical experience, and this certainly does not entitle it to great weight in making a forecast of the political future of France just now. As a matter of fact, however strong the liking of Frenchmen for a Cæsar may be, they have never either set one up or accepted one after he had set himself up, when any other alternative presented itself. The most prominent fact in French post-revolutionary history is the power of the army, and the only certain conclusion we can draw from it as to the workings of the French political mind is that Frenchmen believe the man who commands the army to be irresistible. They accepted the first Bonaparte as a dictator when he announced himself as such with the army at his back, and they accepted the second Napoleon under like circumstances. The plébiscites by which the seizure and transformation of the Government in these two cases were condoned cannot be taken as an expression of French opinion, for the reason, as we pointed out a fortnight ago, that no choice was open to the voters. If they had all voted No the dictator would not have resigned, and if he had resigned he would have been followed by anarchy. All French revolutions have been essentially an application of the force test to the existing Government, and as soon as it was found not to possess the needful overwhelming physical might no friends remained to it.

There is no good ground for believing that any pretender has a chance in France who is not able in some way to obtain control of the army, and the Republicans have recognized the fact that their great danger lies on this side by the pains they have taken to weed the army of Bonapartist generals. If by any accident or combination of accidents—and any such combination becomes every year less and less probable—the army should escape from the control of the Republican executive, an appeal would very probably be made to the Imperialist idea with success, but only on the principle "Heads I win, tails you lose." It would be sure of success if nothing else offered, and nothing else would offer. No Cæsar presents himself to the people as the competitor of anybody; he presents himself after he has crushed all competitors. In truth, all that can be said of the attitude of opinion in France towards Cæsarism might be said of it anywhere under similar conditions. The desire for "a strong man," and "a steady hand at the helm," shows itself in every country when there is such an uprooting of political traditions that the form of the government has become a subject of debate. It has shown itself even here, owing to the weakening of the Constitution at the South, and would show itself rapidly in England if Parliament had lost its authority. Cromwell had just as little difficulty as Bonaparte in taking possession of absolute power. Of course the part absolutism and centralization have played in French history makes the tendency to accept accomplished facts much stronger among Frenchmen than among other people, as they have really lost the very notion of a *de-jure* government; but it is none the less true that if the Republicans show themselves ready to use the army vigorously to repel opposition, they will never find the Imperialist idea searching for a dictator, or dictators offering themselves for popular acceptance. We must, too, in judging of the possibilities of French politics make some allowance for the influence of the experience and education the country has passed

through since 1849. Much of the reasoning about the future of France takes no account of this whatever, and treats the various factors in the problem as if they remained the same as thirty years ago. But the agitation which followed the 16th of May, 1878, revealed clearly the fact—the testimony on this point was overwhelming—that a new political force had made its appearance on French soil, to which we can give no better name than an intelligent shame about trying frequent experiments in government. That this now powerfully influences French opinion there is no doubt, and the Republic gets the benefit of it for the present.

THE LATE PRINCE IMPERIAL.

PARIS, June 30.

I REMEMBER as if it were yesterday the day when the unfortunate young Prince who has just fallen under the hand of the Zulus was born in the Tuileries. His birth nearly cost his mother her life. The Senate, the Council of State, the great dignitaries of the court were all assembled at the Tuileries when the guns of the Invalides announced to Paris that a new "Roi de Rome" had come into the world. The young Prince was delicate in his childhood and in his youth. He was educated with much care and surrounded with much pomp. Napoleon III. thought it necessary to surround his son with much prestige. While he himself often went out with a friend, General Fleury or another, in his phaeton, driving his own horses, the "little Prince," as he was always called by the people, never went out without a military escort and without equerries. How many times did I not see the brilliant troop of horsemen with the fine state carriage, and looked in the midst of the dust and the uniforms for the little, pale, delicate, and thoughtful face of the boy who was condemned to all this splendor. He could not enter the Tuileries nor leave them without hearing the beating of drums. He knew that the Pope was his godfather; he played with all the great *cordons* of the European kings and emperors as a child plays with the gown of a doll. I was told that one day, when the Queen of Holland was at the palace, he went out for a drive with the little Prince Alexander, who has now become the heir-apparent of the Kingdom of the Netherlands since the recent death of the Prince of Orange. The guard, as usual, was out; the soldiers presented arms, the drums were beating. The young Dutch Prince touched his cap; the "petit Prince," who was quite a child then, turned to him and said, "This is not for you, it is for me," and bowed.

Little was known outside of the Tuileries of the education of the child. The mystery of etiquette surrounded him on all sides. It was vaguely known that the young Prince was not strong, that he underwent a malady of long duration. It was said that riding had been the cause of it, as he sometimes rode with his father in the Bois de Boulogne. That he was delicate then was quite clear; he had a very fine but very pale complexion. He grew stronger with time, and his education began in earnest. His preceptor was a M. Filon, the learned son of a learned father, who belongs to the French University. His governor was General Frossard, a very honorable but very stern man, an officer of artillery, who had been for some time at the head of the Polytechnic School. The Prince did not attend any lectures in the colleges, but the *devoirs* were sent to him from the Lycée Fontanes. He made the versions and themes at home, and his *devoirs* were sent to the Lycée to be compared with those of the other boys. It is probable that the comparison was not always in his favor; his intelligence was not of the Parisian, quicksilver sort; his illness and his solitary life had been real disadvantages.

He was from childhood a soldier; his portrait was sold in the somewhat ludicrous uniform of a guardsman, with a miniature gun in his hand and a gigantic *bonnet à poil*. His promotion was rapid; he held reviews. I remember his reviewing, by the side of his father, on the Place Vendôme, opposite the famous column, the regiments of the Army of Italy coming from Magenta and Solferino. Such men as Canrobert, Pélissier, and MacMahon were his courtiers. He had few comrades—young Conneau, the son of Dr. Conneau, who had helped his father to escape from the prison of Ham; young Fleury, the son of the general who was the most intimate friend and adviser of the Emperor.

Napoleon felt that the rule of his son could not be of the same nature as his own. He was a fatalist; he would take a calm survey of his own career. He knew how he had made the *Coup d'état*, how the *Coup d'état* had given its color to all his reign. He had been, he was, a dictator: he was obliged to strike terror; he dreamed of something better for his son. *He* was to be a liberal, a constitutional emperor; *he* would give liberty to France as well as glory. Alas! what becomes of such dreams? There is a terrible logic in the affairs of the world. Many an adventurer who is trying to make a fortune by foul means thinks that he will leave this fortune to spotless and virtuous children. There is in the paternal and maternal instinct a purity which is not easily destroyed even among the most profligate and the most corrupt.

There is little doubt that the moving force in Napoleon's mind during the latter part of his reign was the desire to leave to his son a firm tenure of power. He reformed the constitution of the empire in order that his successor should hold the position of a liberal sovereign; he plunged into the German war in order to win for the young Prince, who was to share the triumphs of the campaign, the affection of the army. He had himself given Savoy and Nice to France; the "petit Prince" would perhaps give to France the provinces of the Rhine. The "innocent cause of the war" was sent to Saarbrücken, and among the first telegrams of the campaign one is well remembered which described the young Prince before Saarbrücken picking up spent balls on the ground. Then came other telegrams, which have since been made public, one among the others: "We start for Montmédy. (Signed) Filon." The Prince disappeared soon in the great turmoil of the campaign, and we did not hear of him till he arrived in England, where he remained first at Hastings. The Empress joined him there. It was at Hastings that the young Prince was accosted on the beach by the famous Régnier, who asked him for his photograph. It is certain that Régnier entered Metz with the permission of the Germans, and showed to Bazaine this photograph signed by the young Prince, as well as a letter of a person who holds the position of lady-in-waiting near the Empress.

The "little Prince" had fallen from high. He could hardly understand at his age the events through which he had passed. He found himself an exile in England; it must be said to his credit that misfortune gave him an early maturity. After the death of his father he had become the only support and the only hope of one who, though she had not been born for the throne, has shown since her misfortunes that she was not unworthy of it. Those only who have lived in exile can well understand the life which the young Prince led at Chiselhurst. Did he fully appreciate the vanity of all the hope which was still offered to him by interested, ambitious, and needy partisans; did he measure the inanity of his own efforts; did he understand the events which were passing across the Channel, in the country which he considered still as his own? Exiles draw round them in their little courts what is best and what is worst in humanity; the hand of the police is often offered to them as the hand of friendship; their life becomes contracted, it is spent in frivolous correspondence, in useless plans, in imaginary constructions of impossible events. Hospitality itself becomes a deceit; and the respects paid by an old aristocracy are sometimes made to cover the most frigid interest, if not hostile sentiments. It is the honor and pride of England to offer her hospitality to all the great misfortunes as well as to all the glories of the world; but it requires more philosophy than can be found in the heart of a youth to fathom all the sentiments which are covered by this hospitality.

The "little Prince" became popular; he entered the military school at Woolwich, and went through all his duties with a modest seriousness which was much to his credit. In English society he made for himself an excellent position; he was described to me by some English friends as a quiet, serious, virtuous young man; a good son, a good friend. When the war broke out in the East he thought that he had found an opportunity for learning the art in which a prince, a Bonaparte, ought to be proficient. He did not wish, however, to give offence to any European power; he could hardly fight with the Russians without giving offence to England; he waited, therefore, till Austria was allowed by the Treaty of Berlin to enter Bosnia and Herzegovina, and he asked permission to join the Austrian army of occupation. This permission was not granted to him; very wisely, in my opinion, the Emperor of Austria told the young Prince that he could not accept his services. The campaign was conducted with much rapidity by the Austrians, and was not very eventful.

The Prince thought then of going to Afghanistan; why this new plan did not succeed I could not say with any degree of exactitude. It seems to me probable that the French advisers of the Prince, such as M. Rouher, were afraid at the time that eventually there might be difficulties in Afghanistan and in Central Asia between England and Russia, and they desired the Prince to remain neutral between these two Powers. The Emperor of Russia had always shown some personal sympathy for the young son of Napoleon III. The heir of the Bonapartes was, in fact, barred in every direction; he represented in a certain sense France, or

thought he represented it, and he could not make enemies for the country which it might be his fate to govern. He was, so to speak, an outlaw in politics; if he wished to win his spurs in a war, he was perforce condemned to choose such unworthy enemies as the Zulus. He could not fight against any civilized nation.

I cannot, I must say, condemn the sentiment which prompted him to ask permission to join the English army at the Cape; it was a chivalrous sentiment, a sentiment of gratitude towards the country which had received him in his misfortunes, where he had received his military education, where he had many friends. Nobody will probably ever well know what other feelings were mixed up with this. I doubt myself if there was much ambition, much desire to be noticed for brave deeds in France; this sentiment, though it would have been natural and honorable, was probably not the strongest in a young heart. It was certainly a strange play of fortune to see a young Prince Bonaparte embark in such an adventure. The founder of the fortunes of his family had begun life as a young lieutenant of artillery; he who was to be Napoleon IV. died in the uniform of a lieutenant of artillery. Napoleon I. was the enemy, the prisoner of England; his successor died in the cause of England. "Et nunc Reges intelligite; erudimini, qui judicatis terram," as Bossuet says in the words of the Psalm, at the beginning of the funeral oration of the Queen of England. It would require the eloquence of a Bossuet to do justice to this subject; in the short life of the poor young Prince who fell under the savage arms of an African tribe, he would see united in the smallest possible compass all the extremities of human affairs. "La félicité sans bornes, aussi bien que les misères . . . tout ce que peuvent donner de plus glorieux la naissance et la grandeur accumulé sur une seule tête, qui ensuite est exposée à tous les outrages de la fortune . . . l'océan étonné de se voir traversé tant de fois en des appareils si divers et pour des causes si différentes."

It is not time to speculate on the effects of this event on the future of France, or the possible changes in our politics. It seems superfluous to meditate on such things when a higher power shows us the vanity of all human calculations. It seems odious to draw any selfish hopes out of an abyss of sorrow and misfortune; no words can well answer to such a subject; there are things that speak for themselves.

Correspondence.

ENGRAVING ON WOOD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Have you had enough of wood-engraving; or will you spare me room for yet some words: not to defend my commissions or omissions, my violence or silence, the lucidity of my style or the correctness of my judgment in matters of engraving; but only to clear away, if it may be allowed, some misapprehensions as to what I did write, and as to what are my opinions when not reformed in the alembic of your review?

Where does your reviewer find in my writing that "the original artist should not draw upon the block," or that "an untouched block is the only medium for an artist-engraver"? On the contrary I, not very indistinctly, claimed praise for my endeavors to obtain "drawings from Leitch, Duncan, Dodgson, and others of our painters in water-color, whose style and character I sought to render faithfully, *so that the work of the painter rather than that of the engraver should be paramount.*"

Why also does your reviewer attribute to me the dictum of my gracious opponent in *Scribner:* that tints washed in with the brush prevent the engraver's faithfulness, "because the picture, as a whole, disappears as he works, and the relations of its parts are destroyed by his first few touches"? This—not exactly in these words—is *Scribner*, not *Atlantic*. Neither I nor any other engraver could have written it. We know, on the contrary, that tints washed on a block remain, and the effect remains, and the relations of parts need not be destroyed. With some little care a pencil drawing (rubbed in—I do not speak here of fac-simile) may also be sufficiently preserved.

"In short, to have the picture on the block in any shape tends towards mere fac-simile work, and is not for the artistic engraver." These are your reviewer's words, but intended to express my opinion. How can a washed drawing tend toward mere fac-simile work? And for mere fac-simile, I wrote, not depreciating it, but giving a remarkable instance of its difficulty—"it took the best *artist*" (as distinguished from the most accomplished *engraver*) "to do justice to a bare outline."

Let me protest that I did not "pick holes" in the engravings of Mr. Cole and others. I did not notice any exceptional shortcomings. I wrote only of errors in my opinion pervading the "new style" (which is not new), and unavoidably resulting from the use of the multiple graver. I did not stint praise of Mr. Cole for his artistic work, while sharply distinguishing it from the unartistic—*i.e.*, the mechanical.

As your reviewer says, there may be few modern wood-cuts worth admiring if we "limit our interest to that which shows care for the white line"; and I do not hold up my own for admiration. Nevertheless, I hold up the supremacy of white line. Of twenty wood-cuts by me in this year's National Academy, there were but two (engraved thirty years ago) not entirely in white line; and I cannot recollect having done a single engraving during the last ten years which has not the same distinction. I claim only this virtue for my work. And though "the critical faculty is not given to most men" (I am sure of so much), I may as a practical engraver be able to perceive that the multiple graver will *not* "work back towards the conception and handling" or the "noble simplicity" of the Bewick school.

Of imitations of charcoal and clay, brush-marks, etc., as "akin to" free and poetical translation, and of the real object and worth of the application of photography, because "there are few artists in America who know well how to draw upon the block," I could say something; but I have already, I fear, trespassed too much upon your space.

W. J. Linton.

New Haven, Conn., July 7, 1879.

[When a writer expressly disclaims having meant so-and-so, there is nothing to be said in answer. Our review of the article in the *Atlantic* contained several allusions to the difficulty we found in comprehending it, and, as an illustration of that difficulty and of the kind of utterance which made us think that Mr. Linton meant what he now says he did not mean, we quote a part of one long sentence: "Well, but, I am told, the artist (the 'artist' meaning always the painter, whose picture is photographed, or, worse, drawn on the wood by himself), the artist insists on strict adherence, an exact copy even of his brush-marks," etc. As for the multiple graver, we give it up to Mr. Linton's indignation. Not a word in our review claimed any merit for that contrivance.—Ed. Nation.]

THEOLOGY IN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your recent article on "The Cultivation of Theology in Colleges" suggests one or two questions:

1. Is not the hitherto narrow and denominational treatment of theology due to the fact that it has been *left* to the several sects, or at best to sectarian colleges, and that the university proper has made it a matter of so "little concern"? The denominations which take the narrowest, least scientific view of theology are notoriously the ones which would withdraw the study of it from the university and isolate it in some petty cloister of the sect. When the recently-founded Episcopal Seminary at Cambridge was projected the University proposed, if I mistake not, that it should be incorporated with the other professional schools of the University, and be put in every way on a par with the (so-called) Unitarian school, with all the rights and privileges pertaining to a corporate part of the whole institution. The offer was, unhappily, declined, and the result was one more petty sectarian school of (one phase of) theology, whereas the other course would, by the unavoidable interplay of views, doubtless have made still less sectarian the only school in the country, so far as I know, which professes to deal with theology as a science.

For (2) is not theology a science as truly as law or medicine, and as worthy of a place among the studies fostered at the university? That the theological school is "a professional school, like the schools of law and medicine," does not seem a good reason for depriving it of the privileges, and, if you please, the dignity, accorded to them. That "the Christian world is divided radically" on certain doctrines, the majority refusing even to consider the views of the minority, does not seem a very good reason for perpetuating a system which, by encouraging one-sided and prejudiced investigation, is largely responsible for such narrowness.

That theology deals with subjects, ethical and others, already in part covered by recognized studies of the university is perfectly true; but the same is true of all the sciences—not one of them but at some point comes in contact with, and at times includes, some other. Certainly it is true of the acknowledged university departments, law and medicine. If theo-

logy includes branches of history and ethics, so also does law ; so also does medicine include in part botany, microscopy, and several of the physical sciences. And if the *practical* aspect of law as teaching how to defend the rights of society and the individual, and of medicine as teaching how to heal the body, does not exclude either of these sciences from the "concern" of the university, why should theology be excluded because in its practical relations it teaches how to lift men to God, when in pursuing its divine calling it needs quite as much as its sister sciences the ballast of discretion and a sound mind, and *all* the light the race has yet acquired ?

H. D. Catlin.

Northumberland, Pa., July 7, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : An editorial paper on this subject in your issue of July 3 is interesting as the most striking illustration I have lately seen of what Herbert Spencer has so well described as the "anti-theological bias." Spencer tells us that the progress of social science is seriously impeded by two opposite tendencies of thought—the theological bias on one side and the anti-theological bias on the other. The chief purpose of your article seems to be to oppose, as unwise and unnecessary, the attempt of President Eliot to endow the Divinity School of Harvard University with larger funds for its professional work. Perhaps "the anti-theological bias" has never before gone the length of inducing a journal which claims to be friendly to education to grieve over the success of a college in getting larger funds for purposes of instruction in theology. It is therefore curious to look at the argument used for this object.

The reasoning of your article may be thus stated : The purpose of all Protestant churches is to teach denominational doctrine, and the work of a divinity school is to train ministers to give this teaching. There is no other theology which can be taught in the divinity schools, for unsectarian theology does not exist (except in the Roman Catholic Church, where unsectarian theology, it seems, is taught !). Theological schools, therefore, are not wanted in connection with universities.

This is a brief but I think correct résumé of your argument against President Eliot and his endowment. Now, I object to it because (as the French say) it *pèche par la base.* Its foundation is defective. The object of a church is not to teach doctrine, nor that of a divinity school to train men to teach it. The object of a church is to vitalize the hearts of men by showing them the divine truth and love. Its object is, in the first place, religious. Now, it is found more and more that the truths which awaken the religious nature are common to all theologies. Therefore a divinity school which teaches these truths may have an unsectarian theology.

No doubt a great deal of sectarian theology is still taught, and the sharp contrasts of doctrine indicated in your article are still made. But in all denominations the best men reach over these boundaries, take each other's hands, and realize that they are one in Christ. The question, then, is whether there may not be one place where this broader, this inclusive theology, shall be taught—and if so, is not Harvard University good ground for this teaching ? "There is no science of Protestant theology." You might as well say there is no science of optics, because there are different theories on certain optical questions ; no science of medicine, because there are different schools of medical thought. Because much is yet in discussion it does not follow that there is nothing settled. Shall we shut up the medical school of the University because homœopathy and allopathy have not yet settled their dispute ?

You assume that educated people have greatly lost their interest in the Church since they have discovered that no one can teach religious truth with authority, and that ministers cannot throw much light on religious questions. No doubt if the purpose of educated people in going to church is to be taught with authority by a minister what they did not know before, they are quite justified in staying away. But the church, I believe, will long continue a home to those who, educated or uneducated, seek religious communion. Life is cold and dreary to all men, be they ever so highly cultured, who live an individual life outside of the sympathies of their race. The true work of the Church is to unite their souls in a common faith, hope, and love.

The men capable of leading in such communion do not get their power in a divinity school. No, but they go there to have their minds enlarged by the broadest culture ; to be taught judgment and tolerance by the large surveys of history ; to be purified by contact with superior souls ; and to be lifted by each day's study into warmer enthusiasm for helping forward the progress of their race. It is hardly worth while to object to the gift of a few thousand dollars for such purposes as these.

Perhaps, as a Unitarian minister, I should add a word concerning the suggestion that no more Unitarian ministers are wanted. You tell us that there are already "more Unitarian ministers than can find pulpits." The same state of things, however, exists in all denominations and in all professions. There are many lawyers and doctors who can find neither patients nor clients ; but we do not on that account refuse to graduate new classes of practitioners. You also inform us that "the younger generation of Unitarians find their spiritual wants better supplied in the orthodox churches than in their own." Sometimes they do, and sometimes also the reverse is the case. Numbers of young persons educated in Orthodox churches are attracted to religious faith in Unitarian churches. We perhaps receive from the other side as many as we lose—perhaps more. At all events, there is no such movement at present as to call upon us to close our divinity schools.

James Freeman Clarke.

Jamaica Plain, Mass., July 12, 1879.

[Dr. Clarke's "résumé of our argument" is "brief" but hardly "correct." We pointed out that President Eliot thinks it a good thing for a university to be "undenominational" in its attitude towards religion, in which we agree with him. We then endeavored to show that Harvard University carried on a divinity school for the education of ministers of one denomination cut off by a more than usually broad line from all other denominations, and that as long as it did so, and proclaimed that this school was an object of peculiar interest to the Governing Body, it could not obtain either the credit or profit of being undenominational. We did not say pure and simple that "unsectarian theology" was taught in the Roman Catholic Church, and Dr. Clarke's putting this in our mouth in this shape makes us fear he is not good at résumés. We said that there was in the Catholic Church "a theology abstracted from denominational belief" which "it was worth while [for an undenominational university] to keep up a divinity school to teach," because from its resemblance to a body of law interpreted under a court of last resort it was capable of being taught systematically as a science, while Protestant theology consisted in the main of a Collection of the opinions of independent denominational thinkers and commentators. The likeness of the theology taught in the Harvard Divinity School to optics and medicine is something about which we really must let Dr. Clarke have his own way. But we repeat, in the interest of the University, that one of the hindrances to its usefulness lies in the fact that a large body of Christian parents believe it to be a hot-bed of Unitarianism, and do not like the Unitarian mode of "vitalizing the hearts of men" ; indeed, they think it very hurtful, and are unwilling to have their children exposed to it. It is difficult to get people in Massachusetts to understand the force of this feeling in other parts of the country ; but it ought, as it seems to us, to be recognized and allowed for by the managers of the College. We shall be glad to receive from Dr. Clarke a definition of "nonsectarian theology," describing in detail the manner in which it is taught and the view it takes of such questions as the Atonement, the Trinity, Original Sin, Future Punishment, the Nature of the Sacraments, the Relation between Faith and Works, and telling us whether the chair or chairs from which it is to be taught in the Harvard Divinity School can be or will be filled by Congregationalists, or Episcopalians, or anybody but Unitarians. Some explanation of this kind is due both to the subscribers to the endowment, and to parents throughout the country who are asked to consider the College undenominational.—Ed. Nation.]

WHERE COLONEL ASHBY WAS KILLED.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Captain J. A. Judson is in error when he states, in his article on "The Historical Accuracy of the late General Taylor," published in the *Nation* of the 10th inst., that Colonel Ashby was killed by Hatch's Brigade. On the contrary, Colonel Ashby was killed by a detachment of Bucktails (the rifle regiment belonging to the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps) commanded by Colonel Kane, in a sharp encounter on the evening of the 6th of June, 1862, which occurred in a strip of wood about a half-mile west of Harrisonburg, Va. Colonel Kane's detachment was at the time attached to General Geo. D. Bayard's brigade, which consisted of the First Penn-

sylvania and the First New Jersey Cavalry regiments and a battery of artillery. The First Pennsylvania Cavalry was drawn up in an open field on the right of Kane's Battalion, as support, and witnessed the whole affair. The action lasted but a few minutes, but the slaughter was terrible on both sides, as it was at very close quarters. Colonel Ashby's body was removed by his men, but his horse lay dead on the battle-line where the colonel fell. Colonel Kane was wounded and made prisoner. Colonel Wyndham, of the First New Jersey Cavalry, was also captured the same evening. This fight occurred two days previous to the battle of Cross Keys, which was fought eight miles west of this point.

Very respectfully, WM. PENN LLOYD,
late Adjutant First Pennsylvania Cavalry.

MECHANICSBURG, PA., July 12, 1879.

ARMY BREASTPLATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The intemperate language of your correspondent, charging General Taylor with deliberate falsehood in his statement that breastplates and other protective devices were worn by Federal soldiers, is probably best met by the fact that there is in the State Library here such a breastplate, found on a Federal soldier. It is formed of two steel plates, made to wear and look just like a waistcoat, the plates being covered with blue cloth, with United States army buttons. Whether this breastplate came from any of Banks's command I do not know; but an item in a Richmond newspaper of the time, May 27, 1862, states that a major of Banks's army, brought prisoner to Richmond, had on his person one of these breastplates.

An editorial comment in the Richmond *State* of to-day gives living testimony to seeing such breastplates on Federal soldiers, not, indeed, in this instance at Middletown, but at Gaines's Mill or Cold Harbor. Perhaps many persons may be surprised at the wrath awakened in your correspondent's bosom by General Taylor's statement; for the fact that protective devices were used does not necessarily reflect on the courage of those using them. A good Confederate soldier tells me that he knew of their use in our ranks.—Very respectfully, A. P.

RICHMOND, VA., July 12, 1879.

BI-METALLISTS AND BI-METALLISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are two classes of so-called bi-metallists. They are distinct even to antagonism. Do not let the readers of the *Nation* longer suppose them identical in either theory, method, or object, because of a cognomen to which one of them has no rightful claim.

One class demands free coinage of silver equally with that of gold, irrespective of conditions, for all nations if they will have it, or for one nation though alone in adopting the measure. Of such were a majority of the Monetary Commission appointed under Act of Congress in 1876–7, the supporters of the Bland Bill, and a majority of the voters in the West and South of this country; and of such are those who now urge upon Congress the repeal of all restrictions upon free coinage of silver having the quality of legal tender. They are, some of them consciously but most of them ignorantly, advocates of a mono-metallic *silver* currency in the United States—the inevitable result of the success of their efforts, should it be attained while European governments hold their present attitude on this matter of metallic money.

The other class calls for universal or international bi-metallism. They believe that full use of gold and silver as money is desirable and attainable by concurrent legislation of the commercial nations, fixing a ratio of value common to them all, between the two metals, with the mints of each country open to free and unlimited coinage of both metals. Desiring the concurrence of all the great nations, they believe the desired result can be accomplished by co-operation therein of Great Britain, France, and the United States, because of their united commercial supremacy. Holding that a merely commercial restoration of the old relation of value, 15½ weights of silver to 1 of gold, being fortuitous, an effect of temporary conditions, could have none of the permanence necessary to a useful equalization of value, they believe that bi-metallism proper is not attainable except by the proposed international action.

The former, demanding unlimited and unconditioned free coinage of silver legal-tender in any one country (our own, for instance), would practically cut silver loose from gold, and subject its relative money value to its relative bullion value. It is but just to say that these silver theorists claim that their policy, carried out even in this country alone, would, by its demand for silver to be coined, added to the normal movement of silver to the East, eventually, and at no distant time, restore to silver its old European ratio of value—*i. e.*, would carry silver about three per cent. in market value above the ratio value by our laws. It is not necessary here to argue against their idea that the 400 millions of silver coin in the United States—supposing all money here to be of silver standard, and using so much as 400 million dollars—could raise the value of 1,000 millions in Europe, when its holders in Europe would be only too glad to sell of their stock more and more largely at each advance of one penny per ounce caused by the silver policy of the United States. Just here the international bi-metallists confront the silver-standard men by saying the only true and prompt way to bi-metallism, and elevation of silver to its proper rank and function as money, is by stopping its coinage until it be international; and then by tying gold and silver together at a ratio made steadfast under international agreement. The latter would hold all the silver up to gold value, or gold and silver to one ratio of value in the coinage of both. True, the purchasing power of 4,500 millions distributed in 6,000 millions would be less than if confined within a bound of 4,500 millions that could not be expanded. What the difference in effect on prices between one and the other sum of metallic money would be is not yet known, for silver is yet in part supplementing gold in popular impression, and the separation of gold from silver in money power is not complete. May it never happen that gold shall hold all the purchasing power, even when sharing it with other forms of currency redeemable in gold. It would be a deadly constrictor. Yet, to just that condition is the argument for the gold standard alone leading the world.

The gold standard would confine the transactions of the world, in volume and value, within its own capacity, impossible of expansion as that is, and the capacities of its representatives, all depending on itself.

The true bi-metallist standard would broaden the money basis to include all silver and all gold, with, of course, a corresponding capacity of carrying safely all the many forms of sound credit that must have a basis of good money.

For the present, and probably until experience of suffering shall reverse the popular opinion, it is and will be impossible to change our coinage laws for the better. Let us be thankful for the wisdom that has stayed a further change for the worse. But now bi-metallism offers a great boon and blessing. Accepted by all or a majority of the leading nations, it could do harm to none; it would save us from the impending calamity of *silver standard currency;* and it is believed by many men of large knowledge and position in Europe that its usefulness and beneficence there will be no less than its protecting agency here.

Each of those nations must decide for itself. If they happen to favor that measure which would do us good service, surely we need not hasten to dissuade them. B. F. NOURSE.

BOSTON, June 26, 1879.

THE *ART AMATEUR.*

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I further trespass on your kindness by asking you to inform my friends that all the statements in my letter of July 3 were literally true, and that for remedy against the assertions of Montague Marks, in his reply in the *Nation* of July 10, I have commenced an action at law?

Yours respectfully, CHARLES A. COLE.

NEW YORK, July 14, 1879.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. will publish immediately a volume of essays by Mr. John Fiske on the subject of Evolution, and have also in press Sir Samuel Baker's 'Cyprus as I saw it in 1879,' and 'A Ride in Egypt,' by the Rev. W. J. Loftie. They have just issued Part VII. (first of vol. ii.) of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Improperia—Libretto). Some of the chief articles are Intermezzo, Intonation, Inversion, Key, Leit-motif (with interesting illustrations, mostly of course from Wagner), Ionian Mode, Irish Music, Kyrie, Leipzig, etc. Living composers and artists like Alfred Jaell, Joachim, Kirchner, and Miss Kellogg are included in the present number; among the dead, Jullien, R. Kreutzer, Lablache, Henry Lawes (who composed the songs for the masque of 'Comus'), and Lassus. To this Netherlands master an almost disproportionate space is allotted, and both his portrait and Lawes's are given—a practice that would have been more honored in the observance than

in the breach throughout this work.——Mr. A. T. Rice, editor of the *North American Review*, has selected a dozen essays from that periodical ranging from 1832 to 1868. Longfellow's "Defence of Poetry" is the earliest production; Lowell's "Shakespeare Once More" the latest. Prescott, Irving, Cushing, Bancroft, Emerson, Motley, C. F. Adams, G. W. Curtis, Dr. Holmes, and F. Parkman are the other contributors. The number of volumes of this sort derivable from the *Review* is almost unlimited. D. Appleton & Co. are the publishers.——Houghton, Osgood & Co.'s reissue of the standard edition of the 'British Poets' has been augmented by Shakspere and Jonson, and Wyatt and Surrey, each in one volume, Shakspere's poems alone, of course, being here printed. We have more than once called attention to the cheapness of this excellent series.——Mr. Whitelaw Reid's address on "Some Aspects of Journalism" will be brought out by Henry Holt & Co.——A translation of Pastor Borel's 'Memoir of Count A. de Gasparin' is announced by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.——D. R. Locke, Toledo, Ohio, announces the publication in book-form of a serial story which has been appearing in his paper, the *Blade*, called 'Andersonville: a Story of Southern Prisons.' Its fidelity is vouched for, and the book will be "illustrated with several hundred engravings, largely taken from Rebel photographs" in the author's possession.——The summer meeting of the National Educational Association will be held at Philadelphia, as we have already announced, July 29, 30, 31. We hope its proceedings will not resemble in one particular those of the American Institute of Instruction lately convened in the White Mountains, at which, according to the press despatch, "after reading 'Love in a Balloon' and 'How We Captured a Mouse,' by Prof. Hibbard, a song was sung by Mrs. West, and the exercises closed."——Prof. A. S. Packard, jr., Providence, R. I., asks on behalf of the U. S. Entomological Commission for information concerning the habits and mode of breeding of the Hessian Fly, the losses it causes, the preventive remedies, etc., and for specimens of the insect, its parasites, and the wheat affected, to be sent as above.——The Seventh Cincinnati Industrial Exposition will be opened for the reception of goods from Aug. 18 to Sept. 9. We believe smoke-consuming devices will form a prominent feature of the display.——The Kalamazoo *Telegraph* states that Professor Alexander Winchell has just been reappointed to the chair of Geology in the University of Michigan. Since leaving this post, some years ago, he has been Chancellor of the Syracuse University and professor of geology in the Vanderbilt University "The latter position he was compelled to leave owing to his views on the antiquity and geological place of man not agreeing with those of the Southern Methodists."——An historic phase of the Eastern Question is treated by Camille Rousset in his 'Conquête d'Alger' (Paris: Plon, 1879).——Vol. i. and part of vol. ii. of a valuable collection of 'South-Slavic Melodies' has been published in Agram. The collection thus far embraces over 500 songs, from Dalmatia, Herzegovina, Bosnia, Servia, and the adjacent countries.——A German translation of Cesnola's 'Cyprus' is shortly to appear, with an introduction by Georg Ebers. The translator is the Egyptologist, Ludwig Stern.

—The Woodruff Scientific Expedition, in spite of its second failure and the death of its projector, is once more being attempted, under the ostensible management of Mr. William S. Clark, late chief of the "faculty." The programme is essentially unchanged: 40,000 miles of travel are to be achieved in not less than eighteen months, and after doing Europe, Egypt and Palestine, Malaysia and China, "Japan is to be studied carefully." The financial estimate contemplates 200 students at $3,000 each, payable in advance. This number is to be raised by premiums to agents, and free scholarships to those who secure 600 cash subscribers to a paper to be published on board the vessel; and if such chromo devices fail, a smaller expedition may be despatched experimentally. It is further stated that "a gentleman of culture and large means has undertaken to furnish the funds required to place the claims of the expedition before the public, believing that such an educational institution can be put into successful operation, and rendered permanent." Can it be that this philanthropist is none other than the creditors of the late J. O. Woodruff?

—*Harper's Magazine* for August is a number appropriate to the season both in the subjects of its articles and in the absence in most of them of any serious demand upon the reader's thoughtfulness. Sometimes, as in the case of the opening paper on Lake George, so copiously and felicitously illustrated by Mr. J. D. Smillie, nothing would be lost by disregarding the text altogether. One must speak much more civilly of Mr. W. H. Gibson's "Snug Hamlet and Hometown," in which the writer's literary sense rather heightens his claims to respect as the designer of the accompanying illustrations, remarkable as they are both for draughtsmanship and engraving. Two other illustrated articles are pretty sure to contain novel information for nine out of ten readers of *Harper's*, viz., Mr. Rideing's account of the New York "Nautical School *St. Mary's*," whose official designation is "Public School No. 90," and the paper entitled "Chautauqua." Chautauqua is a lake in the westernmost part of New York, near Lake Erie, and there an annual summer meeting is held in a sort of camp-ground. Originally designed for the instruction of Sunday-school teachers, especially of the Methodist Church, its aim now is "to give a 'twist' toward learning and culture to minds which would not be apt to receive that learning under ordinary circumstances"; of course, "in the interest of evangelical religion and Biblical truth." Lectureships (including the "Boston Monday") and text-books (specially prepared as well as borrowed), schools of languages and *conversazioni*, a park in which one learns the topography of the Holy Land by walking through it, a sectional model of the Great Pyramid, stereopticon exhibitions, etc., are some of the features of this curious Yankee notion, which has a student membership of more than 8,000 persons. Dr. E. G. Loring discusses in a somewhat alarming way the "Consequences of Defective Vision," and proceeding from the indisputable premise that a near-sighted eye is a diseased eye, he states his belief "that in a great number of near-sighted people the general average of physical vigor would be less than in the same number of those who possessed long sight"—a fact, if it be a fact, which ought to appear in German longevity tables. He furnishes some easy tests for astigmatism and for abnormal vision.

—The July number of the *American Law Review* contains a valuable article on "Common Carriers and the Common Law," by Mr. O. W. Holmes, jr., of Boston, who during the past few years has contributed to the *Review* a number of interesting essays on the development of fundamental legal conceptions. They deserve more than a passing notice. Germany for a long period, as England, though to a less extent since the time when Austin became a familiar name, has been the field for a vast amount of profound research into the origin and nature of those fundamental legal notions, the analysis of which lies at the basis of every system of jurisprudence properly so called; but there are many reasons why it is greatly to be hoped that in the future we may more and more rely on English and American scholarship in this branch of knowledge. All Germans are necessarily Roman lawyers at bottom, and notwithstanding all that has been said about the beauty and system of Roman law, it must be remembered that its system is not that of the common law, and that many of the primitive notions in the latter are to be traced historically to a totally different source from the conceptions which go by the same name in the former. Besides being a civilian, too, every German is a Kantian or Hegelian, while English or American lawyers (if they consciously profess any philosophy at all) belong generally to a widely different school. Everybody knows how in the classical Roman period the discussion of first principles by the commentators was colored and distorted by the prevailing philosophical ideas imported from Greece; and it is consequently easier to understand how a commentary by a modern professor on such a subject, let us say, as Possession, may be profoundly affected by his Kantian or Hegelian education. With regard to common carriers, the law of England and the United States is very peculiar, and it is Mr. Holmes's object in the essay before us to show that it is not Roman but Teutonic in its origin, and may be traced back to the period of the folk-laws, when the German races were still in a pastoral condition; when cattle formed almost the only known species of property, cattle-stealing the most serious offence against property, and a regulated self-redress the only remedy known to the law. As we understand his argument it, is that the curious and anomalous rule of law which makes (for example) the New York Central Railroad absolutely responsible for the loss or destruction of every piece of freight entrusted to it, unless this is due to an "act of God" or the public enemy, or unless a special contract is made with the shipper, is merely a survival from primitive times in the case of a particular class of persons (common carriers) of a principle of law which once affected all persons entrusted with the keeping of the property of others. We cannot here do more than give the barest hint of the drift of Mr. Holmes's essay. We trust that it may with its predecessors be soon collected into a volume. The publication would redound greatly to the credit of American legal scholarship.

—One of the papers read at the recent Library Convention spoke of

the exclusion of "immoral and French fiction" from the libraries as quite a matter of course. The current *Blackwood* has an elaborate critical and homiletical article upon "French Novels," the sixth in its "Contemporary Literature" series, from which a similar conclusion might be drawn. The question of admitting this literature to public libraries is, of course, a practical and a complex one, and we do not mean to discuss it; but the two circumstances associated furnish an apt illustration of the customary Anglo-Saxon attitude towards French fiction, and that, so long as it is the attitude of immaculateness towards pitch, is worth attention. Of course there is an explanation, if not an excuse, for it. There are many things which they order differently in France; a young girl in a good French family would no more be permitted to look into one of Octave Feuillet's novels than a young English or American girl would be permitted to read 'The Age of Reason.' Consequently, the limitations of its audience being well understood, the French novel is more plain-spoken than the English, and it is in great part from its plain-spokenness that the unwarrantable assumption of its immorality proceeds. There are, indeed, plenty of immoral French novels, but perhaps not more than there are of immoral English ones. For the matter of that, a pretty long argument might be entered upon as to whether 'The Wide, Wide World' and its sort are not more immoral at bottom than 'Les Amours de Philippe' and its sort. It is certainly a misfortune to quarantine what may be called a whole literature, and includes such literary artists as Balzac, George Sand, Flaubert, Mérimée, Cherbuliez, by stigmatizing them as immoral. But it is a ridiculous misfortune to do it on such grounds; for the superiority of the average French novel, which the writer in *Blackwood* admits, though with a very wry face, is largely due to the opportunity that it has and the English novel has not of being plain-spoken; it occupies itself strictly, almost always, with painting life as it is, and not with the production of romance which has no relation to reality except in the novelist's imagination, unchecked by any considerations of literary art. "Since the author of 'Tom Jones' was buried," says Thackeray, "no writer of fiction among us has been permitted to depict to his utmost power a man. We must drape him and give him the conventional simper." Absolutely nothing stands between truth and the writer of French fiction, and he does depict men and things to the utmost of his power. The real objection to French novels lies in the application of the maxim, "The truth should not be spoken at all times." That is the reasonable ground for the libraries and English essayists to take, and not the untenable one of maintaining that a romantic idyl of André Theuriet is less pure and sweet in itself than 'The Vicar of Wakefield.'

—Americans, even more than his own countrymen, will be interested in an article which Mr. John Wisker contributes to the *Fortnightly Review* for July upon "The Colored Man in Australia." The title might as well have been "The Chinese in Australia," since what is said of the black aboriginal and the brown Polynesian is both brief and, from the nature of its subject, of small comparative importance. The Chinese question, however, is in Australia even more prominent perhaps than it is in California. The Celestial is as great a nuisance and a terror to the Australian as he is to the San Francisco "hoodlum"; the slang term for his invasion is "the Yellow Agony," and though no Australian Kearney appears to have arisen, and the colonial governments seem to have respected treaty provisions, what are called "repressive measures" of great stringency and efficacy have been adopted to the end and indeed with the result of apparently, and temporarily at least, settling the question. The history of these measures Mr. Wisker gives at length and with great dispassionateness, although he attempts no disguise of his substantial sympathy with them. As a matter of fact, the Australians seem to have much more ground for complaint than the Californians. There are 4,000 Chinese in Sydney alone; 20,000 out of a population of 200,000 in Queensland; in Cooktown they are in a majority. As Mr. Wisker says, "these figures do suggest a serious question," which is, as he goes on to show, whether or no the European population unassisted by repressive legislation will be able even to hold its own. He does not dispute the "general right of the employer to get his work done at the cheapest rate," nor does he favor any violation of Great Britain's treaty obligations, but he maintains "the undoubted right of the colonies to self-preservation," and with this, it seems clear to him, unchecked Chinese immigration would seriously interfere. It must be admitted, however, that since the recent colonial legislation in the matter, the danger is not imminent. "The Chinese Immigrants Regulation Act has achieved its object," he says, "that of preventing immigration altogether" in Queensand; and similar measures elsewhere will undoubtedly have the same effect. To most Englishmen, Mr. Wisker acknowledges, this legislation which does indeed seem both grotesque and tyrannous, will appear "monstrous." But he says that "the Australian is fully convinced that the issue is one of life or death, and that where the Chinese are the Europeans will sooner or later cease to be," and it is plain that he agrees with the Australian. "For the yellow men to settle down amongst a people with whom they can no more amalgamate than oil can mix with water, is merely tempting Providence." And he advises the Chinese to colonize by themselves. The whole pith of the question both in Australia and in California is certainly here: whether or no the yellow men's hostility or indifference to white men's civilization is likely sooner or later to imperil that civilization. Abstract economic propositions as to "cheap labor," etc., are slight in comparison.

—Bishop Gilbert Haven's "boom" for Grant at the Woodstock Fourth of July symposium, contrived by Mr. Bowen, of the *Independent*, contained many passages which we should like to transfer to our columns. We reluctantly pass over the glowing tributes to Boss Shepherd and Mullett and their works, and the complete if not hearty sanction of the San Domingo job, in favor of the more general whitewash applied in the following paragraph:

"The splendor of that height of national sovereignty and human equality which was attained in the administration of Ulysses S. Grant will be yet more illustrious as we wriggle at the base of the mountain from whose summit we have descended, in vain efforts to scale its heights and bask again in its sunshine. Even as the foaming, writhing, idiotic mouthings of the weak lad possessed with the devils, from which neither himself, nor his father, nor even the disciples and associates of the Lord could deliver him, contrasted painfully to the three apostles with the glories of the Mount of Transfiguration."

This comparison, to those who have still some regard for moral standards and some recollection of Grant's administration, will appear as shocking as Mr. Froude's recent likening of Cæsar to Christ, and, coming from a dignitary of the Methodist Episcopal Church, even more disgusting.

—The London *Week*, a weekly paper established two or three years ago by Mr. Louis J. Jennings, formerly editor of the New York *Times*, has just died. The *World*, of this city, made gallant efforts to sustain it by referring to it and quoting it as one of the highest authorities on British affairs, but in vain. All the serious weekly papers in London are suffering more or less from the competition of the new "society papers," which are, owing to a curious and sudden depravation of the public taste, having a prodigious run, their main ingredient being social gossip, mostly mendacious. Mr. Jennings's *forte*, however, lay neither in the judicial-mindedness of the serious weeklies nor in the flippant gaiety of the society papers, and there is no market in England for heavy "slogging," as the pugilists say, such as he used to deal out on his enemies here. The support of him by the *World* is a most curious case of magnanimity. Mr. Jennings used to express in the *Times* the lowest opinion possible of the present editor of the *World*, and when the late editor was supposed to be on his death-bed he referred on one occasion not sympathetically, but exultantly, to the tortures of anticipation with regard to the future life which he supposed him to be suffering. Journalism is certainly becoming a sweeter and tenderer calling than it used to be, at least in these parts.

THE STUDY OF PSYCHOLOGY.*

THE student in psychology who goes to this first posthumous volume of George Henry Lewes in search of new inspiration and direction will be disappointed. Nothing that has not already been written in the 'Problems of Life and Mind' appears here. There are the old warnings against the erection of Abstractions into Realities, and the dangers of Analysis unsupplemented by Synthesis; the familiar insistence on the importance of the Social Medium, and the hollowness of "hypothetical physiology"; while the reduction of Body and Mind to different Aspects of the same ultimate, Feeling, reappears and permeates everything. But Mr. Lewes was too experienced a literary workman to repeat and capitalize without a purpose. The present Problem, "published separately in obedience to an implied wish of the author," is evidently in some degree intended for the general public, and so reasserts with considerable amplification what were believed to be the needs of a scientific psychology.

Perhaps Mr. Lewes's chief merit as a philosopher was a continuous insistence on penetrating the significance of words. Certainly his most valuable and characteristic contributions to psychology show him con-

* 'Problems of Life and Mind. By George Henry Lewes. Third Series. Problem the First, the Study of Psychology: Its Object, Scope, and Method.' London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.

stantly in the attitude of watching his own stream of thought, and investigating the credentials of each word in the sequence. Highly abstract thought is carried on almost wholly with verbal signs, and these are generally accepted as ultimates. The philosopher is too apt to question everything but the words he questions with; their subtle trickery goes unsuspected as they float him along the stream of inference.* This perennial error is so disastrous that one who had probed it might well repeat and re-repeat warnings against its manifold forms, as Mr. Lewes did in every 'Problem of Life and Mind,' and continued to do in the volume just issued.

The first and third chapters of this work, under the titles "The Object" and "The Position of the Science," define the relation of psychology to physiology; insist on the biological standpoint, from which mind is to be viewed as a function of the organism; and criticise the views of Mill, Comte, and Spencer as to the subject-matter of psychology. "The place of Physiology is that of the organic *conditions* of production; the place of Psychology being that of the *products*." "Psychology is a branch of Biology, having for its special province the analysis and classification of the facts and laws of Sensibility viewed in their subjective aspect." "It is not the presence of Consciousness that marks off the phenomena as those of an unique science, but the presence of a particular point of view, a theoretic attention to the feelings *as* feelings."

Function and Faculty are then placed in luminous antithesis: function is what is fixed, unalterable, the instinctive, the mechanical; faculty is what is modifiable, acquired in the individual experience. Function is the connate constitution, the inherited mechanism; faculty the acquired constitution, a modification impressed upon the inherited mechanism by experience. Here lies the difference between man and animal. Speaking broadly, animals have functions; they build nests, seek food, shrink from pain; men have functions *and* faculties; traditional inheritance endows them with language, music, all the post-natal culture. (The songs of birds are undoubtedly a case of traditional inheritance.) This brings into view the importance of the Social Medium (chap. v.) The stuff out of which the faculties are built is not the experience of isolated individuals, but the collective experience of the race. Even were our knowledge of the organism enormously extended, "it would still be incompetent to furnish an explanation of moral sentiments and intellectual conceptions, simply because these are impersonal and social, arising out of social needs and social conditions, involving, indeed, the organism and its functions, but involving these in relation to experiences only possible to the collective life."

Animal psychology, on the surface so promising, is considered for the present infertile; partly because of the inaccessibility of animal subjective life, and partly through the constant liability to anthropomorphic misinterpretation. And since animals possess no developed society, there cannot be studied in them that General Mind (chap. ix.) which has been the efficacious environment of humanity. The General Mind traces itself in the intellect, the moral sense, in what are significantly called the *Humanities*—in all forms of culture; and has its record in history.

Concerning the Method of psychology little that is new is brought forward. The need of using both introspection and observation (objective) is emphasized; no one questions that now. Indeed, one of the chief deficiencies of this work in the eyes of special students will be that just nothing is said of the immense amount of observational work accomplished during the last fifteen years in objective psychology. Fechner, Helmholtz, Wundt, in Germany; Sully, Grant Allen, Romanes, Galton, in England, and Stanley Hall at Harvard have labored with admirable results. There is great need now that some one should sift these results, show their general significance and drift, and formulate a method and a programme for future work. It would be impossible to estimate the future importance of scientific psychology too largely; and that full efficiency may most quickly be attained psychology must pass the stage of individualism and be constituted a science.

Mr. Lewes had already shown the misfortune of subjective psychology in having been born of Metaphysics, and taught us what ancestral traits might profitably be retained and what called for eradication. This last volume, with the "Physical Basis of Mind" as a groundwork, might very appropriately have contained the much-needed systemization of objective psychology. It is sufficiently seen that the "longing to get behind things" is little else than a desire to find the centre of a circle outside the circumference, and there are enough who believe that if this universe does not suffice for our activities and our interests the fault lies not in the shallowness of things, but in the shallowness of our vision. What is wanted is that those who labor in this belief should be guided and inspired by a common conception of their object and their method.

* For example: Explanation is the resolution of a phenomenon into its ultimates. These ultimates are explained by reduction to a lower grade of ultimates. When the final, the true ultimate is reached, further resolution becomes impossible. Now, philosophy attempts to explain that last ultimate, not seeing that the question of explanation is irrelevant, resolution being at an end. The office of explanation is a vanishing factor that becomes zero when Existence, which, as such, cannot be resolved, is reached. Here the word *explanation* is not sufficiently questioned; like many others, it is allowed to extend beyond its proper area.

Memoir of the Life and Episcopate of George Augustus Selwyn, D.D. By the Rev. H. W. Tucker, M.A. (New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1879.)—George Augustus Selwyn, Bishop of New Zealand for twenty-six years and of the ancient diocese of Lichfield for eleven more, ending in 1878, was born in 1809, of an ancient family, to which George Selwyn, the wit and friend of Horace Walpole belonged. At Eton he was a classmate and intimate of Gladstone, and he was a member of the Cambridge crew in the first of the now famous races with Oxford. He took kindly at once to the idea of a clerical life. His first parish was Windsor, where he attracted notice by a pamphlet or two and by his distinct organizing talent, and at the age of thirty-two was selected as the man to be the first missionary bishop of New Zealand. He was personally handsome, athletic, skilled in many practical occupations not usual to his profession, and quick to turn his hand to others. Had he not been a good bishop he might have made a capital farmer, carpenter, weaver, or printer, it is said. Something of all these, as well as the Maori dialects, he learned in order to start them properly in his colony. He sketched, but by no means so well as to justify the praise that "he was a born artist"—praise founded upon letters, with pen-and-ink illustrations of natives, their huts and landscapes, one of which is lithographed in *fac-simile*, and run in among the text. He was in particular a sailor. He began to familiarize himself with the details of navigation on the long voyage out from England, and afterwards had plenty of use for them. A part of the episcopal outfit was a small schooner, and in this he made constant voyages, often three thousand miles at a time, visiting in turn the numerous islands belonging to his spiritual domain. The mission ship, *Border Maid*, is described coming up to Auckland with the bishop at the helm. "Luff, my lord!" cries the captain. "Luff it is," my lord bishop sturdily replies.

His piety was not of the mystical order, but he gave too many proofs to allow its sincerity to be doubted. It is pervaded, like all his transactions, with a strong Anglo-Saxon common sense. He had, as we have said, the organizing faculty. He saw definite points and devoted himself to reaching them in the directest manner. In all his memoranda, sermons, propositions for this and that, he is fond of putting down the paragraphs with numbers, 1, 2, 3. It was a natural tendency, strengthened no doubt by the childish simplicity in point of intellect of his savages. One only of his speeches to them is given in full. It is short, but too long to reproduce here. There is something quaint and very pleasing, partly in its directness, partly in the turns of expression borrowed from them. It was on the occasion of his appearance in a grand conclave of the Maoris, who were meditating war, to endeavor to persuade them to better counsels:

"Here am I, a mediator for New Zealand. My work is mediation. I have eaten your food; I have slept in your houses. The council of Waikato has agreed that to-day I should be allowed to speak my mind to you. Well, then, carefully weigh these special thoughts:

"Let the law be one.
"Let the Waitara question be decided by law.
"Let Tataraimaka be occupied quietly by the English owners.
"*First*, let the law be one."

He goes on to show that there should not be one law for one Maori and another for another, or a different law for Maoris and Englishmen—nothing special, but general laws applying fairly to all alike.

"Therefore I say to you, agree to this first thought of mine, 'Let the law be one.'

"Now for the second point, 'Let the Waitara case be decided by law.' This is not my idea alone. It is yours, William Thompson (a chief); it is yours, Ngatikahungunu; it is what we all said. The fault Governor Brown committed was that he did not try the Waitara question by law. This was my sickness, that it was not tried. This is my medicine, that it should be tried by law. It was one man of yours who began the wrong, namely, Te Teira. It was one man of ours who continued the wrong, Governor Brown. Now all of us together, the whole body, will set right the wrong of one member."

Here follows again, like a kind of refrain: "Agree, then, to this second word of mine, 'Let the Waitara question be decided by law.'"

The first missionary bishop was not the first missionary. The coun-

try had been in hand thirty years, and very tolerably Christianized by Catholics, Dissenters, and what not, together with Church people. The picture given of the natives—it is tantalizingly fragmentary—represents them in an attractive light. They were gentle, easily amenable to ideas of law and an orderly life, humane in war, and at the same time of fearless courage. The troubles were all about the tenure of land. There were no individual, but only tribal proprietorships. Transfers were continually being made, under the inducement of that eternally seductive "British gold," by unauthorized persons. Indeed, it must have been rather difficult to tell just who had the authority. At any rate, some of the land was paid for three times over, and then had to be fought for besides. The bishop was very active in these disturbances. Passing from one side to the other in the interests of conciliation, he managed to lose the favor of both. He was hooted by the settlers at Taranaki, who said he was greedy of power and was truckling to the natives to get all the land for his churches. Then the natives refused him passage on his journeys, saying he was only coming through their country as a spy. But he sat down imperturbably on his bundle, and said good-humoredly: "This is very fine. The Pakehas (the settlers) grind me at Taranaki, and now you grind me here."

The old difficulty of the conflict of Christian sects among themselves, from which no missionary field is quite free, was a very tangible retarding influence to evangelization. In one place the natives were found warned against Hahi (Church) and in favor of Weteri (Wesley). At another a fierce dispute was raging as to whether the reformatory fires at Smithfield, of Queen Mary or those of Queen Elizabeth, were the most orthodox. "Here have I come," says a logical old chief, in substance, stretching out three fingers, "to a point where three roads branch forth. This is the Church of England, this is the Church of Rome, this is the Wesleyans. I am sitting here. Which shall I take?" They took their religion in a rude way at the best, as benighted intellects must. A youth who had completed his education at the college wished to take home poison from the laboratory to administer to his enemies, and was surprised to learn that it would make any difference, inasmuch as they were not Christians. When the troubles came Christianity was identified with lack of patriotism, and there was a great backsliding. Some few even went to the extreme of relapsing into cannibalism.

We fear we may have given a more attractive idea of the book than it deserves. It might possibly be little less than dreary to the general reader. The great bulk of its contents is letters such as are written by millions every year, and what may be called the *technique* of a denominational religious life—the spreading of communion tables, and the administering of confirmations. It manages, by a lack of imagination, to make the least possible of the strange, remote archipelago, and at the same time to avoid presenting the bishop as the stirring model for the imitation of youth which his career would well have warranted.

Life and Adventures of Ernst Moritz Arndt. Compiled from the German. With a preface by John Robert Seeley, M.A., Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1879.)—The basis of this compilation is Arndt's autobiography ('Erinnerungen aus dem äusseren Leben'), which has been on the one hand abridged, on the other usefully supplemented from his other personal writings and from numerous biographies. The result is a work of lasting interest, and one of the best possible introductions to the history of Germany during and immediately after the Napoleonic era. The charm of the narrative fully justifies Prof. Seeley's comparison of it, in his preface, to the historical novel, which it far surpasses in value. Arndt's life was at every stage romantic. Born on the island of Rügen, under Swedish rule, with *Platt-deutsch* for his mother-tongue and High German, blunderingly spoken, the etiquette of festive occasions, at a time when, as he says, people were less educated but "possessed more individuality, more variety, and more poetry" than they did half a century later, his happy boyhood was passed by the sounding waters of the Baltic within sight of the Pomeranian shore. Education in the universities of Greifswald and Jena took him to the mainland; in the early days of the French Revolution he "was still at heart more Swedish than German"; but "when Austria and Prussia had fallen after vain struggles, then first I began to love Germany truly, and to hate the foreigner with an utter hatred." Before this catastrophe he had travelled in Sweden, Italy, and France, of which he gives lively pictures. Afterward, as the apostle of German nationality, of that unity which was not attained till 1871, he followed Stein to Russia, where, as Gortchakoff said of his own country after the Crimea, that part of Prussia which would not submit was gathering itself for the recoil; and thenceforth, till the overthrow of Napoleon, he had the singular honor to be the instrument and associate of Stein, who knew how to employ his great gifts as poet and prose-writer in kindling the patriotism of an overridden people, and preparing it for the tremendous sacrifices which at last enabled it to drive out the invader for ever.

The amount of incident and reminiscence of famous personages in these pages is very great. Perhaps the most valuable observations are those of Russian character; most graphic and horrible the account of the French retreat from Moscow, with Stein and Nemesis following close behind. All that we learn of Stein is conveyed in that language of affectionate admiration which he inspired in all his chosen "family." There was a special bond between Arndt and his chief in their hatred of serfdom. Arndt's early 'History of Serfdom in Pomerania and Rügen,' though it caused him to be regarded as a seditious person by his aristocratic neighbors, fixed the attention of Gustavus IV. upon the evil, and probably hastened as well as preceded the edict abolishing serfdom (1806-1810). Stein's first act as Prussian minister, after the Peace of Tilsit, was to put an end to attachment to the soil, and to make ownership in land a common privilege. The reaction, too, which began with the Congress of Vienna compelled Stein's withdrawal from affairs, and for twenty years kept an official seal on Arndt's lips under which he chafed away the prime of his life. Their friendship remained unbroken to the last.

The modesty proper in an autobiography and natural to Arndt prevents the reader of this volume from forming a just idea of his peculiar services to his country and his age. Even such of his lyrics as are here introduced are tamely translated, Professor Seeley himself being responsible for a version of

"Der Gott, der Eisen wachsen liess, der wollte keine Knechte,"

which begins—

"Who underground the iron stored
Cared not to see a slave."

In all other respects the translation, and in nearly all the editing, is to be praised. Copious foot-notes contain brief and generally satisfactory biographies of the more noteworthy characters mentioned in the text. In the spelling of proper names there is the usual want of consistency, but nothing is quite so bad, or so likely to escape detection by the ordinary reader, as "Nicholas Durjeneff," on p. 300, for Nicholas Turgeneff, the Russian secretary of Stein, and colleague of Arndt in the Central Administration at Frankfort; the one Russian whose name should be mentioned before Alexander II.'s in celebrating the emancipation of the Russian serfs, and whose 'Mémoires d'un Proscrit' deserve to have been consulted by the present editor. Finally, there is no index—a grave omission.

We might stop here, but shall be forgiven, we believe, for making two extracts from the autobiography for their psychologic rather than their historic value; the first from p. 194:

"During my Russian night-journey I made an observation which amuses me still when I think of it. It was only a recurrence of a sensation which I had experienced in similar nights, never in Germany but often in Sweden, when my senses were over-excited through wakefulness. I think it was partly caused by the strange lights and shadows of the northern nights, whose starlight and moonlight is quite different from that of Germany, and has a magic proper to itself. Anyhow, the trees, the rocks, the houses, and other lifeless forms seemed suddenly to come to life and to spring forward as we passed, like magic monsters. I do not know whether this effect is produced by the action of outward objects upon the mind, or of the mind upon outward objects. About this philosophers will probably dispute till the end of time, but the fact remains the same, and in my opinion accounts for much of the belief in supernatural appearances in Sweden, and also for Swedenborg's spiritualism."

The other is from p. 25. Arndt's father lay dangerously ill:

"I applied myself diligently to the only source of comfort I knew of, and read hymns from the hymn-book, and the Gospel for the week, aloud to myself over and over again, and offered devout prayers with all my heart. At last in my great trouble I began to ask myself whether there was nothing which I could offer up to God as a sacrifice for my father's life. I considered everything in the house and all my brothers and sisters, but I felt that I had no right over their lives. At last I came to myself, but found that I did not wish to die yet. So there was nothing left but my doves, and these I offered to God with fervent prayer and many tears."

The next morning his father was out of danger, and the dove-cote was found desolated by a marten. This coincidence of course made a great impression on the boy's mind as a manifestation of Divine Providence; but what will strike readers who remember the case of Freeman,

the Cape Cod Adventist who murdered his child as a sacrifice which he hoped the Lord would not exact of him at the last moment, is that Arndt's first thought of a victim was among his brothers and sisters. That he would have been content with *offering* the life of one of them, in no way distinguishes his fanaticism from that of Freeman, whose views about the millennium may accordingly be suspected not to have been at the bottom of his dreadful crime.

The Æneid of Virgil. Translated into English. By John D. Long. (Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1879.)—*A Rhythmic-Prose Translation of Virgil's Æneid.* By Henry Hubbard Pierce, U.S.A. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.)—There appears to be a connection between politics and translating from the classics which leads men who are engaged in the former to employ their leisure with the tasks of the latter. In late years, especially, several English statesmen have shown a marked preference for such work, and perhaps it was their example that induced Mr. Long to set the same fashion for American politicians by printing this translation of the Æneid. He accounts for it himself by a wish he felt to pay "a mite of tribute to the old studies," and he found that the principal pleasure which he derived from his labor lay in renewing "the happy morning of the school-boy's shining face and eager heart." Some stronger motive than having once read Virgil, some deeper pleasure than being a boy again, is needful for a good version of such a poem, and it goes without saying that not much is to be expected from a translator upon whom his work has taken so little hold that he can speak in his preface of this "immortal poem, though the world could better lose it all than a psalm of David or a verse of Whittier." The translation is usually accurate and sometimes spirited; but the graces of the most elegant of poets do not readily lend themselves to Mr. Long's abrupt and doubtful English. Anachronisms are boldly acknowledged in the unfortunate preface, but there are graver faults. Defective taste has made several passages inharmonious and unnatural. Virgil would not have spoken of the "cowed household gods" of Troy, *victosque Penates*, nor of the "sacred wares," *sacra*. The "fallow heart" of Dido for *desuetaque corda*, "chuckling" Cupid for *gaudens*, "milling ware" for *cerealiaque arma*, are all unpoetic, and these are examples taken at random. For minute criticism we have no space, but what is to be said of such lines as the following:

> Quam mille secutæ
> Hinc atque hinc glomerantur Oreades.
>
> "A thousand mountain nymphs
> *In bosky clusters* following here and there."
>
> Liquefactaque saxa sub auris
> Cum gemitu glomerat.
>
> "While the air
> *Glooms* ever with the hissing molten ball"
>
> Pedibus celerem et pernicibus alis;
> Monstrum horrendum, ingens: cui quot sunt corpore plumæ
> Tot vigiles oculi subter, mirabile dictu.
> . . . . . .
> Nocte volat cœli medio terræque per umbram
> Stridens."
>
> "If swift
> Of foot, yet swifter with *malicious* wings,
> A monster huge and *shapeless* she, with eyes
> That lurk, but never close, as many eyes
> As feathers on her *trunk*. . . .
> She sweeps at night half way
> 'Twixt heaven and earth, and *buzzes* as she goes."

These examples of inaccurate or tasteless renderings might be continued indefinitely, but enough has been adduced to show the defective scholarship and unrefined poetic feeling with which the translation has been made. Force and spirit are not infrequent, but these go but a little way in making a good version, and they alone will not make this one a rival of the many already before the public.

Captain H. H. Pierce's translation is more unpretending, and, in our opinion, more valuable. It was the work of his leisure hours in garrison, and was a labor of love. It is written in versified prose, a form of translation the capabilities of which have never been sufficiently worked out; in reading it there is some difficulty in avoiding a sing-song incidental to all writing of this sort, but on the whole a better music is conveyed than in the rough-hewn blank-verse which is more commonly the medium of translators. We have noticed some doubtful renderings, but none which it is worth while to specify. It was intended for the author's children to lead them "to a greater zeal in classical pursuits," and it is excellently adapted for such a purpose, as well as for older readers.

The Life and Letters of Madame Bonaparte. By Eugene L. Didier. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879.)—The recent death of Madame Bonaparte, and the still more recent death of Prince Louis Napoleon, and the consequent newspaper gossip and speculation, give this volume the interest of timeliness at the least. The readers of such of Madame Bonaparte's correspondence as has been published lately in *Scribner's Monthly*—quite as much because it was a literary "find," perhaps, as because of its merits as magazine literature—need not, however, look to the additional matter here printed for anything new or different, although at least two-thirds of the book now appears for the first time. There is much repetition in the letters, and Mr. Didier's editing of them seems to indicate that he saw no reason for any real editing at all. His work is, at all events, of the most superficial sort, and bears the same relation to the text that an argument bears to a play. He does, indeed, observe that "this Baltimore girl, married at eighteen and deserted at twenty, seems to have possessed the *savoir vivre* of Chesterfield, the cold cynicism of Rochefoucauld, and the practical economy of Franklin," and he prefaces and supplements the correspondence with an historical account of some length. But the reader would have been quite as well satisfied if more careful journeyman work had replaced his magniloquence. As it is, the reader will have to do his own editing without even the comfort of being able to "skip" with security. And it may be added that the circumstances which give the book its interest of timeliness, united to its previous substantial publication, prevent its having in any noteworthy degree the interest of freshness. Nevertheless, it contains the materials in abundance for an entertaining volume, and has the charm which always attaches to the correspondence of a witty woman—especially if she has had the varied and interesting experience which Madame Bonaparte had in such extraordinary measure. The intimate personal habits of thought and views of life and the world, the whims and peculiarities of individuals with whose exterior life alone history can concern itself, are disclosed with a frankness and naïveté never to be found, of course, in premeditated publications; and it is these, naturally, which form the main attractiveness of the letters. One may know all about the external history of Madame Bonaparte's picturesque career, and still find himself following the intimate narrative of it here given with a new zest and pleasure in the views which its side-lights afford of several characters intrinsically as well as historically interesting.

Practical Boat-Sailing. By Douglas Frazar. (Boston: Lee & Shepard.)—This is a useful little book, evidently written by a sailor. Its purpose is to afford instruction to the amateur yachtsman in the art of handling small craft in inland waters, and there is no attempt made to teach the science of navigation. The names of sails, ropes, and rigs are given and explained, the meaning of the simpler nautical terms stated; and there is much clearly expressed advice to beginners about sailing a boat. The rules of the road at sea are lucidly explained by diagrams, and there is also instruction in the use of charts. Tables are given for determining the distance at which objects on the water can be seen, for finding the difference between the true and apparent direction of the wind, and for ascertaining the length of miles of longitude at different latitudes. The remarks about ballasting a boat, about the management of the sheets, sounding, anchoring, and steering, and the explanations of how to make bowlines, hitches, and knots, are capital. The amateur is shown how to "box his compass," how to throw the log, and how to steer in and out of port by buoys and bearings. There is, finally, a good vocabulary of sea-terms.

The only criticism we have to make is that the author seems over-confident as to the possibility of *teaching* seamanship out of a book. He says the book is written "for the purpose of enabling any person, after a perusal of its pages, to feel confident of handling a boat so as to be perfectly safe." This is to claim too much, for of all arts that of seamanship must depend on experience. Nerve, resource, and presence of mind make the sailor, and these qualities cannot be acquired from books. The author also speaks of pulleys instead of "blocks," which grates on the nautical ear.

The Great Fur Land; or, Sketches of Life in the Hudson's Bay Territory. By H. M. Robinson. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.)—The spirit of trade and adventure which has been the dominating characteristic of the English people for so many centuries, has had no more striking illustration than in the two mammoth corporations which came into existence towards the close of the seventeenth century, under the names of the "United Company of Merchants Trading to the East Indies" and the "Governor and Company of Adventurers of England Trading into Hudson's Bay." Both of these companies are similar in the

great extent of power they have wielded, extending far beyond the mere limits of trade and embracing all the functions of government, in the influence which they have had upon the political fortunes of the mother country, and in their subsequent fate of transferring their lands to the Crown and returning to their normal functions of trading corporations. In these respects they stand without rivals in the history of the world. But no greater contrast can be imagined than the two countries to which the respective companies directed their trading energies. One opened up a warm southern land with all the rich, varied productions of the East, and the other penetrated a howling wilderness extending to the Arctic Ocean, whose only product desired by civilization was furs. One has added nearly two hundred millions of subjects to the English Crown, and thrown the course of English politics into a direction full of complications, of which no man can now foretell the result; the other has acquired and surrendered to the Crown a territory larger by one-third than the whole extent of Europe, but peopled only by a few hordes of savages and a few thousands of such settlers as were imported into it, and their mixed descendants.

It is with this latter company, the lands occupied by it, and the life of its servants and their employés that the present book deals. In an easy, pleasant style of narrative the author describes these cold, barren lands; the modes of travel, by dogs and sledges in winter, by canoes and Red River carts in summer; the organization of the Hudson's Bay Company, the character of its officers and the dreary life which they lead at their remote posts; the thoughtless, devil-may-care nature of the half-breed voyageurs, and the admirable way in which they serve the company's purpose; the Indians living within the company's lands, and their customs and habits. Taken altogether, it gives to persons who have passed their lives in cities or thickly-settled communities a glimpse of a life so wholly different from their own that they will either throw the book aside as containing nothing which can in any way interest them, or else will follow it to the end with the keenest curiosity. The subject is by no means a new one. Its more solid features have been long since presented to the world by McLean's and Martin's accounts of the Hudson Bay Company, by the reports of Dawson's and Hind's explorations, by Archbishop Taché's sketches of the inhabitants; its romance and adventure have been delineated at great length by Butler in his 'Great Lone Land' and 'Wild North Land,' and by other books and sketches. The present book occupies an intermediate place between these; it has little or none of the solid information of the exploration reports, and it is altogether free from the overworked sentiment and doggerel which are so disagreeably frequent in Butler's books. But, on the whole, it seems to us to give a crisper and truer picture of the life in that cold, weird region than any of them. The description of the great autumn hunt of the half-breeds, for example, leaves nothing to be desired in order vividly to portray the whole scene to the mind. The style is generally pleasing, though in a few instances in descriptions of scenery it is a trifle florid.

Lettres de Jean François Ducis. (Les Classiques français, édition nouvelle, publiée sous la direction de M. Paul Albert, Professeur au Collège de France.) (Paris, 1879. 8vo, pp. 390. New York: F. W. Christern.)—The name of Ducis is familiar to all who have studied the career of Shakspere's works in France as that of the author of the wire-drawn French tragedies of "Hamlet" and "Macbeth," in which Talma proved himself the first actor of his time. It may fairly be doubted whether anything more than his name is generally known. To the present edition of his letters M. Paul Albert has prefixed an interesting biographical sketch. Born in 1733, Ducis brought out in 1769 "Hamlet," the first of his eleven tragedies, and, like the most of them, the result of Le Tourneur's translation of Shakspere. As M. Albert aptly says, all that Ducis saw in a play of Shakspere's was a situation, a strong scene, and a moral to be drawn, for all his tragedies are written with distinct moral purpose. The moral of "Hamlet" was the duty of filial devotion. The success of his first play brought him into notice, and the court offered to adopt him as a successor to De Belloy, the author of the royalist "Siége de Calais," and to take him up as a tragic rival to Voltaire. But the gentle and modest nature of Ducis shrank from a courtier's life and he declined. On Voltaire's death he was elected to the vacant chair in the French Academy. The Revolution found him a sincere republican, who followed with interest and hope the career of the young Bonaparte. But when Napoleon seized the supreme power the poet opened his eyes, and his love for the hero gave place to a contempt and hatred of the tyrant. Napoleon, who liked Ducis, tried in vain again and again to bribe him; he offered him the cross of the newly-founded and highly-prized Legion of Honor; he nominated him as Senator, a position to which a fine salary was attached. Ducis was seventy years old and poor, but he declined the offers of the emperor as he had before declined the offers of the king. Ten years later, in 1810, Napoleon tried again, and had the name of Ducis put on the list of authors who were to receive a decennial prize, but again the aged dramatist refused. With Napoleon's favorite actor, Talma, Ducis was most friendly; the tragedian may almost be called a collaborator in the author's plays, so many were his hints and suggestions; and at last, in 1810, Talma's sister married the nephew of Ducis. In his later years (he died at the age of eighty-three) he was almost the sole survivor of his generation, and as such the younger authors looked up to him with veneration and affection, of which a most singular proof was given in 1801, when he brought out his last tragedy, "Fœdor et Wladamir." The play failed the first night, and without consulting him four of the most prominent tragic poets of the time, including Joseph Chénier and Legouvé, the father of the living dramatist, united in revising the piece and in trying to get it into shape, and with such success that on the second performance the tragedy was received with favor, although its life was not long. The two hundred and thirty-five letters M Albert has gathered together show clearly the simple nature of the poet, and occasionally shed a little light on the society and usages of his time. It is sometimes urged as an evidence of the decline of the drama in our day that the scene-painter is unduly important, but Ducis writes to a friend that the scene of his "Abufar" is so fine that it calls forth a round of applause on the rising of the curtain; and this was in 1795.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Alden (Ellen T.), Stories and Ballads for Young Folks	(Am. Book Exchange)
Boardman (Rev. G. D.), Epiphanies of the Risen Lord	(D. Appleton & Co.) $1 25
Bolles (A. S.), Industrial History of the United States	(Henry Bill Pub. Co.)
Cullum (Gen. Geo. W.), Biographical Register of Officers and Graduates of the U. S. Military Academy, 1802-1867, vol. iii	(James Miller) 5 00
D'Anvers (N.), Raphael	(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Dicey (A. V.), Law of Domicil	(Stevens & Sons)
Dowson (Prof. J.), Classical Dictionary of Hindu Mythology, etc	(Trübner & Co.)
Flint (Prof. R.), Anti-theistic Theories	(Scribner & Welford) 4 20
Harrison (J. A.), Spain in Profile	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Head (P. R.), Van Dyck: Frans Hals	(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Holst (Dr. H. von), Constitutional and Political History of the United States, Vol 2, 1828-1846	(Callaghan & Co.)
Longfellow (H. W.), Poetical Works, illustrated, Parts 1-6, swd	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 50
Mollett (J. W.), Rembrandt	(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Meyers (R. C.), Miss Margery's Roses, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 50
Molloy (J. L.), Our Autumn Holiday on French Rivers	(Roberts Bros.) 1 20
New Encyclopædia of Chemistry	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 20 00
Nichol (Prof. J.), English Composition	(Macmillan & Co.) 45
Nicholson (E. B.), The Rights of an Animal	(C. Kegan Paul & Co.)
Oncken (Dr. W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Greece, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Pierce (Capt. H. H.), Rhythmic-Prose Translation of Virgil's Æneid	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Pole (W.), Philosophy of Music	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 3 50
Porter (Mary W.), Poor Papa, swd	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 50
Reception in honor of Rev. O. B. Frothingham, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 55
Rice (A. T.), Essays from the *North American Review*	(D. Appleton & Co.) 2 00
Robinson (H. M.), The Great Fur Land	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Roman Catholicism in the United States	(Authors' Pub. Co.) 1 25
Rood (Prof. O. N.), Modern Chromatics	(D. Appleton & Co.) 2 00
Savage (Rev. M. J.), Life Questions	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 1 00
Sawyer (Rev. L. A.), The Final Theology. Vol. I	(M. B. Sawyer & Co.)
Scoones (W. D.), Goethe's Faust, metrically translated	(Trübner & Co.)
Shakspere and Jonson, Poetical Works, 1 vol	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 75
Skeat (Rev. W. W.), Reprinted Glossaries, xviii.-xxii., swd	(Trübner & Co.)
Souvestre (E.), Attic Philosopher in Paris	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Stern (S. M.), Studien und Plaudereien	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 35
Stimmungsbilder aus dem Vermächtniss einer alten Frau, swd	(C. Reissner & Ganz)
Taylor (Rev. I.), Greeks and Goths	(Macmillan & Co.)
Van Loon (Mrs. E.), Under the Willows: a Tale	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 50
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 24, 1879.

The Week.

THE confidence generally felt that the cases of yellow fever reported last week at Memphis were the first and last, for the present at least, speedily proved ill-founded. The distinction made between "sporadic" and "epidemic" cases of course induced in no one a feeling of security; and as soon as, on Thursday, five new cases and one death were reported the panic but just allayed began again. Mississippi ports were generally closed against Memphis, whose citizens renewed their flight at once, and everywhere the most thorough precautions seem to have been taken. On Friday there were five new cases and one death; on Saturday, seven new cases and one death; on Sunday, ten new cases and four deaths; on Monday, thirty-six new cases and six deaths; and on Tuesday, seven new cases. Still, the Howard Association has not yet assumed the disease to be epidemic, and there are hopes that the vigorous system of quarantine may prevent the plague-proportions which it reached last year. There is, however, a case announced in Shelbyville, Tenn.; but that and a case in Brooklyn, reported Wednesday morning, seem of no consequence.

The condition of the city of Memphis seems to be greatly aggravated by its complete financial paralysis. Owing to its inability to pay its debts, it has in fact for some time ceased to be a municipal corporation, and has sunk to the level of a "taxing district." Its property is, we believe, in the hands of a receiver. Of course under these circumstances it is shorn of most of the rights of self-government, and sanitary work seems out of the question. The *Bulletin* of this city reads it and other parts of the South a sound lesson on the connection between insolvency and yellow fever, which is closer in reality than might at first sight appear. The cities of the South will never really be properly policed and guarded from pestilence until they are filled with a new, progressive, and prosperous population, who will make the necessary improvements, take the necessary precautions, and raise the necessary taxes. But no such population will ever move into the South until the South is made attractive to them; which it never will be as long as the Southerners play fast and loose with their obligations, scale, compromise, and consolidate their debts, and involve themselves further and further in the degradation of a ruined credit. It is certainly not at all unsafe to prophesy that yellow fever and repudiation will both disappear from the South together.

The Pennsylvania Democrats held their convention in Harrisburg last week, and nominated Mr. D. O. Barr for Treasurer. The platform, which is said to have been the work of Judge "Jerry" Black, insists on the subordination of the military to the civil authorities; denounces all interference with "the right to a free ballot"; declares that Mr. Hayes is the "representative of a conspiracy only," and his "claim of right to surround the ballot-boxes with troops and deputy-marshals to intimidate the electors," and his abuse of the veto-power, "an insult and a menace to the country"; affirms that the Democratic party as a whole favors a Constitutional currency of gold and silver, and of paper convertible into coin"; denounces the Republican system of rings, subsidies, and misappropriation of the public moneys; renews to the workingman the party's expression of sympathy for honest labor, "and its promise of protection in its rights"; insists that the railroads of Pennsylvania must "accept the constitutional amendments of 1873"; denounces the recent attempt made "under the personal direction of ruling Republican leaders" to pay for the Pittsburgh riot losses out of the State Treasury; and declares that the present condition of the State finances is "a sufficient illustration of the reckless financial mismanagement of the Republican party." The Greenbackers nominated a candidate on the same day with the Democrats, but it seems to be admitted on all hands that their vote will not this year affect the result.

The chief significance of the Democratic platform lies in the financial plank, which is taken as a formal abandonment by the party of all financial lunacy and a return to the straight and narrow path. The Barr family have always hitherto been greenbackers, and the acceptance by Mr. D. O. Barr of the nomination is therefore considered as a formal recantation through him by the soft-money Democrats. Besides this, the result appears to have been a victory for the Randall-Tilden wing of the party, a victory made doubly sure by the action of the Convention in placing the selection of the next State Committee in the hands of Mr. Barr and the permanent chairman of the Convention. One of the Wallace party offered an amendment to the resolution proposing this, to the effect that the Convention should select a man to manage the campaign, but it failed to secure a majority of the votes. The new State Committee has not been fully made up, but the Randall-Tilden Democrats are believed to be sure of the control of it.

In commenting on the new California constitution we pointed out what seemed to us to have escaped many of its critics, that, instead of talking of the danger of communism, we must recognize the fact that in any community in which the political machinery once actually falls into the hands of a party impregnated with the ideas of Kearney or Justus Schwab, communism is an accomplished fact. A curious illustration of this is given by some recent operations of the Board of Equalization of the city of Toledo. The Nationals control a majority of the Board, and as soon as they got possession they went to work to raise the returns of personal property according to their fancy. According to the Cincinnati *Gazette*, the principles on which the "raising" has been done have been partly political and partly commercial. Democrats are said to be "raised" only slightly, unless they are such Democrats as stand out against both Ewing and the Nationals. Economically, the rule acted upon is to make the "money kings" disgorge. To show how "raising" works, we may mention that some of the returns have been altered as follows: $550 to $30,300, $500 to $22,600, $225 to $15,275, $8,900 to $236,473. This last was in the case of a national banker, a member of a class whom it was found necessary to deal with severely. Another is "raised" from $3,910 to $100,615. Among the merchants, manufacturers, and bankers affected a good deal of consternation has been caused, and they propose to contest the matter in the courts.

Except a spasmodic reference to the stock candidacy of Chief-Justice Church and to Mr. Dorsheimer's forlorn hope, no one has been mentioned for governor among the opponents of the renomination of Governor Robinson during the week. This, both so far as it refers to the Tammany Democrats and to the "machine" Republicans, is tantamount to a confession of weakness and perplexity. Meantime, Governor Robinson's friends have been cheered by an investigation conducted by the *World*, partly on principles of its own, partly in imitation of the similar polling of the country done some time ago by the *Times*. The *World* says that it endeavored to ascertain "the feeling" as to the governor's record and renomination among rural Democrats of prominence who are the reverse of active or "machine" politicians. The replies to the circulars it addressed to these gentlemen were favorable and singularly unanimous; but the *World* maintains that it had no guaranty of this in advance, and addressed its questions impartially. What makes it especially easy to credit this is the circumstance that

there is no earthly reason for any Democrat, not a "machine" politician, to object to the renomination of the Governor. The *Evening Express* of this city, to be sure, being asked by the Utica *Observer* if Tammany Hall would support Mr. Robinson in the event of his nomination, replies confusedly that "we are not a member of Tammany Hall," but that it feels at liberty to prophesy the defection of the entire 60,485 voters who supported Augustus Schell for Mayor. But this dire threat does not strike terror into the hearts of the rural Democrats, who remember that the present management of the *Express*, after vituperating Mr. Tilden most scandalously in 1876 up to the time of his nomination, took all the more credit to itself for supporting him immediately thereafter. Neither does it comfort the *Commercial Advertiser*, which declares that Tammany will swallow anything.

The *World* a short time since published a story furnished it by Mr. John F. Mines (the interviewer who made his first mark by "exposing" Mr. Conkling's views as to his fellow-statesmen in Washington) with regard to the means taken in 1876–7 by Grant and Robeson to preserve the country from violence. Mr. Mines got his information from Mr. Stewart L. Woodford, who was at the time, as he still is, United States District Attorney for the Southern District of New York. According to Mr. Mines, Mr. Woodford told him that after the election in 1876, when civil war was threatened, and it was rumored that in some sequestered retreat Mr. Tilden was preparing to inaugurate "revolution" by taking the oath as President, Mr. Woodford was sent for and informed that the Administration felt that it had need of a man ready for any emergency in New York; that the sort of man wanted was a soldier, a man who had smelled gunpowder, a man ready for bloody work. The bloody work proposed was that if any disturbance was made at 15 Gramercy Square, he should immediately seize Mr. Tilden and convey him on board a swift gunboat, which the energetic Robeson would have in readiness in the harbor, and which should land the traitor at some convenient fort.

Mr. Woodford accepted the trust, and his commission as District-Attorney was at once made out. Fortunately he was spared by Mr. Tilden the necessity of acting upon his instructions. At the time this story appeared Mr. Woodford was in Europe, and therefore on his return he was at once interviewed by a number of reporters to ascertain the exact truth. But now comes the startling part of the whole affair. The Republican papers say that he denies the whole story; the *World* maintains that he substantially admits the truth of the interview with Mr. Mines, though he denies that the Administration proposed to him to abduct Mr. Tilden, or that he was made District-Attorney for that purpose. In other words, the *World's* view of his denial is that he admits that the District-Attorney for the Southern District of New York poured into the credulous ear of Mines a tale made up out of the whole cloth; that he invented this determination of the Administration to "bag" Mr. Tilden, the choice of himself for the work, the swift gunboat and all the other details. The story will no doubt appear next summer in the usual double form of "the true story of the plot to abduct Mr. Tilden" and "another Democratic lie nailed to the counter."

The investigation now going on before Mr. George T. Curtis into the charges against the Sheriff will probably result in his removal by the Governor. The evidence taken has a general tendency to show, what we suppose no one in his senses doubts to be the fact, that the charges of the Sheriff's office have not been regulated by law, but have been a tax graduated partly by custom and partly by the accidental circumstances of each particular case. Whatever political motives there may be at the bottom of the investigation, the system is an altogether bad one and ought to be broken up, and the lawyers who come forward and testify on the subject deserve the thanks of the public for their boldness in doing so; for no small amount of boldness is required in any lawyer to expose any abuse practised in an office like that of the Sheriff. Besides evidence of exorbitant charges, there appear to be also facts looking like a direct fraud in a double payment of the same bills. Ludlow Street Jail seems to be carried on in a way that recalls the days of the old Fleet in London, a condition of things which will not be surprising to any one who remembers the sort of incarceration that Tweed had there. However, this is perhaps the least important of all the subjects under investigation, as a debtor's prison without abuses would probably only be possible in a city governed by "idealists."

The conviction of the negro Cox, of murder in the first degree, shows that in aggravated cases juries may be still relied upon to bring in a fair verdict without regard to sentimental considerations. No doubt the prosecution was helped to obtain a verdict by the callous indifference which the accused displayed. This caused great disgust in the minds of all concerned in the trial, especially in that of Judge Cowing, who addressed a serious remonstrance to the prisoner on the subject in sentencing him. But we think Cox's behavior has been, on the whole, a public service, because it has served to bring out the peculiar cold-blooded hideousness of his crime. In ordinary cases the sympathy of the public at the time of a murder trial is apt to centre about the murderer himself, particularly if he behaves with solemnity and appears to realize the awful nature of his situation. But Cox seems to have been designed by Providence to show the public exactly what sort of character murder implies in persons of his class—that is, in untaught, reckless ruffians, between whom and society there is no barrier possible except that of the criminal law rigidly enforced. We should like to be told by some humanitarian brother what precise steps he would take to improve Cox if, instead of hanging him, society were to undertake to reform him. The case also shows the value of the old principle of Anglo-Saxon law, which makes the taking of life by any one engaged in the commission of a felony murder in the first degree.

The Rapid Transit Commission has made another report to the Mayor and Aldermen, accompanied by an explanatory and apologetic letter. The Commission seems to have been convinced by the extraordinary exhibition of aldermanic virtue last week that it had managed seriously to offend the public sense; and accordingly it pleads in excuse two considerations: first, that it had the power both under the original act and under the Mayor's commission of appointment to lay out another down-town road; and, secondly, that this road was expedient, since the rates charged by the present monopoly are too high, and since the Manhattan Company has shown no disposition to deal generously by the new wards. To this the answer is easy: first, that the Commission was appointed with the express intention that it should confine its labors to the new wards; and, secondly, that it will be hard if better ways than surrendering another avenue and more streets cannot be found of bringing the Manhattan directors and justice into more perfect accord. In other words, the excuse of the Commission is labored and unconvincing; and considering the necessity it was under for furnishing an excuse that would hold water, so to speak, we are only surprised that some one of the daily papers has not printed the names of its members in the full-faced type of unenviable notoriety. Perhaps it was not worth while, as the Aldermen show no signs of softening towards Mr. Vanderbilt, and until they do, the reports and letters of the Rapid Transit Commission are of course only so much waste-paper.

A correspondent of the New York *Times*, writing from Alabama, describes the so-called "Black Belt," or the cotton-raising district in the south-central portion of the State, whose black population outnumbers the white from two to four to one. In this district the Ku-klux operations of 1870–74 effectively drove the blacks out of politics and the Republican party out of existence, and left the former nothing to do, in the words of this correspondent, but to "apply themselves steadily to their work and secure property." This, strange as it may appear to Mr. Boutwell or Mr. Dawes, they were allowed to do; and, stranger still, they actually thought it the best way to regain their political rights—better even than relying

on their party or on the Administration at Washington. "The great cry made against them as a controlling element in politics, was that they possessed no property; that they did not sympathize or have any interest in common with the property-owners of the State." Whether they saw the justice of this complaint or not, they perceived that the difficulty was one which they themselves could overcome, and the result has been self-government in the best sense of the term. They have become the owners of valuable and well-stocked farms, their credit is good for all needed advances when gathering their crops, and in default of free schools maintained by the State for the common benefit, they are able and willing to support excellent schools of their own, employing both white and colored teachers. Their churches, too, are well sustained and attended. They understand the advantages of co-operation in cultivating plantations belonging to the whites, as well as in purchasing and dividing them, and they are so well contented with their condition and prospects that the "exodus" excitement "did not affect Alabama in the least," beyond making the whites more considerate. The growing intelligence and prosperity of the blacks are as observable in the cities as in the country. On the whole, it is impossible not to agree with the correspondent in regarding as "reasonable," and characterized by "much good sense," the abnegation which has led them to submit to their own exclusion from the control of public affairs, with a view to "providing their children with the means of asserting these rights hereafter."

In the financial markets it has been a week of activity for all investment securities. U. S. bonds were strong in price, and the demand for them exceeded the market supply. This was the result of the final closing out by sale to J. S. Morgan & Co., of London, of the entire holding of the First National Bank syndicate, which had been reduced to $12,500,000. This transaction between New York and London not only advanced the price of U. S. bonds, but it lowered the price of sterling bills, since to the extent of $12,500,000 it lessened the demand for remittances to cover called bonds. The settlements during the week of the enormous bond transactions between the Treasury and the Syndicate were all so smoothly made that there was not a ripple in the general money market, which remained easy at 2 to 3 per cent. The failure of the European harvests has directed attention to our own, as it is evident that Europe will be a free buyer. Accounts as to the Western crops are conflicting, and they appear to be colored to suit Chicago and New York speculation; but it is evident that there will not be what may be called a failure of our crops, and that they will in amount not vary much from an average yield. If there is such a yield full prices are expected, which mean good returns to the farmers, without, however, implying increased tonnage for the railroads. Silver in London has declined to 51½*d.* per ounce, and the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar has fallen to 87 cents ($0.8701).

The Fourth of July was unconsciously celebrated in England by a debate in the House of Commons on the agricultural distress, in the course of which it was admitted that America was underselling the home food-producers and the manufacturers alike, and that the price of food in England must hereafter be "the least price at which American food, including cost of freight and transport, could be supplied there with a profit to the importer." These were the words of Mr. Chaplin, on a motion for a royal commission to enquire into the depressed condition of the agricultural interest. He referred to the failure of the expectations and predictions of what free-trade would do for this interest, and while not professing to be in favor of protection, hinted that the commission might find it a necessary remedy. No provision could be made against the bad weather which caused bad yields, and if the low prices were equally beyond control, the failure of agriculture in the United Kingdom was inevitable. Mr. Bright confirmed Mr. Chaplin's statements as to the alarming competition of American produce, and said he hoped the commission would enquire how it happened that the farmers were afraid of corn and cattle brought four or five thousand miles across the Atlantic. Liverpool is now as near the wheat-fields of Minnesota as New York lately was, and the fate of New England agriculture, under the influence of Western production, might overtake the English system. Mr. Bright compared the burdens of the farming classes in the two countries—ours having "no rent, no tithes, no poor-rates"—and declared the fundamental difference between them to be that in America the farmer owns the land he tills, while the English laws, "as they now are," would make the laborer's condition perpetual. He hoped the commission would not be afraid to examine the land monopoly, and declared his belief that "it would increase the price of land all over the country if you would abolish all the ancient and stupid and mischievous legislation by which it is embarrassed in every step you take in dealing with the land." The motion was agreed to.

The Ferry laws regulating the freedom of instruction continue to occupy the attention of the French Chambers. The author of them himself made in a recent sitting an able defence of them, maintaining the validity of the legislation from 1790 to 1825 prohibiting religious congregations, as shown by the uniform decisions of the courts, and pointing out that the law of 1837, introduced by M. Villemain in the House of Peers with the support of Thiers, Guizot, and the then Duc de Broglie, refused the privilege of teaching to members of unauthorized congregations. Passing on to the question of the urgency of his own measures, he gave some statistics of the increase of the congregations since the eve of the Revolution of '89, and especially from 1861 to 1877. Those of males had multiplied in the latter period from 1,706 establishments to 3,184, and from 11,877 persons to 22,207; those of females from 90,343 persons to 127,000, of whom 14,000 belonged to non-authorized congregations. The Jesuits, on their part, who numbered 200 in 1845, and 1,085 twenty years later, now (*actuellement*) number 1,509, while their residences have been widely extended in the departments, and have even been carried to the colonies. M. Ferry created a genuine sensation by quoting from the text-books which his inspectors obtained, not without difficulty, from some of the leading establishments. These were proved to be filled with praise of feudal rights, whitewash of the Inquisition, justification of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and denunciation of the Revolution. A 'Contemporaneous History,' by M. Chantil, inculcates the doctrine of the submission of the State to the Church, calls civil marriage a species of legal concubinage, and religious toleration a *nécessité de circonstance*, and a sign of the weakening of authority. These books have hitherto escaped scrutiny, and as they attack the body of fundamental principles which the State (as the Republicans understand it) is bound to defend and not allow to be contested, they are worth a good many arguments to the cause of the Minister of Public Instruction.

It is perhaps to be wondered at that the Stalwart conception of the State and its functions has not caused some of our Southern text-books to be cited in Congress in proof of the failure of Mr. Hayes's policy. Mr. Blaine used one the other day out of pure malice, to disturb the equanimity of Mr. Voorhees, who suddenly found himself called upon to deny that the Indiana volunteers were cowardly at Buena Vista, as certain portions of the Southern youth are now being taught to learn by rote. No doubt, if Mr. Hoar's plan of a Government educational subsidy in proportion to the illiteracy of the several States prevails, we shall have in due time complaint of the instruction in regard to the causes and incidents of the rebellion, and the constitutionality and justice of its suppression, and the validity of the Amendments and of Mr. Hayes's title to the Presidency, which some of the Southern partakers of the national bounty may be tolerating or encouraging. On this as well as on other accounts it is to be hoped that the manufacture by the State of its own text-books, which is being attempted in one or two quarters at the North, may be abandoned. While every civilized society is full of "lost causes," political and religious, peace not less than truth is best subserved by decentralizing the instruction given in the public schools as much as possible.

"MACHINE" POLITICS AND THE GOVERNORSHIP.

IT is obvious already, from the discussion of the subject in the Democratic press, that the Tammany Hall faction has little or no hope of defeating the nomination of Mr. Robinson as the candidate of the party for governor. The *World* has published within a week or two a quantity of replies to a circular sent out by it to "leading politicians" through the State, who all declare with one voice that he is the only possible candidate, that his popularity with Democrats and "no-party" voters is unbounded, and that even by Republicans his administration is conceded to have been successful. Under ordinary circumstances we should not attach much importance to such information as this, but we believe it is corroborated by all sorts of other evidence. Indeed, the Tammanyites have not as yet been able to bring any one into the field against him, much as they would like to do so. Mr. William Dorsheimer, who has made a good "record" as Lieutenant-Governor, was a possible candidate until recently, but his chances have apparently been ruined by one of the most comical accidents which have befallen a politician of late years. Being charged with the duty of delivering the "long talk" at Tammany Hall on the 4th of July, he was so injudicious as to refer to the danger of popular education making the masses discontented with their lot, and assured his audience that the differences of "condition," which he added were every day getting wider and deeper, were the best guarantee against any misfortune of the kind. Now this, which would have been harmless speculation in a newspaper or in an "Old Bay State" lecture, was in Tammany Hall little better than treason; for the theory of Tammany government is that there are no differences of social condition in the United States, and that Augustus Schell, John Kelly himself, and the last naturalized immigrant from Ireland all stand on exactly the same social plane. This pleasant illusion, of course, is not carried into private life, where any assertion of such social equality would be regarded by a Democratic statesman much as it would be by a Republican; but on the stump and in Tammany it is absolutely necessary to keep it up. Mr. Dorsheimer has made several attempts to explain away his unfortunate language, and his apologists have even undertaken to show that by differences of "condition" he meant differences in the condition of the European monarchies and the American Republic; but all to no purpose. It is generally felt that the language could be effectively "used against" Mr. Dorsheimer on the stump, and he could be held up to scorn, or at least suspicion, as not a "Democrat at heart," and as being engaged in an attempt, under cover of a profession of Democratic principles, to introduce European ideas "in our midst."

Another difficulty which the Kellyites experience in getting a candidate who can make a running before the convention is that Mr. Robinson has fairly earned, as we just now said, a substantial popularity throughout the State. He has done this by very simple means—that of honestly using his powers for the benefit of the public. He is not in any respect a statesman; indeed he is a man of narrow-minded views on some points; but he has had the wisdom to see what very few governors of this State have seen, that what the public needs far more than brilliant schemes of economic reform, or revisions or codifications of the laws, or legislative innovations, is the honest enforcement of the laws that we now have on the statute-book, and the watchful supervision of the annual work of the Legislature. The community of this State has been ever since the war in the position of a very rich corporation continually increasing in wealth and extending its business, but in constant danger of being plundered by its directors. The first necessity for it is to have a manager who will protect it from spoliation. This is precisely what the public here has found in Mr. Robinson, a shrewd, hard-headed lawyer, thoroughly familiar with all the tricks and devices of politicians, and altogether too honest to allow them to have their way. His use of the veto power is a striking illustration of this. There is no power more serviceable to protect the public than this, and none that the average politician more dislikes to exercise, because it is always sure to offend those interested in the measures vetoed. To use it, as Governor Robinson has steadily done, to defeat a very large proportion of the acts passed at Albany, and to make himself really, instead of nominally, a branch of the Legislature, required no small amount of courage. The result may be seen in the steadily diminishing volumes of laws passed in this State; and it must be remembered that with a legislature such as ours a diminution in the amount of legislation means a diminution in the amount of bad legislation.

That Mr. Robinson is the best candidate that the "Tilden" wing of the Democratic party can put forward this fall seems to be beyond doubt, and this brings us to the question to which the Republican press does not appear to be giving the attention which the matter deserves—we mean their own nomination for governor. The election in this State this fall will be for them one of the most important political events of the year, as on it will turn the possibility of carrying the State next year in the Presidential election. For though just at present everything appears to favor them, the loss of New York next year might be quite enough to decide the result, and the adoption of a hard-money platform by the Democrats in Pennsylvania shows that they are beginning to learn something from their disastrous blunders of the past year. In other words, the Republicans will make a great mistake if they count on the folly of the extra session to help them too far, and if they wish to make sure of a Democratic defeat in 1880 it is absolutely essential that they should make a vigorous effort in New York this fall.

Now, a vigorous effort may be made by them in either one of two ways. They may put up a strong candidate of their own, a man of character and reputation, or they may try to take advantage of the hostility between the Tildenites and the Kellyites to split the vote of the Democrats and get in a candidate of their own. There are good reasons to fear that they are much more likely to take the latter course than the former one.

In the first place, the Conklingites are naturally averse to putting forward any man of real distinction and merit as candidate for governor, because such a man would be dangerous to the existence of the "machine" which now manages the Republican party in this State. The "machine" politicians cannot afford to nominate as a candidate a man who might develop such a genuine popularity in a contest as to impair the control by them of Republican votes. It seems far simpler to nominate a man of neutral character of the "available" sort, counting upon him to poll the regular party strength, and relying on a split between the Tammanyites and Tildenites to draw off strength from the regular Democratic nominee, or helping the split by one of those adroit bargains at which the Republican managers in this city are such adepts.

It is precisely this sort of a campaign that the Republicans cannot really afford to undertake in this State this fall, and we wish we could believe that the leaders of the party were sagacious enough to perceive it. But the Republican managers have been so long accustomed to regard their party as necessarily representing to the average voter the cause of reform and good government, that they apparently have wholly failed to observe that in New York within the last few years all this has been wholly changed. Down to the time of the overthrow of the Tweed Ring, and even later, almost all the hopes of good government in the city and State were centred in the Republican party, and most reforms in the administration of affairs were carried out by the reformers securing in addition to the natural support of the Republicans the temporary assistance of some Democratic faction. This lasted until the complete establishment of the Conkling "machine" during the Grant régime, and since that the connection between the Republican party and reform in the State has gradually been growing less and less distinct until it has finally disappeared altogether. The political career of the Republican *management* in the State and city since that time has simply been one of intrigue and barter of offices, not excelled in depravity by anything ever done by Tammany or anti-Tammany. That it should have so long managed to persuade the regular Republican voters that their operations are conducted in the interest of reform, is a singular instance

of the powerful effect of party traditions. While the Republican management has been sinking lower and lower every year, the so-called "Tilden" wing of the Democrats have really managed to give the State and city some very good government. And it is natural that this should be the case, for the "Tilden" Democrats are simply the most enlightened and honest leaders of the party in the State, who stand with reference to "Tammany" in precisely the position that the better class of Republicans stand to the "machine." Their connection with the Tilden campaign of 1876, of course, has nothing to do with this; but the fact that they have gradually come to represent to the public and the press the idea of good government and administration within the State, can hardly be disputed. It is this fact that the Republicans have got to consider in their campaign to regain the control of New York this fall. If they are to have the least chance of carrying this State, it will not do for them to rely on the party traditions any longer to help them through. Of course the difficulty of nominating any but a "machine" politician this year will be greater than ever, but we think that Republicans who are not connected with or enslaved by the "machine," ought not to conceal from themselves to what sort of an end "machine" politics are bringing them in this State. On many accounts one would like to see a strong Republican governor and legislature elected this fall. It would ensure the defeat of Tilden's nomination in 1880, and would make it absolutely necessary for the Democrats, and consequently the Republicans, to put forward their best man for next year's campaign. But it must be confessed that it is easier to see reasons why it is desirable than to see means by which it can be done. The complete silence of the Republican press on the subject shows pretty conclusively that the Conklingites control the whole matter, and that discussion is regarded as out of the question. If it is so, it is of course perfectly clear that the only way for independent Republicans to manifest their displeasure at this condition of affairs is to desert their ticket.

THE LATE BRAZILIAN CRISIS.

ACCORDING to the charter of the Polytechnic School in Rio the Government has the appointment of its director, but in case of the director's absence the law provides that the oldest professor shall act as such. The permanent director being in Europe, Dr. Galvão was *ex-officio* presiding over the faculty when the Minister of Public Education ordered him to enforce at once some of the reforms promulgated last April, which refer not only to the Polytechnic School, but also to all "superior education" in Brazil. Among these reforms were some with which Dr. Galvão and other professors were far from sympathizing—as, for instance, the abolition of the oath of fidelity to the Roman Catholic religion, which has heretofore been exacted from those about to obtain diplomas. The acting director therefore summoned the faculty together to discuss the enforcement of the reforms. The faculty by a large majority decided to obey the order of the Government, but the minister relieved Dr. Galvão from duty as director and appointed to the place a professor from another institution. The faculty thereupon refused to acknowledge the appointment, on the ground that it was illegal, and that by the constitution of the Empire it was a crime to obey illegal orders. The students, much as they sympathized with the Liberal reforms of the minister, joined their professors, and in a body went to the Senate Chamber and cheered the two senators who attacked the minister two days after the dismissal of Dr. Galvão. The senators—two very ordinary politicians—addressed the students *from the portico of the Senate*, and the whole city of Rio was thrown into much agitation by these events.

Now, the Minister of Public Education had been for some time making himself very obnoxious to the Cabinet, not only for his too radical reforms in matters regarding his own department, but also for his too defiant position towards the Senate, the Conservative majority of which the Government, backed up by a Liberal Chamber of Deputies, needs to handle delicately in order to carry on the great electoral reform now under discussion. Besides these reasons, Councillor Leoncio is but a second-rate party-man, and the new Secretary of the Treasury, the most influential of the Liberal politicians, found great fault with him and was only too glad to throw him overboard. The premier asked him to resign, and upon his refusal presented to the Emperor the decree of his dismissal, which was signed, according to constitutional usages in Brazil. Councillor Leoncio had very properly objected that his colleagues were aware of his intentions and acts regarding the Polytechnic School, and that they, as well as the Emperor, had approved of them. The premier, however, maintained that he and the other ministers assumed that the dismissal of Dr. Galvão had not been illegal.

When these facts were announced in the Chamber of Deputies there had been a great change in public sentiment regarding the whole matter. It would seem that the first act of the Government should have been the reappointment of Dr. Galvão, or else the dismissal of the director of the school, now in Europe, and the appointment of a new one. But the Government did neither thing. It confided the school to an outsider, just as the ex-minister had done. The faculty again refused to acknowledge the appointment, and the agitation by the students continued to be very intense, the Government being obliged to suspend the whole school for thirty days. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the session of the Chamber in which the Ministry, as reconstituted, gave explanations of the case, was one of the most violent in the history of parliamentary government in Brazil. The people in the galleries hissed the ministers, and the confusion was such that the Speaker was compelled to interrupt the session. The excitement was intensified when it was discovered that the ministers did not return to the Chamber upon its reassembling.

It is worthy of remark that the disorder was caused altogether by the people in the galleries, and principally by the students and their friends. The Brazilian House of Deputies, having only one hundred and twenty deputies, is not very difficult of management by the presiding officer, inasmuch as it is composed in a great majority of members favorable to the Government, in whose hands, after all, is the police of the House itself. But the people who habitually frequent the galleries are very inflammable. They are the "practical workers" out of office, men only too anxious to obtain from some of the hot-headed deputies of the Opposition the signal to cause a tumult. The material that furnishes these parliamentary listeners is very abundant in Rio, and the Government is always very cautious in its selection of the means to suppress any acts of hostility from them; for the fact is that, whatever may have been said of the meekness of the Brazilians, they are nearly as excitable as the average Spanish-American, and the Emperor, who has ever been proud that his country, because it is an empire, is not subject to the chronic revolutionary disease of its neighbors, is always fearful of riots, mobs, and whatever may be construed abroad as revolution. Moreover, the Emperor knows very well that it was an orderly mob of Rio that compelled his father, the founder of the monarchy, to abdicate in April, 1831. Dom Pedro, therefore, is rather deferential to the Rio mob.

It is unnecessary to show at length how precarious is the condition of affairs in a country controlled by the mob-rule of its capital—a country whose senators address a parcel of revolutionary students while the session is going on in the same building. The recent travels of Dom Pedro, and the respectable show of Brazil in the Philadelphia Exhibition, have produced a wrong impression of the country not only here but in Europe. The truth about the condition of the Empire is anything but agreeable. Its sole industry is taxed enormously, both by the system of labor and by the mismanagement of the finances. Coffee pays about thirteen per cent. of export duty; and the non-existence of a territorial tax, combined with the duty on the production and the institution of slavery, acts as a premium to encourage idleness. The currency of the country is depreciated about thirty per cent., and a deficit of twenty-two millions of dollars is announced for the current fiscal year. Public education is as yet very backward. For the ten millions of inhabitants there are hardly 5,000 schools. Parliamentary government is almost a mockery. The ministers designate beforehand who shall

be elected as deputy, and the ministers are made by the Emperor and the politicians in Rio. Reform after reform is decreed, but the mass of the people never understand the changes, which of course are never put to a practical test. The statesmen are impracticable when patriotic; but they are seldom patriotic, being more engaged in procuring places for themselves, their brothers, uncles, and nephews, than with the public good. If to all that we add the very low condition, both moral and mental, of the Catholic clergy, mostly made up of ignorant and debased Portuguese and Italian priests, we shall have given a true sketch of the present state of Brazil.

The Brazilian constitution, which dates from 1824, has not been amended since 1834, when the attempt was made to give to the provinces the little self-government they now enjoy. But the Emperor is just now deeply anxious to see the fundamental law so altered as to limit the right of suffrage to those only who have a net annual income of two hundred dollars. Dom Pedro has probably experienced great difficulty in playing the rôle of a constitutional monarch in a country whose uneducated voters are so pliable in the hands of the ministers and politicians. He has very likely interfered in political contests much more than it would be safe to let his inexperienced daughter do after him. She is said not to be very popular in her own country, and is married to a French prince, the Count d'Eu, who is certainly distasteful to the Brazilians. Now, nothing could show better the confusion of parties in the Empire than the fact that the constitutional reform, whose object is to disfranchise thousands of Brazilians, is being carried on by a Liberal ministry. The present Government has refused even to allow an amendment making Protestants eligible as deputies to the Legislature, and yet for nearly fifty years the Liberals have been combating for the separation of church and state and the complete political equality of all sects. They are sacrificing all their faith to an inordinate desire for power. They are doing nothing to lift their country from the torpid condition in which it unfortunately lies.

THE DECAY OF THE POLYNESIAN.

AMONG the New-Zealanders, Mr. Darwin tells us (in 'The Descent of Man,' Part I. c. vii.), "it has hitherto been found impossible to take an actual census." Their more tractable kindred of Hawaii are, on the contrary, friendly to the census-taker, and they watch the spectacle of their own decline in numbers with a very intelligent interest. The latest enumeration of the people, that of December 27, 1878, lies before us. It is the eighth of the official censuses of the group, the previous enumerations having been made in 1832, 1836, 1850, 1853, 1860, 1866, and 1872 respectively. The present figures give us the means of studying the movement of the population in Hawaii during the past six years, and the apparent tendency of the movement for the future.

In the first place, while the total population of the group has made a slight gain (1,088), the decrease of the aborigines continues steadily and rapidly, though less rapidly than heretofore. In 1866 the pure aborigines numbered 57,125; in 1872, 49,044; in 1878, 44,088—the diminution being nearly fourteen and ten per cent. in the two sexennial periods respectively. Other Polynesians have been exterminated, like the unfortunate Tasmanians, by "hunting" at the hands of the English colonists, or more than decimated, like the New-Zealanders, in fighting them. The Hawaiian is being peaceably extinguished. The census of 1832 showed an aboriginal population of 130,000, more than two-thirds of which has disappeared under entirely peaceful civilization in the course of forty-six years.

The sight is one of some interest, scientific and other. We may even admit that it has a sentimental interest. If one is impressed by the extinction of a plant or a bird, how much more noticeable is the passing away of a finely-endowed race! The Polynesians are taller and the Hawaiians physically stronger, according to the measurements in Topinard's 'Anthropology,' than any European people, and their intellectual and moral character is more interesting than it has generally been represented to be. But the alteration of character and the consequent destruction of the people which is occurring in the Hawaiian group is happening throughout Polynesia wherever civilization has been introduced, while isolated communities, as on Pitcairn's Island, have multiplied rapidly; and there is an irony in the circumstance that in the one Polynesian country where the European civilization has been accepted without resistance, where the merchant's and the missionary's success has been the most vaunted and the most complete—precisely on that spot the Polynesian is the most rapidly passing away. Kuakini, the old converted governor of Hawaii, said in all simplicity to a missionary, the Rev. J. P. Green, "Why did not our children die as frequently in the time of our dark-heartedness as they now do?" "The question puzzled me," said Mr. Green.

It is one that has been nowhere asked more seriously than by observers upon the spot. The *Hawaiian Spectator* for January, 1838, for instance, contains a patiently reasoned article by the Rev. Artemas Bishop, a missionary then of twenty-five years' residence, and an intelligent writer, entitled "An enquiry into the causes of decrease in the population of the Sandwich Islands." Mr. Bishop enumerates first the causes which had been in operation from antiquity—namely, poverty, oppression by the chiefs, neglect and consequent mortality of children, infanticide, and unrestrained licentiousness. All these, however, he properly dismisses as quite insufficient to account for the more recent decay of the people, for these causes were in full operation before the arrival of the whites, and it has never been shown (though it has been argued) that the extinction of the population had then begun. The very practice of infanticide was, on the contrary, a cruel, but in one sense a natural, check upon a redundant population; it was the rude precursor of the checks pointed out by Malthus as in action under civilization, such as late marriages and the limitation of the number of children. Often, too, it was the fate of the Hawaiian child to perish from neglect; yet this was not so much due to the absence, as the missionaries supposed, of natural affection on the part of the parents as to its diversion into other channels. The Hawaiian mothers who would neglect, or even in a fit of passion destroy, their children, might be seen lavishing their tenderness upon "fat pigs, which ever and anon they take in their arms and press to their bosoms to still their deafening and prolonged lamentations" (Jarves, in *Hawaiian Spectator*, 1838). They would even give nurse to these favorite animals; pet dogs, too, actually supplanted the children in some cases, and these animals are still such favorites on the islands that no inconsiderable part of the Hawaiian revenue, until lately, was derived from a dog-tax.

Coming to the more recent causes of extinction, Mr. Bishop and the island writers in general find them two in number, alcohol and syphilis. Some years ago a series of 116 questions was addressed by Mr. R. C. Wyllie, for many years the Minister of Foreign Relations, to the various missionaries and planters resident in the group, with a view to obtaining a better "knowledge of the character, the capacity, and the wants of the people"; upon which knowledge, added the minister, "I consider that all good government must be founded." The now almost inaccessible document which contains the answers to these questions is perhaps the most important single source of information regarding the Hawaiian people. Among the answers to the 73d question, "Causes of the decrease of the population," we find the following in addition to those of the account just mentioned: 1. The change from native to foreign clothing; 2. Commerce, inducing the natives to stint their food in order to buy fine clothes; 3. Epidemics of foreign diseases; 4. Habits of licentiousness, . . . "often commenced at the age of two or three years"; 5. Barrenness; 6. "The mysterious will of God." If to these various maleficent causes we add that of the intellectual disturbance set up by a too rapid civilization, we shall have a pretty full list of the assignable causes of the Polynesian's decay. As in Vancouver Island (according to Mr. Sproat, quoted by Mr. Darwin), the natives "become bewildered and dull by the new life around them; they lose the motives for exertion, and get no new ones in their place." But the prepotent cause of the Polynesian's decay, though already named, has not been distinctly recognized as prepotent by the missionary observers.

Recent science, however, gives us a pretty clear answer to the question. In the first place, the Hawaiians had lived under uniform conditions for an indefinite time, and had acquired with an approximately perfect fitness or adjustment to those conditions the strictly correlated unfitness or weakness to resist the effects of any sudden change in the environment. Mr. Herbert Spencer tells us that the life and health of any organized body imply an equilibrium between the external or "incident" forces and the forces of the organization. The danger of this situation, in Mr. Spencer's view, is thus summarized by Dr. H. M. Lyman: "Exposed to a uniform succession of similar incidences, the living organism becomes exceedingly strong in its power of resisting the impact of that particular group of forces; but, experiencing no need of adjustment against other kinds of incident force, it becomes less and less complex in

its structure, and correspondingly less capable of resisting the shock of new and unexpected modes of motion" (Chicago *Medical Journal*, July, 1878). In a word, the constitution of the savage, however strong it may be at home, is fatally weak against foreign dangers. The first of these has been imported epidemic disease, which has already destroyed a large part of the Polynesian peoples. Beginning with the one which is the earliest introduced, the Hawaiians have acquired scarcely more fame as a civilized than as a syphilized race. The disease has spent its force of late years, but it was formerly very destructive. And even the milder epidemics are highly fatal when first introduced. The present writer saw the Hawaiians decimated by their first epidemic of measles, and far more severely treated soon afterward by the small-pox, which in 1853 ravaged the island like the plague; in the district of Ewa, for instance, near Honolulu, it destroyed 1,200 natives out of a total population of 2,800. The mortality in our community is about nine per cent. of the whole number of cases. More lately leprosy has become a formidable scourge; the disease is reported as infectious, increasing, and absolutely incurable. If to this list we add phthisis and alcoholism, we shall have mentioned the ailments that have been chiefly fatal under the new *régime*. Yet these are no longer the most effective cause of the decay of the island population; for the "tolerance" of most of them is now established—the weaker individuals and families, that is to say, have perished and the stronger remain. Nor are the ancient checks to population still in force. Oppression and infanticide have ceased, and rewards are offered by the Government for fertility, native families in which there are more than three children being exempted from paying taxes.

What, then, after these exclusions, is the persistent cause of the withering away of the people? The title of one of Mr. Darwin's discussions gives the answer—*sterility from changed conditions*. It has long been known that many plants and animals suffer from infertility as the result of even a slight change in their way of living. Mr. Darwin investigates the subject at length in the chapter just mentioned. Now, among the Hawaiians the changes are particularly great, because they have been welcomed and not resisted. Their food, their dwellings, their avocations, their dress, all have been modified where they have not been radically changed. The irregular use of dress was a fertile source of disease. The writer remembers seeing the native church-goers, when caught in a shower on approaching the meeting-house, throw off their finery, men and women together, and enter the building almost *in puris naturalibus*, with their coats and gowns in bundles under their arms. Within, the voice of the preacher could hardly be heard above the coughing and sneezing of the crowded audience. Carelessness in wearing wet clothes has been very fatal to them. The intellectual changes, less superficially conspicuous, were not less sudden and profound. To pass rapidly from the life of nature to the ideas of Puritanism; to abandon their old games, their songs, and even the wearing of flowers, at the instance or command of the missionaries, as a necessary breaking-off with heathen usages; to undergo the experiment of remaking their whole life, from the exterior details of it to the very processes of their consciousness, and to join, as very many of them joined, with pathetic simplicity in the attempt to transform their own bodies and souls—this was a more radical experiment than the savage had ever before undergone. Savage warriors were transmuted into Congregational deacons. In the consciousness of a Hawaiian prince, born under the old ideas and half converted to the new order of things, what an opportunity for a dramatic poet remains! All this transformation, however salutary it may have been for their souls, was less favorable for the long continuance of the Hawaiians in the church militant. The sum of the changes introduced, physical and spiritual, was overwhelming. One of Mr. Darwin's informants, Dr. T. M. Coan, says that "the natives have undergone a greater change in their habits of life in the course of fifty years than Englishmen during a thousand years" ('Descent of Man,' p. 187, Am. ed.)

In the infertility resulting from these changed conditions the sufficient cause of the decay of the Hawaiian is found. The number of children under six years of age is but 13 per cent., and under fifteen but 28 per cent. of the total population; and these figures include the children of the prolific foreign and half-breed families. In the United States the corresponding percentages are 17 and 41. The deaths far outnumber the births. But if we ask the difficult question: How do changed conditions of life produce infertility? we ask what cannot in the present state of our knowledge be fully answered. These conclusions of the matter, however, seem clear: 1. During the earlier years of the Polynesians' contact with foreigners the introduced diseases are the agencies most fatal to the islanders; "not civilization, but the vices of civilization," as the missionaries express it. 2. The introduced diseases, in course of time, spend their force, but a permanent and fatal cause of decay remains. It is infertility resulting from too rapidly changed conditions of life. The vices of civilization indeed begin the destruction; but the acceptance of civilization continues it, blighting the life of the aborigines at its source. Infertility will finish the work which disease began. It is before civilization and Christianity itself that the Polynesian is passing away.

THE RESULTS OF THE WAR WITH AFGHANISTAN.

London, June 25, 1879.

IN my former letter I showed that the war in Afghanistan had been undertaken to acquire a "scientific frontier." This was Lord Beaconsfield's statement of its object, and it is most important to bear it in mind. All the stories transmitted to Europe of insults inflicted on us by the late Amir, Shir Ali, of refusals to receive our mission, and so forth, are fictions. Unless the late Amir was prepared to concede to us as much of his dominions as the present Government considered requisite for the construction of a "scientific frontier," the war was determined upon from the hour when Lord Lytton was nominated Governor-General. It is a fact well known in India that eighteen months before the Russian embassy appeared in Cabul the Commissariat Department had received detailed instructions to prepare supplies for an invasion of Afghanistan. This "scientific frontier" we are now required to believe consists in the right to place five hundred troops in two valleys having no lateral communication with each other, and of which one—the Kurram Valley—is a mere *cul-de-sac* hemmed in on all sides by hostile and turbulent tribes, and the other—the Peshin Valley—is separated by nearly three hundred miles of difficult country from its base in British India. In return for this "scientific frontier" we have undertaken to pay the Amir, Yakub Khan, a yearly subsidy of sixty thousand pounds and to guarantee his dominions against all foreign aggression. Such is the lame and impotent conclusion which the Government and its supporters declare to be a "brilliant success."

They, of course, know well enough that it is not so, but it is the peculiarity of Lord Beaconsfield's Government that they never foresee the consequences of their actions. They rush into enterprises blind to the difficulties in their way, deaf to the warnings of those who can see; and so when the difficulty actually confronts them they are capable of nothing beyond backing out of the enterprise in a *sauve qui peut* fashion. This is what has happened in Afghanistan. It was in vain that from all sides voices were raised warning the Government that neither the finances nor the military resources of India were sufficient for an invasion and conquest of Afghanistan. They would pay no heed. Their "scientific frontier" they were determined to have. It was a fine election cry with which to go to the country. But when they had placed four thousand men in Candahar and ten thousand in Jalalabad they found they could do no more. At immense cost they might occupy Cabul also, but an occupation of Cabul would no more subdue the Afghans than an occupation of Jalalabad, and sooner or later the heavy financial drain upon India would compel them to evacuate the ground they occupied. What the Government would not learn from the warnings of others they were compelled to acknowledge from the teaching of experience. Then, as usual, arose the cry of *sauve qui peut*. Make any peace you can; only get us out of this difficulty, and whatever arrangement is made our faithful supporters in the press will be instructed to proclaim with one voice that this, and nothing but this, is the "scientific frontier."

The territory over which Yakub Khan nominally holds sway is about the size of France. The population is about four millions, collected in the few cultivable parts, the remainder of the country consisting of foodless deserts or ranges of bare, stony hills. It is menaced on two sides. On the west, about a thousand miles from British India lies the rich province of Herat, which the shahs of Persia consider to be rightfully theirs. On the north, at the foot of the Hindu Kush, and entirely cut off from British India, lies the province of Balkh, which is divided from Russia in Asia by the River Oxus. This treaty pledges us to defend Herat against Persia and Balkh against Russia. And as, if either is attacked, it is certain that both would be simultaneously—Persia acting under the instigation of Russia—this treaty pledges us to declare war against Russia and Persia in defence, not of the Afghans, but of Yakub Khan. An obligation such as this is similar to the obligation undertaken in the Anglo-Turkish Convention. It is undertaken with the

hope that we shall never be called upon to redeem it, and with the consciousness that if called upon we shall beyond a doubt repudiate. In truth, the defence either of Herat or Balkh from India is physically impossible, and, however much we might desire to do so, we could not get an army of any size to either of these places. So far, therefore, the treaty, beyond the stigma it affixes on British candor and honesty, may be regarded as inoperative for good or evil—a mere unmeaning form of words. It is the indirect consequences of an advance into Afghanistan which are fraught with so much danger to our Indian Empire.

There has been one fallacy present in all the discussions about this "scientific frontier" which, obvious as it is, has been uniformly overlooked. It has been assumed that British India constituted a base on which we could rely as securely as upon Great Britain itself. The real fact is that we require a "scientific frontier" far more to discourage sedition within than to repel attacks from without. All parties are beginning to perceive that our administration of India has resulted in grievous failure. So far from winning the confidence and affection of the people, every year finds them more distrustful, more entirely alienated from us. We have taxed them to their utmost powers of endurance, and what alienates them from us even more than our exactions is the hard, arrogant, and unsympathetic character of the Englishman. An Englishman is so entirely convinced of his "right divine" to rule over dark-skinned races that he cannot understand that this "divine right" is not equally apparent to the dark-skinned races. They, he thinks, must rejoice in being ruled over by such an admirable creature as he is, quite as much as he rejoices in doing the ruling, or, rather, a great deal more; for the Englishman cannot be said to rejoice in ruling over the Hindu. In general he merely draws his pay, does his official work during office hours, and then banishes the Hindu from his mind almost as completely as if he were not in existence. But the Hindu, the Englishman thinks, does, or but for the deep depravity of his nature would, regard his ruler with overflowing love and reverence. The Hindu, it need hardly be said, is animated by no such feelings; nor can any one who has been long in India doubt that the population there would welcome any change of masters as at least a change from masters whom they hate. These facts are all-important in deciding upon the expediency of an advance of our frontier line. Such advances, by involving a large increase of expenditure, necessitate extra taxation, and extra taxation produces an aggravation of angry and discontented feelings. But in advancing into Afghanistan a far more formidable danger is incurred than even this. There can be no question that the germs of the great mutiny of 1857 were sown in the native army during the first Afghan war. So unpopular was that war that some of the regiments actually mutinied when ordered thither. The late war has shown that this insuperable dislike to Afghanistan is as strong as ever amongst our native soldiers; and permanent garrison duty amid those bleak and barren hills would speedily culminate in open disaffection.

Now, the evil of any such partial occupation of Afghanistan as that which we have undertaken under the provisions of the present treaty is, that we cannot limit the extent of this occupation. The force of events will compel us continually to advance our frontier, till the whole country has passed into our possession. For our treaty, it must be remembered, is not with the people of Afghanistan, but solely with Yakub Khan. It depends upon his life and his retention of power. And the very fact that he leans upon us as his allies and protectors will alienate the bulk of his people from us. Afghanistan is never free for any length of time from internal troubles, from the struggles of rival competitors, from intrigues and counter-intrigues. What, then, are we to do in the event of Yakub Khan becoming unfriendly to us, or being deposed by some rival friendly to Russia and hostile to us? We must either withdraw our troops to India or march upon Cabul to maintain our ascendency. There is very little doubt but that we should choose the latter alternative, and thus in a short time we should find ourselves committed to an occupation of Afghanistan—an occupation which would require at least thirty thousand men, and an annual expenditure of six or seven millions. But the cost, ruinous as that would be, would still be the least of the evils we should have to encounter. So long as the inaccessible hills and deserts of Afghanistan extend between us and the Russian dominions in Asia it is impossible for Russia to participate directly in the politics of India. It is as impossible for her to march an army into India as it is for us to march an army to Herat. Invasion on either side being physically impossible, neither Power needs to take account of the other. But by advancing our frontier until it becomes conterminous with that of Russia, we give to Russia that power of direct participation in Indian affairs which, had we remained securely behind the Indus, she would never have obtained. Then, by simply assembling a few thousand men upon the Oxus, Russia may, whenever she pleases, convulse India from one end to the other. And then, should insurrection break out, we could not, as in 1857, concentrate all our strength upon its suppression; fully forty thousand men would have to be diverted from this end in order to show face against the Russians upon the Oxus. The supplies, the munitions of war for this frontier army could not be found in Afghanistan itself. They would have to be transported through an India in flames, through difficult mountain passes beset by hostile tribes—that is to say, they could not be transported at all.

To sum up, it is no exaggeration to say that the peace with Afghanistan, if its provisions are acted upon, jeopardizes the very existence of the Indian Empire. Upon a people poor, discontented, and heavily taxed it imposes fresh burdens; upon a mercenary army it entails duties which former experience has demonstrated to be so unpopular as to produce disaffection, and even mutiny. It places us in a position where the weight of circumstances will compel us to annex a country destitute of wealth and peopled by turbulent tribes. And, finally, it must eventually bring us into immediate contact with a great military power to whom the disaffected in our dominions will naturally look for encouragement and support. In saying this I do not wish to be understood as supposing that Russia has any deep-laid or persistent design of conquest in India. I do not believe the Russian Government would accept India as a gift; I cannot imagine any power being foolish enough to accept a present so dangerous and unprofitable. Could England disencumber herself of this terrible possession the day on which she stood emancipated would, in my estimation, be well-nigh the brightest day in her history. But Russia, without wish of her own, may find herself in a position which will compel her to threaten our empire in India. For more than a year have we been on the verge of a war with Russia, assuredly from no provocation offered by Russia to us. For more than a year were we in danger of incurring the unspeakable shame and infamy of a Turkish alliance, and for no other reason than our abject and unreasonable terror of Russian designs upon India. It is not probable that these terrors will diminish when by our own policy the designs (if such exist) have passed out of the region of wishes into that of attainable possibilities. And when the frontiers of the two empires are conterminous the rumor only of war between them would suffice to kindle the flames of insurrection in our Indian Empire. This argument is based upon the assumption that the administration of India will continue to be conducted with the extravagance and incapacity which have hitherto characterized it. It may, however, be that the nation will awake to a consciousness of the dangers accumulating there, and, instead of remaining in a "fool's paradise" soothed by the dulcet strains of official melodies, may be stirred up to ascertain for itself the veritable condition of the Indian Empire. What the results would be of such an awakening it is impossible to say, but it may be safely predicted that one result would be the cancelling of the treaty with Yakub Khan, and the resumption of the line of the Indus as being the natural and the "scientific frontier" of Hindustan.

Correspondence.

ARMY BREASTPLATES ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Though a Confederate soldier, I have not read Gen. Dick Taylor's book, but I have read your valuable paper regularly for some years, and must say was somewhat astounded at what I saw in your paper of July 10 over the signature of "J. A. Judson, late Captain and Asst. Adjt.-Gen. U. S. Vols.," who says, in a criticism on Gen. Taylor's book:

"There was no one, officer or man, in the cavalry of Banks's army, or in any part of Banks's army, who wore at that time or any other time 'breastplates and other protective devices,' or anything that could, by the remotest probability, possibly give the most careless observer the impression that any such thing was worn or thought of. When General Taylor says he '*saw* a poor fellow lying dead on the pike, pierced through *breastplate* and body by a rifle-ball,' he states what he knew to be a deliberate falsehood."

Again, he says:

"It would, however, be interesting to know if any of his fellow-rebels now living who were with him in the Valley campaign of 1862 also saw any Yankee cavalrymen, dead or alive, in 'breastplates or other protective devices.'"

I was in the engagement spoken of, which took place near Middletown, serving as Adjutant of the Twenty-first Virginia Regiment, C.S.A., and then and there saw several breastplates on dead Federal soldiers; and, if some of Mr. Judson's comrades-in-arms have not already shown him his utter ignorance of what he attempted to write about, I can give him the names of a dozen men now living in the city of Baltimore who saw the breastplates as mentioned in the quotation from Gen. Taylor's book.

Mr. Judson says in his communication that he writes "because duty to my comrades requires that *truth* should be substituted on the record for what I cannot but regard as malicious and silly falsehood." If he meant what he said when he wrote the above words, his *duty now* to himself, it seems to me, will be to inform himself of the facts and then apologize for his unwarranted attack on the memory of the late Gen. Richard Taylor.—Very respectfully yours,

W. S. Symington.

Baltimore, July 14, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In confirmation of the statement made by Gen. Taylor in his 'Destruction and Reconstruction' in reference to "breastplates" having been worn by some of the Federal soldiers in the late war, permit me to state that a few days after the "Seven Days' Battles" under Lee and McClellan around Richmond, *I saw and carefully examined two steel breastplates* taken from the bodies of two Federal soldiers. They were made of solid steel plate about one-eighth of an inch or less in thickness, sixteen or eighteen inches in length, and twelve or fourteen inches in width, curved to fit the body and around the front of the shoulders. One had an ugly, jagged hole near its centre, made, as I thought, by a grape or case shot, and the other had a deep indentation made by a bullet with velocity insufficient to penetrate. They were worn *under* the clothing.

I have nothing to add in regard to its being "impossible for a single man to have worn a breastplate without my [Capt. Judson's] knowledge," or in regard to the justice of the "strong language."

Very respectfully, Wm. LeRoy Broun,
formerly Lieut.-Col. com'd'g Richmond Arsenal.

Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., July 14, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. J. A. Judson is in error, in his communication to your paper of the 10th, in spelling Colonel Douty's name "Doty"; also in stating that he is now living. He was killed at Aldie, Va., June, 1863.

He is also in error in asserting that breastplates were not worn by cavalry soldiers in Banks's army in May, 1862. The writer found one which a soldier left in bivouac, and tested its quality as a "protective device" by fastening it to a tree and piercing it several times with carbine shots, much to the chagrin of the owner, who soon discovered his loss.

I am confident that many of our New England cavalrymen would have made steadier and more serviceable troopers if they *had* been strapped to their saddles the first year of their service.

S. W. Thaxter.

Portland, July 18, 1879.

[The case in regard to the breastplates seems closed. Mr. Henry C. Wayne, formerly in charge of the Bureau of Clothing, Equipage, and Equipment of the Quartermaster-General's Office, U.S.A., writes to the Savannah *Morning News* of July 19 that they were introduced into the army shortly before the rebellion by General McDowell, "for the protection of our officers and men in Indian fighting against lances, arrows, and *armes blanches* generally." He had borrowed the idea from the French Cuirassiers, during a trip to Europe for purposes of inspection.—Ed. Nation.]

COLLEGES AND THE BUSINESS LIFE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a hopeful sign when those who are supposed to control or to have influence in matters of education show some signs of appreciating what is now lacking in our schools and colleges. If the education obtained in our schools were limited to the instruction therein given, we might well have cause to doubt our system. Our high-schools annually graduate a majority of their pupils utterly incompetent to write or speak good English, and painfully ignorant of English literature. Our colleges annually graduate large numbers of young men who must earn their own living, but who are partly disqualified for the pursuits of active business life by the very fact that they have been through college, and who are not qualified for what you are pleased to distinguish from other occupations as the "intellectual pursuits" of theology, law, medicine, or natural science.

Permit me to say that one of the reasons why the college training now in some degree disqualifies young men for what is called business life, and for the conduct of manufacturing enterprises, lies in the fact that you and others whose pursuits are of a literary kind are apt to consider the life of business men as not an intellectual one. In this estimation of the relative position of what are called the learned professions and the active business of life you are unwittingly, and I may say ignorantly, joined by the majority of the business men and manufacturers themselves. Is it not for the supposed reason that the learned professions confer more dignity and position upon those who follow them that their ranks are always crowded with candidates who have worried their way through college, and who then struggle for a few years to fill places for which they were unfitted at the start, to find at last that the most valuable years of their lives have been utterly misspent?

It is time that business men and manufacturers ceased to sustain the colleges and universities, so called, that fail to provide a course of instruction that will fit graduates for the pursuits in which they are themselves engaged, and that do not recognize these pursuits as of equal importance, equal dignity, and equal intellectual standing with the study of law, medicine, or theology. It is the function of the farmer, the business man, and the manufacturer to sustain the whole body of society, and without their right qualification for their calling the efforts of the learned professions even to keep up any intellectual activity outside their own limited circle would be utterly futile. Commerce is no longer a matter of chance and adventure as in olden times. The work of the great merchant, manufacturer, or railway manager is much more important to the well-being of society than that of any other class, and their work calls for intellectual capacity of the highest order; they keep the body corporate in health and vigor, while the members of the so-called learned professions are mainly engaged in curing the ills that have come from ignorance and vice. The instruction of the school and the college might well be given mainly to a preparation that shall fit men for the active constructive and productive work of life rather than for the practice of law, medicine, or theology; and when this need is recognized the growing prejudice against college life on the part of men in these pursuits will cease.

It will no longer suffice to say that a thorough training in the ancient languages and in the present course of studies offered, especially at Harvard, will fit a man for any pursuit. This is admitted, and is perfectly true; a young man who has more than ordinary capacity and plenty of time may well devote himself to a thoroughly abstract and purely intellectual course of study, and be the better able to take up any pursuit that he may choose in later life; but such young men are comparatively few in number. The question at issue is, How shall the college provide for an average man who must gain his own living as soon as he graduates? It is not enough to say that the studies at Harvard and elsewhere are to a great degree elective, and that the young man may choose his course for himself. To one who is watching the training of a son under the elective system it appears to have been carried to an absurd extreme, and to be likely to break down. What is needed is not a system of elective studies but *elective courses of instruction*, especially directed toward the active pursuits of business life or of manufacturing.

The technical schools thus far lack as much in the direction of literary and abstract instruction as the college lacks in the technical. To one who has gained what little education he possesses under the hard instruction of practical work from very early days the great need of the present day is a recognition of the fact that education to fit a man for business life is no more a mere "bread-and-butter" course than one directed toward any other mode of life, and that no institution can be entitled to the name of "University" that does not provide such a course. Business men and manufacturers should claim that the title of "Master of the Arts" belongs to them; and should assert their rights and provide for their fulfilment, leaving the titles of lesser degree to thoo who have so long assumed precedence.—Very sincerely yours,

An Uninstructed Philistine.

Boston, July 13, 1879.

Notes.

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN have nearly ready 'The Landed Interest and the Supply of Food,' by James Caird; a 'Handy Commentary' of the New Testament, in small volumes, for educational purposes; and 'Wild White Cattle of Great Britain,' by the late Rev. John Sterer, with illustrations.——Montgomery & Co., auctioneers, 87 Camp Street, New Orleans, offer for sale *en bloc* before August 10, for a fixed sum, a "collection of letters and documents mostly addressed to, or written by, General Daniel Morgan during the Revolutionary War." The collection embraces 245 numbers. After the above date it will be offered in parts. Autographs of Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, Lafayette, Lee, Laurens, Steuben, T. Pickering, Greene, Gates, B. Lincoln, Lord Sterling, Patrick Henry, etc., are among its attractions.——We learn from the *Quadrat* that 'A List of the Reproductions, both imitation and in fac-simile, of the productions of the Press of William Caxton,' with some preliminary observations by Mr. B. H. Beedham, of Kimbolton, England, will be manufactured in this country by Mr. John Springer, of Iowa City. Only 125 copies (out of a total of 250) will be reserved for America, and Mr. Springer should be addressed after August 1 for specimen sheets and further information.——Mr. Albert Griffin, editor and proprietor of the Manhattan (Kansas) *Nationalist*, desires to send those who are interested in his scheme of Southern colonization, which we lately described, the printed details thereof and to correspond with them.——No. 7 of the Rhode Island Historical Tracts (Providence: S. S. Rider) contains a reprint of the 'Journal of a Brigade Chaplain in the Expedition against the Six Nations,' 1779. The diarist was the Rev. William Rogers, D.D., the first student of Rhode Island College, a member of three anti-slavery societies (Pa., Md., and R. I.), and the last surviving chaplain of the Revolutionary army. The expedition led up the Tioga River into New York State, and had important results. The Journal has both an historical and a topographical value, and on this account it is a pity that the compiler of the map accompanying this pamphlet did not avail himself of the Historical Map of Pennsylvania published in 1875 for fuller details. On the other hand, the Journal suggests additions that might be made to the Map.——B. Westermann & Co. have received Part IV. of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte,' which treats of the period in Greek history from the Ionian uprising against the Persians to the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War, and indeed carries us a little further. The age of Pericles affords an excuse for a number of choice illustrations from the Athenian art-remains and from nature, mostly engraved after photographs, besides plans of battle-fields, etc. The same publishers send us Parts 4 and 5 of the new edition of Stieler's 'Hand-Atlas,' with maps of part of Spain and Scandinavia and the United States (northwestern sheet), general maps of Europe and Africa, etc. The last-mentioned will no doubt be greatly modified in the larger-scale representations, which will be judiciously held back to profit by the discoveries of the host of explorers now occupied with Central Africa. For example, Major Serpa-Pinto's recent determination of the courses of the Cubango and Cuando Rivers will probably have been made available.——Seeley's 'Stein' has been added to the Tauchnitz series.—Translations of Thornton's 'Labor' and Cairnes's 'Fundamental Principles of Political Economy' form the first volumes of a 'Biblioteca di Scienze sociali' published by Leopoldo Franchetti and Sidney Sonnino (the latter one of the editors of the *Rassegna Settimanale*, and, together with Carlo Fontanelli, the translator of the above works).——Bernard Quaritch, Piccadilly, was, of course, a purchaser at the late Didot sale. He has just issued an annotated catalogue of the forty-one books and MSS. thus acquired.

—*Scribner's Monthly* for August is an exceptionally good number. Mr. Henry James, jr., begins a new tale in it—"Confidence," it is called—which is going to concern itself with the author's young countrymen and countrywomen in a foreign land. Mr. R. S. Stoddard continues his critical papers on the poets with one on Whittier, whose portrait, by Messrs. Eaton & Cole, seems rather more true to life than its predecessors in the shadowy series. There is a very careful study, by an admirer, of Mr. Whistler's rank as an artist in color and in black and white, illustrated in a beautiful manner with portraits and etchings after his own work, including his famous "White Girl," and some of the "symphonies" and "arrangements." Mr. W. H. Bishop nearly succeeds in giving an interesting account of a subject which seems to lend itself to that purpose, the Festiniog narrow-gauge railway in Wales—the oldest and narrowest in the world. His facts will be appreciated by practical railroad men in this country, and we believe his scepticism about the value of narrow-gauge roads is well-founded at least. This article also has several charming illustrations. A lighter paper is Mr. Allen C. Redwood's "Cook of the Confederate Army," one of several which promise when they grow into a book to be among the most agreeable contributions to the history of the great struggle. Mr. Stoddard, we may say, returning to his estimate of Whittier, does not conceal the hastiness of his preparation. Bibliographically he was poorly equipped with only the 'Complete Works' of 1876, and historically he was ignorant of the very beginnings of Whittier's muse; and it is clear that the Quaker poet was never much of a favorite with his critic. These drawbacks certainly impair the quality of Mr. Stoddard's performance, and invalidate his selection of Whittier's best pieces; but they do not make his criticism valueless. We do not know what authority Mr. Stoddard has for saying, "advisedly," that "the New England Quaker of forty years ago was rather a tolerated than a respected member of the community." Was this true of Newport, or Providence, or Lynn, or New Bedford?

—The *Atlantic* for August makes slight concession to the season and is one of the "solidest" issues of the month. None of its contributions, however, are justly to be termed heavy, and some of them, aside from the occasional pleasant trifles, are so far on the hither side of dulness as to stimulate reflection in the serious reader. Of these is the first paper, which is on "Preaching," and by the anonymous author of several recent articles on the "tendencies" of American life that have attracted attention. This may be called one of the same series, and it is as carefully considered and as little superficial as the rest. "Two Years of President Hayes," by Mr. Walter Allen, of the Boston *Advertiser*, is perhaps the conspicuous article of the number. It is, in brief, the case for Mr. Hayes, and a lucid and candid presentation of it. People who have a fondness for the practical application of high ideals will, it is possible, regret that this is all of the case, and that at a time when, as it seemed to them, the country needed to be saved over again the President, even in the opinion of so favorable a judge as Mr. Allen, has done little to demand any flinging up of caps. Not a few, perhaps, may be found who deem Mr. Allen's review of the two years somewhat over-favorable indeed, and regard that portion of his article which deals with civil-service reform, especially as exemplified in certain early appointments, as weak. But upon the whole even such may find good reasons given by Mr. Allen for their taking heart of grace and resting content with what the President has plainly accomplished, considering the obstacles in his way and the materials at his hand. The article is not free from a suspicion of special pleading, it is true; at the same time one must have, even in a discourse about Mr. Hayes's Administration, some distinct and positive idea to start with, and in this instance most fair-minded persons will probably admit it was better to incline to the side of eulogy. "The Negro Exodus" is the subject of an article of similarly candid temper by Mr. James B. Runnion, who has had personal experience of what he writes, although his conclusions differ from those of General Conway. Mrs. Lydia Maria Child has a short paper upon the late Mr. Garrison; Mr. Van Brunt writes of Hamerton's 'Life of Turner,' Véron's 'Æsthetics,' and Professor Falke's 'Art in the House' rather urbanely than incisively; Dr. Holmes's poem "Vestigia Quinque Retrorsum," read last month at Harvard, is printed, and is, naturally perhaps, the best of the poetry. The reviews—in contradistinction to the "Contributors' Club"—are longer and more important in every sense than usual.

—*Lippincott's Magazine* appears again with its cover whimsically plastered with illustrations—an expedient which can scarcely be depended upon to give it an æsthetic reputation. The mistake of supposing whimsicality a good working substitute for genuine taste penetrates also to the contents of the first paper, "Catskill and the Catskill Region," whose woodcuts are distributed and posed through the text in the purposeless and puerile fashion which there is a disposition just now apparently to make do duty as serious art. The number is a light one, and consequently seasonable. Fiction abounds; from the continuation of Miss Olney's "Through Winding Ways," to the flimsiness natural to expect from the "author of 'Molly Bawn.'" Mr. Oswald's second chapter of "Summerland Sketches," in which he chats about "Colima," is pleasant summer reading, and two personal articles, one containing Professor Boyesen's reminiscences of the late Bayard Taylor, and the other some account of Étienne of the *Neue Freie Presse* and Villemessant of the *Figaro*, by Edward King, are interesting, the former especially. 'Our Monthly Gossip' is extending its scope and approaching the *Atlantic*'s 'Contributors' Club,' without, however, acquiring a cathedral tone.

—Mr. S. G. Young's article on "Guignol," the French Punch-and-Judy, in the same number was worth writing. There are in Paris some ten of these little theatres, and they are not the least interesting of its dramatic amusements. Five of them grouped together in the Champs Élysées, just opposite the Palais de l'Industrie, are familiar to every young American who has been to Paris. These theatres are of two kinds, as Mr. Young points out, although he does not always keep the two classes as distinct as he might. They are either *jeux de triangle*, the actors being true marionettes, ingeniously articulated and skilfully moved by wires from above; or they are *jeux de castollet*, puppets of the familiar Punch-and-Judy type, animated from below by the inserted hand of the performer. The first kind are rarely seen in England and America, while even in Paris they are less popular. The typical French play in which they appear, 'The Temptation of St. Anthony,' with its peculiar spectacular sensations, is amply described and illustrated in Mr. Young's article. In Italy the marionette theatres are very elaborate, performing serious tragedies and graceful ballets with comic effect. Mr. Young might have drawn on Mr. Story's 'Roba di Roma' for a description which is as accurate as it is amusing. The extensive marionette theatre of Thomas Holden, an Englishman, has, strange to say, been among the favorite spectacles of Paris this last winter, and seems to have far surpassed the native *jeux de triangle*. The second class, which we know in America by the English name of Punch-and-Judy, requires an outfit far less expensive, and indeed often portable. It is seen to advantage in the streets of German and Italian provincial towns. Even in Paris the protagonist is provincial: *Guignol* is a Lyonnais. Mr. Young pays deserved praise to the superiority of the Vrai Guignol in the Champs Élysées, handled by M. Anatole, a most ingenious and inventive spirit, the author of his own half-extemporaneous plays, rarely twice alike; the MSS. of several of which, committed to paper for the first time at the request of a curious admirer, are now in this city, and go far to show that M. Anatole, like his predecessor the divine Williams, possesses a most variegated orthography. Excellent portraits of M. Anatole and of his two leading actors are given on p. 192; those of the two wooden-headed performers much more like than the profiles on p. 195, where their constant butt, the landlord, is also figured, his name being transliterated into "Proprietor" (Fr. *propriétaire*). It may be remarked also that to call the first cut (p. 186) "Polichinelle welcoming the audience at Anatole's theatre" is an obvious error, as the figure is a marionette moved from above, and not a puppet moved from below.

—The *Methodist Quarterly Review* for July contains nothing notable. The best articles in it are compends and reprints. But the *Review* itself is always interesting as representing the culture of the largest and so the most influential body of Protestant ministers in the United States. And it is highly honorable to its conductors that, side by side with a certain amount of theologizing in the rut of the traditions of its sect, there is given (in its synopsis of reviews, American and foreign) so frank an exhibition of critical views and arguments which it is a common policy with religious journals to treat only by dark allusions as dangerous. Of course, a "denominational organ" issued by a Church "Book Concern" is necessarily lacking in vigor and individuality. But the *Methodist Quarterly* is much better than might be expected. It is needless to add that the *Review* is stalwartly Republican in politics. We venture the suggestion to the editors of the *Princeton Review* or the *North American* that in default of other harrowing topics a slashing article on "The Methodist Church in Politics" might produce an effective sensation.

—Mr. Matthew Arnold contributes to the July *Macmillan* an essay on Wordsworth which we presume is to preface a volume of 'Wordsworth's Select Poems' announced by Macmillan as a forthcoming addition, edited by Mr. Arnold, to the celebrated "Golden Treasury Series." It is a charming paper, full of delicate perception and acute discrimination, and written with that just union of grace and incisiveness which no one needs to be told is characteristic of everything Mr. Arnold writes. It is, indeed, in one important respect the perfection of literary criticism, since it is itself literature. But from the general conclusion of it there are few persons, we imagine, who will not more or less sharply dissent. "I firmly believe," says Mr. Arnold, "that the poetical performance of Wordsworth is, after that of Shakspere and Milton, undoubtedly the most considerable in our language from the Elizabethan age to the present time." And he finds in the modern poetry of the Continent only the names of Molière and Goethe to add to those of Shakspere and Milton in the catalogue of Wordsworth's superiors. Comparisons of this sort are particularly hazardous, and Mr. Arnold has always shown a lively appreciation of the danger which is so exactly proportioned to their attractiveness. Nor is it to be supposed that this one is made without a sense of the need for supporting it. Hardly any one could recognize more clearly than Mr. Arnold Wordsworth's faults and shortcomings. The thick-and-thin admirers of Wordsworth—like Mr. Leslie Stephen on the one hand, and the survivors of Coleridge's school of orthodox transcendentalism on the other—will be as displeased with his admissions as persons distinctly not Wordsworthians will be with his claims. He expressly says that the grounds upon which Wordsworth's greatness are usually rested—his sound philosophy and his scientific system of thought—are not the grounds upon which it should be rested. "His poetry is the reality, his philosophy the illusion," he says, and "we cannot do him justice until we dismiss his philosophy." And he finds abundant fault with Wordsworth's "artificial arrangement" of his poems, and speaks frankly of "the quantity of inferior work which now obscures them." The ground upon which he himself rests Wordsworth's greatness is Wordsworth's "powerful application to his subject of ideas 'on man, on nature, and on human life,'" according to his old dictum that "the noble and profound application of ideas to life is the most essential part of poetic greatness." In nothing is Mr. Arnold more happy than in his definitions; in them are focussed his delicately just perception and his nice sense of form; and there is certainly much truth in this one. But the thing to be defined is here so large at once and so elusive that he would have been more fortunate than it often falls to the lot of men to be if his definition had included the whole truth. His very application of it to Wordsworth impairs it, one cannot but think; unless, indeed, one is to admit that to Wordsworth it does not largely apply. The pith of the matter is perhaps just here, and Mr. Arnold's estimate of Wordsworth stands or falls according to the truth or weakness of his judgment as to what is a "noble and profound application" of ideas to life. Mr. Tupper's application is not, surely. And wherein does Wordsworth's application differ from Mr. Tupper's? It does differ, but how much or how essentially Mr. Arnold neither describes nor illustrates; and all persons not Wordsworthians will naturally ask for something more than the mere assertion, even of Mr. Arnold, that Wordsworth does in any transcendent degree apply ideas to life profoundly and nobly.

—It is curious to notice, and it is certainly noteworthy, that this essay is, indeed, in the teeth of what Mr. Arnold has so long and so consistently preached—the necessity of looking at "things as they are," of eliminating, in the search for truth, all preconceptions and stock notions, and of holding ideas upon all subjects easily. This estimate of Wordsworth is certainly not the estimate of thick-and-thin Wordsworthians, but it is still less, perhaps, that of "the world in general," which is always Mr. Arnold's arbiter; he says somewhere that one should try to "keep one's self out of the way and let humanity judge." It may be said, it is true, that humanity takes time in which to make up its mind; that Shakspere waited till the eighteenth century for any adequate appreciation, and that it was not so many years ago that Mr. Carlyle was exalting the German romantic poets above Heine. But just as Heine's destruction of the romantic school proved, as Mr. Arnold long ago said, "a delicate chastisement" to Mr. Carlyle, the judgment of "the world in general," which after almost imperious and fanatical admiration of Wordsworth has now in great measure fallen away from him, is a delicate chastisement to Mr. Arnold, if he would but recognize it. Moreover, it has fallen away from Wordsworth while Mr. Arnold has clung to him, simply because, being impersonal, it has no personal interest in him; it has one of the highest qualities of criticism, disinterestedness, whereas nowhere, to our recollection, has Mr. Arnold shown so little disinterestedness as in his mention of Wordsworth now and heretofore. Nearly twenty years ago, in his 'Essays in Criticism,' speaking of the English poetry of the first quarter of this century, and accusing it of not knowing enough, finding Byron empty of matter and Shelley incoherent, he admired Wordsworth so much that, as he says, "I cannot wish him different." Elsewhere, when there is no question of Wordsworth, he can call Byron "the greatest natural force, the greatest elementary power, that has appeared in our literature since Shakspere." But of Wordsworth he always speaks as a disciple of his master; even in this essay, which is designed "to get Wordsworth recognized by the public and the world," he says: "I am a Wordsworthian myself. I can read with pleasure 'Peter Bell' and the whole series of 'Ecclesiastical Sonnets'—everything of Wordsworth, I think, except 'Vaudracour and Julia.'" It is impossible not to see that the critical spirit which recently prompted Mr. Arnold to call a good deal of Shakspere's writing "detestable," is entirely silent in confession that he can read the "Thanksgiving Ode" with pleasure.

—The Boston Public Library and the Boston Athenæum are about entering upon an experiment which, if it succeeds, will have a very important influence upon the reading of Boston. A "Library Delivery Company" undertakes, on receipt of a postal-card from a patron, to draw books for him from the library, deliver them at his house, and return any books which may be ready, all for five cents, including the price of the postal-card. The editor of the *Gentleman's Magazine* lately advised literary men to buy books rather than consult them at the British Museum, because, taking the average price of a volume as ten shillings, he could earn more than the cost of the book in the time consumed in going to and from the Museum and waiting to be served. Arguing in this way, what busy man is likely to go to the Boston Public Library when he can have some one go for him for less than the cost of two letters? The circulation will no doubt be largely increased by the new system, and we shall be greatly surprised if the use of the Athenæum is not confined hereafter to a smaller circle ; for one of the chief reasons with many for seeking the Athenæum has been the discomfort of the delivery-room in the Public Library. On the other hand, those who continue subscribers of the Athenæum will use it all the more. Shall we ever in this city have a system that will make library books as easily accessible as this ? We need it much more than compact Boston. To be sure, Mrs. Glass's famous rule about the hare applies to us—the city must first get its books. Moreover, it may be doubted whether New York is yet ready to support a library delivery company ; for such a service can succeed only by a popular use which shall approach that of the post-office.

—The tenth annual report of the Massachusetts Railroad Commissioners for the year 1878 is the latest of a series which have attracted marked attention, both from railway officials and from the more thoughtful part of the general public. Its characteristic features are unique for a public document. Everywhere there is evident an earnest wish to get at what may be called the natural truth of each question, *i.e.*, its actual relations with all natural laws—commercial, social, and financial—and this with a view to reaching a decision which shall not only seem to be just but which shall not run counter to those all-powerful forces. Joined to this wish, there is equally palpable an untiring patience, and a steadfast faith in the curative powers of public sentiment when properly enlightened and efficiently concentrated. There is not the slightest reference throughout the whole document to party, or to material for party uses. These are admirable qualities, and apart altogether from the particular service in which they have been exhibited, are wholesome studies for Americans, whether in or out of the public employ. A fine example of unprejudiced investigation, judicial consideration, and of the establishment of substantial justice and profitable concord between two embittered commercial foes, is given in the report upon a grade-crossing between the Boston & Maine and Lowell & Lawrence Railroads. The intelligence of the tribunal enables it successfully to preserve the essence and object of law, while dispensing with many of the obstructive forms deemed essential in ordinary courts, but which undoubtedly do much to hinder the speedy and economical accomplishment of true equity. The tables are careful and judicious digests of information, and are quite as necessary for the protection of shareholders in the roads as for the enlightenment of the shipping and the general public. The expense-accounts, while not given too much in detail, would be more serviceable if the details were better grouped under a few general heads. The great questions of discrimination and competition force their way into the report in several guises. They appear in the decision upon the Boston & Albany coal-rates, and again, on page 21, in the discussion of the mooted relations of competitive and non-competitive charges, and more largely in the review of the general railroad situation, at the close of the report. They are questions too little understood for the Commission to treat of with definiteness, but they are discussed with ability. They are questions full of peril to social order and the safety of capital, and to public equity. The fullest light possible must be thrown upon them, and for this purpose all parties should unite in measures that will oblige railway tariffs and accounts to be absolutely shorn of secrecy of any sort or on any plea. The Commission has well performed an important function in Massachusetts, and has furnished much food for careful thought to those beyond the borders of that State, and yet the expense of this excellent work for a whole year was less than $2,500. It would not be easy to parallel so good a service at so slight a cost.

—In the *Deutsche Rundschau* for June Karl Hillebrand gives a spirited account of the last days of Louis Philippe's reign, founded mostly on hitherto unpublished documents. Though not bringing to light any new facts of importance, he has collected many interesting details throwing light on the character of the last of the Orléans rulers. What is most striking is the astonishing ignorance and indifference of the king in regard to the state of affairs around him and the temper of the people over whom he reigned. Serious and far-seeing men were aware of the dangerous position. Léon Faucher, a warm friend of the July monarchy, wrote as early as 1846 : "The present condition of the country recalls, as far as the past can be compared with the present, in every feature the condition of France in 1826 and 1827"—viz., the last years of the reign of Charles X. Sainte-Beuve, De Tocqueville, even the king's own son, the Duc de Joinville, in a letter to his brother Nemours, took an equally despondent view. The king remained obstinately indifferent to all forebodings. The consciousness of having had for seventeen years his own way at home and abroad, in the face of the ministry, the Chambers, and the popular will, had only created in him an amount of confidence which nothing could shake in the infallibility of his statesmanship and superior wisdom. For years he had not read a French newspaper. The London *Times* was his favorite journal, from which he could learn all that was said and thought about him abroad. What was said and thought about him in France, outside of the cabinet and the Chambers, was to him nothing but child's talk. When, shortly after the opening of the last Chambers, in December, 1847, the prefect of the Seine wished to enlighten him about the threatening mood of the Paris bourgeoisie, he answered petulantly, almost rudely: "M. de Rambuteau, you don't understand such things." To the earnest entreaty of a rich Parisian manufacturer, a member of the Lower Chamber and a devoted partisan of the Guizot ministry, to make some concessions in the Election Bill, he replied smilingly with the question : "Are your carpets selling well, M. Sallandrouze ?" Even when his old friend and confidant, Marshal Sébastiani, brought to the king the last warnings of his dying sister, he interrupted his unpleasant remonstrances with the words : "You are getting old, Marshal." When at last Louis Philippe's eyes seemed to be opened, with heavy heart he reluctantly decided to dismiss Guizot. Towards nine o'clock in the evening, when Molé was informing the king of his inability to form a cabinet, a troupe of over 500 workingmen moved towards the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, to say good-by to Guizot, as they pretended. At their head a mechanic of gigantic stature carried the ominous red flag. Being stopped at the Place Vendôme by a battalion of infantry, the commanding officer is taunted and insulted by the furious mob. One man brings his torch close to the face of the officer, "to singe his moustache." A devoted sergeant of the regiment, the Corsican Giacomoni, indignant at this brutality, fires on him without command, and the torch-bearer falls in his tracks. This fatal shot was the signal for the whole regiment to discharge their muskets, and eighty-two of the crowd—men, women, and children—were stretched dead on the ground. The February revolution had begun.

HEILPRIN'S HEBREW POETRY.*

THOSE who are best able to judge of Mr. Heilprin's scholarship and general force of mind will not go far in these pages without being convinced that he is completely at home in this department of research. Everywhere there is unmistakable evidence that he is speaking out of the fulness of his knowledge. His name has not, we believe, appeared upon the title-page of any book before, though he has already reached "the arm-chair period of life." So much the better ; we have here the ripe result of a whole lifetime's careful and enthusiastic study and investigation. But Mr. Heilprin has long been known among our metropolitan scholars as one of the most learned of their company ; a man whose encyclopædic knowledge, especially in the field of history, has amply provided him with that historical sense without which studies like the present are apt to be almost entirely vain.

Any one at all well informed in Biblical studies is not deceived as to the tendency of modern Jewish scholarship, but to many others it will be a surprise to find a "Hebrew of the Hebrews" maintaining the most radical convictions concerning the Old Testament writings. They have probably imagined that such convictions were the special property of Protestant Christians or ex-Christians. But no,

> "The current sweeps the Old World,
> The current sweeps the New."

Be it a good or evil sign, modern Judaism, equally with modern Chris-

* 'The Historical Poetry of the Ancient Hebrews. Translated and critically examined by Michael Heilprin.' New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1879.

tianity, is affected by the scientific tendency, and applies the scientific method to the Old Testament writings with equal if not greater boldness. Mr. Heilprin has the advantage, which many scholars have not, of being equally at home in Jewish and in Christian studies of the Old Testament literature. He is entirely catholic. The Jewish critics, Graetz and Zunz, are no more authoritative with him than the Protestant Christians Oort and Kuenen. In Protestant circles the latter are commonly esteemed, so far as known, as our least conservative critics; but they are somewhat more conservative than the former. Judaism has never had the same logical necessity for an infallible scripture with Christian Protestantism, and so it has been easier for Jewish scholars to apply a scientific method to their sacred books.

It has been lately urged against certain attempts to subject the Bible to a scientific method of investigation, that without an exact knowledge of the Hebrew tongue no one is competent to sit in judgment on these things. An exact knowledge of Hebrew has been proclaimed to be an effectual antidote to the Dutch school of critics, albeit the members of that school are perhaps quite as well up in their Hebrew as their conservative critics. But in Mr. Heilprin we have a scholar whose study of Hebrew began in his infancy and has continued ever since; who has the Hebrew Bible at his finger ends; who nevertheless has not been preserved in this way from conclusions very much at variance with the popular conception of the Old Testament writings. In one other particular, too, Mr. Heilprin's book is exceedingly instructive. The notion has somehow got abroad that the scientific study of the Bible is inconsistent with the most tender reverence for its contents or with their persistent fascination. But the reverence of Mr. Heilprin for the subject-matter of his criticism could hardly be surpassed, and that it has not lost its power to interest and charm, his book itself is ample evidence, which will be reinforced by the experience of every intelligent reader of its too brief contents.

The present volume is only the first of a series which must inevitably contain two or three more to bring it to a natural completion. The poetry of the prophets, as yet untouched, is almost exclusively historical, and, treated with as much amplitude as the fragments to which the present volume is devoted, will demand no inconsiderable amount of space. Mr. Heilprin plunges immediately into his subject without any preface or introduction, and leaves the reader to discover his method from his book. The first section is, therefore, somewhat misleading. It treats of the address of Lamech to his two wives, Adah and Zillah. The passage containing this address being the first poetical passage in the Bible, the reader is led to expect that the poetical passages are to be taken up in the order of their occurrence. But Mr. Heilprin's method proves to be quite different. He takes the accepted order of Hebrew history and brings to its illustration the poetical passages that are concerned with it wherever they occur. Thus it happens that his second section deals with Psalm cv.: "It is, if not surprising, worthy of notice," Mr. Heilprin remarks, "that not a single piece of Hebrew poetry has been preserved in the Scriptures of which the subject is either Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, or Joseph, all of whom are heroes of extensive prose narratives, and all of whom were revered by the Hebrews as national patriarchs." The author of Psalm cv., however, does late and scanty justice to these heroes by introducing them into a poetical summary of the history of Israel from the earliest times down to those subsequent to the captivity in Babylon. This summary includes the two following psalms. The three, argues Mr. Heilprin, belong to the same period. Mr. Heilprin's translation of the first is full of force and beauty, and is a new evidence for the necessity of a revised translation of the Bible, if we really care to know the thoughts expressed in the original. It has been acutely argued that the religion of modern Protestantism has been founded upon the King James translation, not on the original, and that to change the translation is to change the religion of the English-Protestant world. It may be so, but the argument comes with an ill grace from those who accept the original Hebrew as peculiarly the word of God.

By way of introduction to the so-called "Blessing of Jacob," Mr. Heilprin discusses at some length the patriarchal legends, quoting with undisguised approval the monograph of A. Bernstein, the central idea of which is that there were originally three centres of patriarchal legend, and that the ultimate shape which the different legends assumed resulted from the clumsy harmonizing of much that was antagonistic and incongruous. The different centres corresponded to the tribes Judah, Simeon, and Ephraim, and were deeply colored by their rivalries and hostilities. We cannot follow out this scheme into its details, but many of them are exceedingly interesting. Abraham was the favorite patriarch of Judah, Isaac of Simeon, and Jacob of Ephraim. The story of Judah and Tamar, according to Bernstein, was originally a lampoon on David and his house. The marriage of Judah with a Canaanitess corresponds to David's with the Hittitess, Uriah's wife. There are other points of correspondence. David's line is made to originate in the disgraceful connection of Judah with Tamar. But such was the *naïveté* of the harmonists that this lampoon was ultimately included in the Davidic legend as if it were the simple truth.

"The Blessing of Jacob," to which we are introduced by this discussion, is regarded by Mr. Heilprin, who in this instance also has the acute criticism of Bernstein to support him, as an Ephraimic retrospect of a time subsequent to the disruption of the kingdom. To this disruption is referred the famous text, "Until Shiloh come," commonly spoken of as a Messianic prophecy. Mr. Heilprin translates "Until he [Judah, the tribe] come to Shiloh and there is a gathering of tribes around him." This, of course, makes it a prophecy *post eventum*.

Mr. Heilprin's translation of Miriam's Red Sea song is full of spirit. He is disposed to consider it of later origin than the corresponding narrative, finding allusions in it to the temple. But some of its verses have "the ring of great antiquity." The story of Balak and Balaam given in the Book of Numbers has long been one of the most fascinating for the critics, conservative and radical alike. It is as fascinating for Mr. Heilprin as for any of his predecessors. The episode of the ass and the angel he considers an interpolation of a later writer. The Balaam of this story is a noble figure; but the Hebrews had another Balaam in their legends who was very different—a vulgar soothsayer. Which of these legends is the older it is difficult to determine. The latter has the advantage of being embedded in a dry historical narrative. Mr. Heilprin apparently sympathizes with the almost startling suggestion of Seinecke that the Macedonian power was already in the ascendant when the concluding lines of this superb fragment of Scripture were composed.

"The Blessing of Moses" (Deut. xxxiii.) is carefully compared with "The Blessing of Jacob." It breathes a much more amicable and gentle spirit, and belongs to a later period, when the animosities of Judah and Israel were somewhat softened. The omission of Simeon from this blessing is a notable fact, on which the commentators have spent, not to say wasted, an immense amount of ingenuity. Mr. Heilprin, following Graetz, who in his turn follows the Talmudist Rabbi Eliezer, argues that we should read, "Hear, O Jehovah, Simeon's voice," and not "Judah's," and gives plausible reasons for such a change.

"The Song of Deborah," Kuenen's readers will remember, is regarded by him as a document more nearly contemporary with the event recorded than almost any other in the early Hebrew history. But Mr. Heilprin, while admiring this splendid fragment as heartily as possible, is inclined to assign it to a much later period than that of the Judges, and to be exceedingly doubtful of its historic value. He discovers Aramaisms in it which point to the Babylonian period of Hebrew literature. Instead of a spontaneous outburst, we have here a finished work of art. The victory of Thothmes III. on the battle-field of Megiddo is perhaps the most considerable element of fact in this fascinating mixture of Israelitish and Egyptian war reminiscences.

In treating the legend of Samson Mr. Heilprin does not depart widely from the interpretations of Goldziher and Oort and Steinthal, all of whom, with many others, regard the story as a solar myth, and Samson as a sort of Hebrew Hercules. Whether there was, as Oort supposes, some Danite hero of herculean strength and prowess who furnished a point of attachment for the solar myth, is not easily determined. There can be little doubt, however, without going the length of Goldziher, that personal and solar myths had strong attractions for each other; that the attributes of solar heroes were often borrowed from the fame of actual persons of great popular renown, and that the converse of this process was equally natural.

David's lament for Jonathan opens up to Mr. Heilprin the whole question of David's character, and his relation to the extensive literature in the Old Testament which has always been associated with his name. The conclusions to which he arrives are decidedly adverse to David's literary claims. Of the seventy-three psalms ascribed to David in the Old Testament Ewald admitted the genuineness of fifteen only. Prof. Robertson Smith, in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' contends for the undoubted genuineness of two. Mr. Heilprin prefers to either of these judgments that of Kuenen and Oort, to the effect that nowhere in the Psalms have we the workmanship of David, and that the lament for Jonathan must go the way of all the rest that is ascribed to him. The

grounds on which he bases this conclusion will not of course be generally satisfactory, but they are not trivial and deserve careful consideration.

It is to be hoped that this volume will meet with such a reception as will encourage Mr. Heilprin to publish the complementary volumes at an early day. When the whole is completed there should be an index, the lack of which in the present volume is a matter of regret, especially as there is not even a table of contents.

COLOR-BLINDNESS.*

THIS book is based upon another which, in its province, is an "epoch-making" work—Professor Holmgren's 'Color-Blindness and its Relations to Railroads and the Marine,' published at Upsala in 1877. Dr. Jeffries tells us that he had agreed to translate that work into English when the Smithsonian Institution translation appeared (by M. L. Duncan, in the "Annual Report" for 1877), occupying the ground. In the present treatise, however, he gives "a good part of Professor Holmgren's book"; and he contributes, on his own part, the results of over ten thousand testings for color-blindness, made by himself according to Holmgren's method with colored worsteds among New England teachers and scholars.

Both works are, first and foremost, "practical," having in view the elimination of color-blind persons from the railway and marine services. Neither the Swedish professor nor the New England physician has discussed the subject at length from the point of view of physics. But for the sake of "a very simple and clear explanation of the phenomenon of the physiology of color," Holmgren gives a short preliminary account, repeated by Dr. Jeffries, of Thomas Young's theory of vision, now rehabilitated as "the Young-Helmholtz theory"—that is to say, briefly, that in the eye "there are three kinds of nerve-fibres; stimulation of the first produces the sensation of red; of the second, that of green; of the third, that of violet." All three kinds of fibres are excited, however, by each color of the spectrum, as there is no spectral color "into which but one primitive color enters exclusively." The interaction or overlapping of the three fundamental colors in the spectrum is shown by the familiar diagram of three intersecting curves upon a horizontal line; the constituents of each compound color being indicated, at any point in the scale, upon a line drawn through that point at right angles to the abscissa, and their ratios in the composition of that color by the spaces they respectively occupy upon the perpendicular. Now, the most frequent forms of color-blindness are those of insensibility to red or to green—violet-blindness being exceedingly rare. The insensibility is due to the absence of the nerve-fibres requisite to the perception of the given fundamental color; and it is a structural defect which, when congenital, no amount of training or practice can cure, though there are means of alleviating the resulting inconveniences. The defect itself is not without its compensations, as we shall see. Professor Holmgren points out that it is not merely the fundamental color, or colors, that the color-blind cannot recognize, for each one of them, whether red, green, or violet, enters in a greater or less degree into every one of the thousand hues of the spectrum. Thus, for the color-blind "the whole chromatic system will be upset," though of many colors, as of yellow and of violet, their perception will not greatly differ from that of the normal vision. Dr. Jeffries summarizes the point as follows: "All colors containing their defective one will be greyish, and this in proportion to their individual amount of defect." The red-blind, for instance, will see only such colors as can be produced by the combination of green and violet. "Spectral red," says Helmholtz, "which feebly excites the perceptive organs of green, and scarcely at all those of violet, must consequently appear to the red-blind a 'saturated' green of a feeble intensity. Feebly luminous red does not excite the perceptive organs of green, and it therefore seems to them black." In the same way we can analyze the color-impressions throughout the whole scale of deficiency in any given case. It is always the luminosity of the given color, and not the color itself, that the color-blind person recognizes; "a mixture of white and black in proper proportions to represent the luminosity of any shade of red or green, will give the color-blind the same sensation as that shade." This leads to curious results. The color-blind having thus a specially trained appreciation of luminosity, or of light and shade, "can sort and place in order a series of shades, red or green, much better than the normal-eyed, because to them the color is but so much light or dark."

The color-blind shopkeeper lets his customer pick out the colors he calls for. "When he makes mistakes enough to lose his place he can take refuge in the mourning-stores, where his defect is an advantage." On the other hand, the color-blind purchaser "is asked by a lady friend to buy a skein of red worsted to match this pattern. Such good 'shopping' forbids the idea of any chromatic defect. But the worsted attendant is away, and another, who is color-blind, hands over the greens to the purchaser; the latter will then complacently select the one which matches in luminosity his *red* pattern." For the same reason "a color-blind engraver has an advantage over his fellow-workmen." Painters finding themselves using vermilion or green indifferently for spring foliage have succeeded well as engravers; the just translation of colors into light and shade, the most doubtful and difficult part of the engraver's task, being already accomplished in considerable part by the color-blind engraver's defect. This acute sense of luminosity in part explains the fact that many of the color-blind remain undetected. A color-blind railway guard learns to distinguish red from green lights by their comparative brightness; while the color-names of common objects are learned and used mechanically. Dr. Jeffries's chapter upon "The Concealment of Color-blindness in Practical Life" is one of the most interesting in the book. A physician whom he was testing by Holmgren's method, "after sitting some time with the one hundred and fifty little skeins of worsted before him, finally said, 'I have tried so hard to supplement my defect by every possible means, and catch other attributes than color to recall the names of them, that if you will give me two or three days to study over these worsteds, and tell me what their colors are, I will afterwards pick them all out correctly, but I shall *see* them no differently.'" Can this be the same case that is mentioned upon page 104 as that of "one of the first and greatest of American poets now living" who is unable to distinguish red from green, or "one tune from another"?

Professor Holmgren's method, simple in principle, requires skill and caution in applying it, and Dr. Jeffries transcribes it in full. It consists in requiring the person examined to match a sample color with shades from a large number of colored worsteds, avoiding any mention of the *names* of colors; for the nomenclature is so imperfect and so imperfectly or differently understood by most people that it becomes a sure source of confusion in the examination, which, indeed, is best conducted in silence; the average time required for each case being, in skilful hands, less than a minute. The ratio of the color-blind among white males seems to be pretty nearly settled at from three to four per cent. Among females it is very much lower. Dr. Jeffries found but 0.52 per cent. among Boston school-girls; the percentage of all observations being 0.26 per cent. No satisfactory reason for this great disparity has been assigned. We may add that Dr. S. M. Burnett, of Washington, finds a similar disparity in his recent examinations by Professor Holmgren's method of colored school-children (aged from six to eighteen) in the District of Columbia. He examined 1,359 boys and 1,691 girls—3,050 in all. "Of these, twenty-two boys were color-blind (or 1.6 per cent.) and two girls (or 0.11 per cent.) The negro appears, therefore, to be less liable to this defect than the white race."

This subject, but recently well understood, will offer a new line of self-contemplation to our more introspective readers, disclosing, as it does, a little-recognized hiatus in the subjective experience of many. Those who are curious to enquire further into the matter may be interested to learn from Dr. Jeffries that the proper colors for conveniently testing color-blindness in assorted worsteds may be "obtained directly from Fräulein Letty Oldberg, in Upsala, Sweden, for about five crowns sixty-three pfennigs."

Gleanings of Past Years. By the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M.P. 4 vols. 16mo. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879.)—The unassuming title under which the author of these papers has collected the occasional productions of thirty-six years of an eminently busy public career, seems an almost conscious plea for some measure of forbearance in the critical estimate which must be made respecting them. The earliest of the series carries us as far back as 1844, while the most recent, the article on "Kin beyond Sea," was published in the *North American Review* of last September. And not only do these essays cover a long period of time, they also exhibit a very wide range of intellectual effort. Perhaps their most striking feature is the breadth of genuine intellectual sympathy, of which they afford such abundant evidence. The first volume deals with subjects connected with politics and government, the second is biographical and literary, the third historical and speculative, while the fourth is confined to foreign questions. Thus we pass from a glowing delineation of limited monarchy as administered under

* 'Color-Blindness: Its Dangers and its Detection. By B. Joy Jeffries, A.M., M.D.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879. 12mo, pp. xiii. 312.

Queen Victoria to an appreciative estimate of the working of American democracy; we have side by side studies of men as opposite in character and influence as Blanco White and the late Bishop Patteson; we have a candid criticism of 'Ecce Homo' and a tribute to Wedgwood; an unsparing denunciation of judicial atrocities at Naples, and an almost poetic picture of the Homeric virtues of the Montenegrins. That with such a variety of subjects there should be coupled considerable diversity of treatment is to be expected, yet there is one marked characteristic which pervades all the volumes, and lends a certain charm to whatever question the author handles, and that is his own evident and hearty interest in it. He seems always drawn to his subject by a real sympathy, and though a writer of unusual literary accomplishments, the merely literary seems always subordinate to the moral motive. The attraction of his theme lies in some connection which it has, at least in his own mind, with an accepted body of truth.

Perhaps for the most discerning readers of these volumes their chief value will consist rather in the help they furnish in forming a fair estimate of the personal opinions and mental habits of a famous man than in any positive contribution that they make to our stock of knowledge. Coming as they do from so liberal a statesman, so accomplished a scholar, and so eloquent a speaker, it is needless to say that they abound with generous sentiments, with apt quotations and trenchant discussion; and yet in the venturesomeness with which they explore, at times, fields with which the writer is evidently but partially acquainted, and in the fondness for strong, if not strained, expression, we are reminded rather of the eager parliamentary debater than of the careful thinker. Many passages might be selected from these volumes which read like fragments of a speech in the House of Commons, and they illustrate, as it seems to us, not only the author's rhetorical but also his intellectual method. With great liberality of sentiment and with great breadth of sympathy, he is inclined to handle questions with the passion and imagination of the orator rather than with the calmness and precision of the philosopher.

To our mind the least satisfactory of these papers are those which deal with subjects in which Mr. Gladstone evidently feels a peculiar interest, namely, those connected with the grounds of opinion and belief. Even his interesting survey of the "Courses of Religious Thought" can hardly be accepted as a very profound analysis of the tendencies of modern religious opinion. Nor do his discussions on foreign politics throw as much light on the great changes of the past twenty years as we might expect from one so intimately versed in affairs. Among the literary essays the best without doubt is the estimate of Macaulay, in which the tone of admiring eulogy inspired by a sincere personal attachment is throughout tempered by a most just recognition of the intellectual and moral limitations of the famous Whig historian. But the portion of these volumes which will awaken the most interest among readers of the present day, and which will constitute their most permanent contribution to literature, are the essays in the first volume upon the court of Queen Victoria and the character of the Prince Consort. By no former writer has the theory of English monarchy been so eloquently and effectively presented, and in no other portions of these volumes are the author's own characteristics so clearly revealed. His ruling habit, to look at all subjects so much in the light of his imagination—a habit which he shares in common with another great orator of a past generation, Mr. Burke—is shown in his enthusiastic delineation of the moral and social function of a court. It recalls the famous passage in the "Reflections on the Revolution in France" in which Marie Antoinette is pictured. Without questioning the substantial accuracy of Mr. Gladstone's account of a society with which he was personally familiar, we cannot but feel that he was under the influence of a natural illusion when he endowed the late Prince Consort with such supereminent excellence. We are not disposed to deny that he was a most amiable, high-toned, and accomplished gentleman, but we are unable to detect any striking likeness between him and the younger Pitt; and when Mr. Gladstone declares that the career of the Prince was "the most conspicuous life of public duty that the nineteenth century has witnessed," we can but feel that there is a certain influence in a court which perhaps the ex-premier himself has not fully appreciated.

How to Get Strong and How to Stay So. By William Blaikie. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1879.)—This useful little book begins with a sharp attack on the physical condition of American boys and girls, and perhaps overstates their inferiority to English and German children of corresponding ages. The former are unequally developed; they use the right hand and side more than the left (as they always will, Charles Reade to the contrary notwithstanding), and some apparently symmetrical exercises, like rowing, are not the cure for this defect. A chapter is devoted to the duty of daily physical exercise on the part of girls; grown women and grown men are next told it is not too late for them to begin; then more or less simple domestic apparatus is figured and described, and the book ends with specific instructions how to exercise any given muscle, and with prescribed modes of exercise for every day for children, young men, women, business men, and consumptives. An appendix shows by authentic statistics how great progress may be made in bodily expansion by very moderate but regular exercise.

The merit of this work lies in the stimulus it is sure to give to thought on a subject almost universally neglected; in demonstrating that a few inexpensive fixtures may be used, in the privacy of one's bed-chamber, to affect every part of the body; in enumerating the exercises appropriate to each; and in emphasizing the fact that the whole operation makes almost no demand on one's time. In fact, a couple of chairs, a pair of dumb-bells, and a bar or trapeze in a doorway, used for ten minutes before going to bed, will make every one his own gymnast, whether man or woman. The health-lift may perhaps not be a superfluous adjunct, though Mr. Blaikie depreciates it, unduly as we think. The rowing-weight would certainly be a positive gain, and it might easily be made an architectural feature of the sleeping-room. It remains, we think, to point out that every one who has the opportunity should acquire the "gymnastic habit" in the usual way, by means of parallel bars, ladders, the horizontal bar, the horse, the rings, etc. The experience thus gained, however slight, will greatly lighten the burden of solitary exercise at home, as well as help to direct it aright.

Spain in Profile. By James A. Harrison. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.)—"A series of profiles projected more or less vaguely by a Spanish sun," is what Mr. Harrison calls his book, in a modest prefatory note disclaiming any guide-book or other utilitarian value for it. The figure is characteristic both in its fancifulness and its inaccuracy, although neither trait is more serious in the book than it is here. Mr. Harrison is by no means "a voluptuary in rhetoric," as he terms Castelar, but he is fond of his phrases and is inclined to pursue picturesqueness a little deliberately; his style is sometimes a little turgid and ecstatic—as in his description of the Seville Cathedral: "Here are the Scriptures dyed blood-red, purple, and amaranth; it is an incarnation in flesh-tints; it is a 'Pilgrim's Progress' and a martyrology in colors" (page 160)—and now and then it leads him into conceits which a sure taste would have preserved him from; for example: "The Cock and the Bull form a large part of the Spanish story" (page 270). And the main defect of his volume is that it is not "a series of profiles," but discursive and rambling past the verge of inexactness occasionally; not perhaps in positive errors of fact, but in a looseness of style which prevents the reader from going along with him trustfully. Nevertheless, despite these obvious shortcomings, Mr. Harrison's sketches are not only agreeable reading but they have a distinct charm. He has in a very perceptible, if not very conspicuous, degree the quality of an artist; he sees things picturesquely and depicts them sympathetically. With Spain itself he seems thoroughly familiar; its history, traditions, customs, people, and literature all serve to illuminate his pages pleasantly and without disclosing any pedantry. Moreover, few books of a similar scope have appeared recently so thoroughly free from the taint of premeditated and gratuitous book-making. "The blonde light of yellow Spain!" exclaims Mr. Harrison at the outset, and it is a light of which he is evidently very fond and which shines upon a land that has quite won his heart. It is not to be supposed, however, that he sees everything *couleur de rose;* he can denounce the national pastime for its frequent Sabbath-breaking as well as for its cruelty, and in various respects in which there is more room for diversity of opinion his discrimination is keen and apparently just. There is but a slight thread of narrative, but the reader will be all the more pleased for that; and upon sufficient provocation, such as a visit to Mr. Lowell at Madrid, the interest of personality is abundantly supplied. Upon the whole a notice that did not cordially commend his book to others than "the light skimmers of summer books," to whom alone Mr. Harrison hopes it will prove entertaining, would be inadequate if not churlish. It is a prettily-bound 16mo, with red edges, and of four hundred and thirty-nine pages.

Bodine's; or, Camping on the Lycoming. A Complete Practical Guide to Camping Out. By Thad S. Up De Graff, M.D. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.)—It may be doubted if any one about to engage

for the first time in any such venture as "camping out" would hazard the attempt of relying solely upon printed advice and instructions in so practical a matter; and of course to any one who has already had the experience advice would be an unendurable impertinence. Nevertheless, Dr. De Graff's book contains much that will be useful to both tyros and old hands at the business. It is the product of fifteen years' experience, written by a physician to whom "camping" was almost a hygienic necessity, and who contrived to rid it of most of its discomforts and endue it with new charms. He discovered that to accomplish this it was by no means needful to go into the Adirondack country, but that proximity to the milk and fresh eggs of civilization was quite compatible with more or less adventurous and romantic enjoyment. The manner and means of his successful and long-tried experiment he communicates with great detail and in a lively, narrative way designed to entertain as well as to instruct. More or less of his book naturally resembles the roseate prescriptions common to the literature which aims to supplant personal instruction, and we earnestly recommend its readers carefully to avoid following some of its cooking recipes, which involve the profuse use of baking-powder, for example. But almost any one will be able to distinguish between its wise and unwise directions, and to use it with advantage as a kind of "camping-out" *vade-mecum*. It is illustrated with woodcuts, which are fortunately as few in number as they are puerile in art, but that is a point upon which publishers are apt to be as uncritical as they are strenuous, and it should not be allowed to detract from the merits of the text.

Conversations on Art Methods. By Thomas Couture. Translated from the French by S. E. Stewart, with an introduction by Robert Swain Gifford. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.)—In 1867 was published 'Méthode et Entretiens d'Atelier. Par Thomas Couture. Paris: Rue Vintimille, No. 22, avec la signature de l'auteur.' That is the whole title; no name of publisher appears, although at a point half-way through the book the author is found counting up the pages he has achieved, and lamenting the *exigeance* of his publisher, who insists on three hundred pages of print. The amusing chapter which contains this account of the dissensions of author and publisher (it is called, by the way, *Aurea Mediocritas*, which the translator only half renders in his chosen words, "The Golden Medium") is full of the reiterated assurance that the writer knows nothing of literature, nothing of the art of expressing himself in words; that he has not much more to say and cannot spin it out much longer; and, on the suggestion of the publisher that he should tell some more little stories like those he has told before, he goes off into an anecdote whose connection with the subject is certainly remote. There are also an introduction and a preface, which exist chiefly for the sake of the same protestations. It is clear that our author is proud of not knowing much about the expression of his ideas otherwise than on canvas. It must also be said that the style of the book throughout is fragmentary, not merely in the sentences but in the chapters. The subject of the first part of a chapter does not always lead to the subject of its third page; and in like manner the chapters are almost as detached one from another as if they were gathered together long after being written, instead of being the successive steps of a carefully-prepared argument. Sentences begin fairly and wind up with "etc.," or with a row of points (. . . .). What seem to be sentences suddenly pull up without their verbs. It is a book expressly fitted to baffle the translator, and, but that this translation lies, in its covers, beside the original, one would say that the words opposite the title-page, "Droits de traduction réservés," were rather a joke on would-be translators.

Under these circumstances the present translator has done better than might have been expected. The English text seldom fails to render the author's meaning; it would appear that the terms of the language of art are familiar to the translator. Delicate distinctions of meaning, however, are sometimes missed, and sometimes wholly avoided by the leaving out of words or phrases; and there are instances of mere carelessness, as if in copying or proof-reading, as where the title of a chapter is tacked to the end of the previous one, and where *Chambertin* is translated by "Champagne," *merveilleux* by "first-class," *fade* by "flat," and *piquette* by "sour wine," all in one paragraph. This indifference has prevented a wholly faithful rendering of the broken sentences and irregular style of the original; but, as has been said, the main significance is nearly always given, and the English book, though far less pleasant to read than the French one, contains the same matter.

What, then, is this matter which we hasten to say makes the book an interesting and valuable one in any shape? It is the broken and disconnected fragments of the knowledge and thought of a life-time spent in the serious practice of art. Couture was the author of the well-known painting, "The Romans of the Decline," a work which by itself gave him a great name, an admitted position among artists; and, although he was less celebrated in after-life than some of his contemporaries, and than some of his successors, he remained in a position of constant and intimate connection with the highest modern developments of the painter's art. His chapters give sometimes the expression of his theory, followed by anecdotes which illustrate it; sometimes long stories drawn from his own experience, the application of which is remote and not easy to perceive; but all is intimately connected with that view—that notion—of the pictorial art to which the manner is everything, the matter nothing; with that conception of the duty of the artist which, however narrow and limited it may seem, is yet the most purely artistical of all, and more worthy than any other exact and severe definition to stand for the undefinable whole of fine-art. Not a page but contains suggestive thought; not a chapter but will aid the beginner in practice to understand his task, and the lover of pictures to read their meaning better. The book must be read carefully that its meaning may be grasped at all; but that meaning is unusually well worth working to secure. Indeed, it would seem that no other book known to us (except perhaps its fellow, its second volume, 'Paysage,' which we shall see translated some day), will do so much to open the reader's eyes to a side of the art of painting which is little discussed, little comprehended, little known outside of the studio, and, alas! very commonly misunderstood within it: the painter's own view of painting, the sculptor's own view of sculpture, necessarily misconceived by all artists but the chosen few, and never seized at all by outsiders. That the two books are full of hasty conclusions and uncritical judgment is evident; they are not critical at all in a strict sense of that word, but poetical—dogmatic instruction, not critical enquiry. As such they are of more value than criticism can be unless far more adequate, at once more learned and more imaginative, than is usually given to the subject of fine art.

Our Autumn Holiday on French Rivers. By J. L. Molloy. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1879.)—Mr. Molloy's book is a narrative of a trip made on the Seine and the Loire in a four-oared shell by himself and three congenial companions possessed to the last degree of the English "holiday" spirit and fondness for out-of-door adventure within the pale of civilization. Some discussion of the best way of spending the "long vacation" resulted in the rejection of such projects as a steam-yacht cruise on the Belgian canals and playing at gypsies in the Devonshire lanes in favor of "taking an outrigger up the Seine." The plan was speedily arranged, and from the start to the return we have an account of all its incidents, main and trivial, direct and indirect, given in the lively manner which it is reasonable to expect from one of the contributors to *Punch*. The author is "Stroke," and his friends "Bow," "Two," and "Three" respectively, and they are thus designated throughout. So much is made of him that we should not omit "Gyp," "our dog, and generally alluded to as a little wonder"—alluded to on every possible occasion apparently. The journey was, on the Seine, from Havre to St. Mamès, a distance of 283 miles; on the Loire, from Orléans to Nantes, 266½ miles; and from Nantes to Redon, 60 miles—a long enough trip, one would say, for any "autumn holiday." Mr. Molloy, however, expresses "a hope that it may be found worthy of repetition by those who have health, strength, and experience to appreciate a trip beyond all telling the most enjoyable." It will be seen that he writes with enthusiasm, which ought perhaps to be the main characteristic of such a book; and his narrative is almost boiling over with animal spirits. It must have been written before the ardor of the author had in any degree cooled; everything is rose-colored, and is described with a rollicking relish which does not fail to communicate itself in due season and in a degree to the reader. But though all Mr. Molloy's geese are evidently swans to him, some of them cannot avoid disclosing their true character to the stranger who views them with inevitable dispassionateness; much that undoubtedly passed for fun with the crew of the *Marie* becomes in frigid print a trifle dreary; many jests and witticisms that seemed excellent lose flavor and appear a little labored; and of a good deal of the book it is to be said that it is flippant rather than piquant, and trivial rather than sprightly. This may be attributed, perhaps, not so much to Mr. Molloy's animal spirits and his consequent optimism as to careless workmanship in book-making; but we prefer the former excuse, and to suppose that "Bow" really miscalled a French cabman *cochon*, even though the joke is an old one, and we have met it in *Punch* itself, if we are not mistaken. There is,

moreover, instruction as well as entertainment to be got from the book. Its accounts of the picturesque and historical French towns the *Marie* was pulled by are not very complete nor profound, but they are vivid and serve to impress the reader with much that is worth knowing far better than more pretentious but less graphic descriptions.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Azarias (Brother), Development of English Literature: Old English	(D. Appleton & Co.)	$1 25
Butt (Beatrice M.), Delicia: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Haeckel (E.), Freedom in Science and Teaching	(D. Appleton & Co.)	1 00
Martin (T.), Life of the Prince Consort, Vol. IV	" "	2 00
Paddock (Mrs. A. G.), In the Toils: a Tale	(Dixon & Shepard)	1 50
Quatrefages (A. de), The Human Species	(D. Appleton & Co.)	2 00
Reid (W.), Some Newspaper Tendencies, swd	(Henry Holt & Co.)	50

DELICIA.

By B. M. BUTT, author of 'Miss Molly.' 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

Some Newspaper Tendencies.

An Address delivered before the Editorial Associations of New York and Ohio. By WHITELAW REID, Editor of the New York *Tribune*. 16mo, paper, 50 cents.

COUSINS.

By L. B. WALFORD, author of 'Mr. Smith.'

HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK.

International Review

FOR AUGUST.

CURRENT POLITICS AND LITERATURE IN FRANCE. By E. de Pressensé, late Deputy, France.

GEORGE SAND: HER LIFE AND WRITINGS. Part 2. By Leopold Katscher, Hungary.

SEPARATION. A Poem. By Wm. M. Hardinge, England.

CABINET GOVERNMENT IN THE UNITED STATES. By Thomas W. Wilson, Princeton.

SOME POLITICAL NOTES AND QUERIES.

THE ZULUS. By J. A. Farrer, London.

THE THOROUGHBRED RACE-HORSE. By Hark Comstock, New York.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 31, 1879.

The Week.

THERE have been ninety-six new cases and thirty-seven deaths from the yellow fever reported at Memphis during the week, the largest number of new cases being the nineteen on the 23d inst., and the smallest the eight reported in yesterday's despatches, a diminution which, moreover, has been gradual and constant. The exodus of the citizens, however, continues, and on Monday of the probable 45,000 inhabitants (the census of 1870 says 40,226) a special census reported but 16,110 persons left in the city, of whom only 4,283 were whites. The Howard Association has announced that for the present it has no need of nurses or physicians from without; and "interviewed" refugees maintain that the city is in the most perfect sanitary condition possible. The refugees have taken the disease and spread alarm in various directions, though in but few cases. Of these, three have occurred in this city—the two in Brooklyn having come from Havana—and several at Shelbyville and Bon Aqua Springs, Tenn., at Louisville and St. Louis. The latest reports from Mississippi City, which come through the National Board of Health, announce five cases and one death. Monday there was the first death of the season from unmistakable yellow fever at New Orleans, but, though it caused a panic, and Natchez and Shreveport instantly quarantined against the city, it has been followed by no others except two doubtful ones.

Senator Sherman has gone up to Maine to speak in the canvass, and delivered a long speech on the 23d at Portland. He opened by a wave of the bloody shirt, showing that to repeal the legislation of the war directed against the South was "State rights" and "nullification," and "revolution and anarchy," and before this, he said, "questions of money, labor, and property sunk into insignificance." After this—which sounds a little wild, but was doubtless called for by the occasion—he spoke at considerable length on the comparatively trifling subject of the resumption of specie payments and the reduction of the national debt, giving a brief résumé of the financial history of the country between 1860 and 1873, and showing that the difficulties which had to be encountered in making any preparation for resumption were mainly due to the action of Congress. He made some amusing quotations from speeches in and out of Congress prophesying the frightful calamities that would result from resumption, but the only Republican he exposed in this way was Mr. W. D. Kelley. He then told the curious story of resumption itself and of the refunding of the five-twenty bonds, and gave some account of the revival of industry. His happiest hit was in showing that he is now doing what the Greenbackers have always clamored for most—redeeming bonds in greenbacks, paying the interest on the national debt in greenbacks, and receiving customs duties in greenbacks—and yet they are not satisfied.

About silver he was both clear and instructive. He said that to make it circulate at par with gold the ratio between the coins must be the market ratio, and not 16 to 1, "which means the single standard of silver"; that $35,801,000 of silver had been coined since 1878, and the Treasury had been only able to put $13,359,942 of it afloat, and of this over $6,500,000 had been returned. He proposed, therefore, to coin it without limit when "the commercial nations had all agreed on a market ratio by which they would stand," but not sooner. He concluded by another short wave of the bloody shirt and a eulogy on the Republican party, which had, he admitted, been guilty of some errors, but on the whole had done great things—which is true. It appeared plainly in his speech that he shared the very common opinion in the Republican ranks, that all legislation passed to carry out the objects or secure the results of the war by the Republican party is, in some sense, part and parcel of the Constitution itself, and only repealable, if repealable at all, with the consent of the Republicans, no matter what the majority in Congress may think. The necessity he felt of waving the bloody shirt, even when his subject was finance, and the speaker Secretary of the Treasury, is also one which nearly all Republican orators seem to feel, and reminds one of the actor at the Surrey Theatre who had the humble rôle of a footman, and who—his sole duty in the play being to say "Sir, your carriage is waiting"—added, "and the man who would lay hands on a woman, except in kindness, is unworthy of the name of a Briton." Secretary Sherman is, however, by far the ablest man the Republicans have to show, and has solid claims on the confidence and gratitude of the country.

General Butler has announced his intention of repeating this fall his chronic attempt upon the Governorship of Massachusetts. For the first time he is to make a confessedly personal canvass, and the call for a purely Butler convention at Worcester in September indicates that the Claimant is convinced of the futility of repeating his former efforts for a "regular" nomination; although Senator Dawes, in an interview, said there was no doubt that Butler would be the Democratic nominee. Still, in that event, he would run with the Democratic "endorsement" only, in effect, and could certainly not get more Democratic votes than he got last year. The announcement of his candidacy has excited no surprise, and but little alarm anywhere except among the Democrats represented by the Boston *Post*, to whom the annual Butler panic has been definitively transferred—perhaps as an ironical punishment for the delight they used to experience in witnessing Republican terror. Senators Dawes and Hoar make light of the General's chances, and the Republicans generally say they will make an active canvass if Butler does, but not otherwise. It is probable, however, that they will be driven to do so, for apparently Butler is able, in some occult way, to extract as much pleasure from an active canvass as he would from a successful one. His recurrent candidacy is one of the inexplicable incidents of contemporary politics. The reputation for political shrewdness that he has acquired can hardly be so false that he can imagine himself in any contingency a possible Presidential candidate with fair prospects of election; and the cost of the Butler kind of canvass must be greater, we should say, than the somewhat idle enjoyment to be derived from making it. Possibly ex-Collector Simmons, who is out for his old patron, would suggest an explanation in the following sentence of the General's letter to the man Usher: "It will be agreed by all that our candidature last year did the State very considerable service in directing the attention of the people of the Commonwealth to the necessity of reformatory changes in the administration of its government." It seems odd, however, to consider Butler posing in the attitude of a self-sacrificing benefactor of his State to the extent which this suggestion implies.

The Republican Conventions of Pennsylvania and Wisconsin were held on the 23d at Harrisburg and Madison respectively. At the former Mr. Samuel Butler, of Chester County, was nominated for State Treasurer; and in Wisconsin, Governor William E. Smith and the present State officers were renominated. The platforms adopted and the various speeches delivered were eloquent rather than precise, which speaks volumes for the heroic enthusiasm of the delegates, who evidently had a cut-and-dried task to perform. Both conventions affirmed that the United States are a nation and not a league; that the Democrats are endeavoring now to obtain by "plotting" what they lost in fight; and that the Republican party is charged with the preservation of the nation it has already saved. The Pennsylvania platform, of course, advocated the continuance of the protective tariff, a subject upon which the other body was silent. Upon the currency question there was very little frankness shown

in either convention. In Pennsylvania the payment of the national debt in "coin" was favored; and in Wisconsin a resolution was passed which should gratify Secretary Sherman, although it did not personally mention him thus early, and which approved of a currency "such as we have at present." It cannot well be that we shall have no more definite party utterances than these before the national conventions of next year instruct the several States.

The fears expressed during the week in the Western news despatches, that General Miles's ambition to become a brigadier would lead him to bring on a general Indian war, must be interpreted like the ingenuous advice to the mob not to duck the poor gentleman in the horse-pond. Certain classes at the West, as we know too well, are always "spoiling for a fight" with the Indians, and they have been anything but alarmed by the collision between General Miles's patrol and a Sioux band in Northern Montana, in the neighborhood of Milk River. There is, fortunately, every reason to believe in the prudence of General Miles, and to suppose him, as well as the authorities at Washington, to be fully impressed with the gravity of the present situation on the border, which Sitting Bull and his people have overstepped in the endeavor to keep from starving by following the buffalo southward. Not only is this formidable body in a quasi-hostile attitude, to say the least, but the Blackfeet and other tribes of the Saskatchewan have had a famishing winter, and are now with difficulty sustained by the issue of rations. The food-region for them, too, lies to the south and in the limits of the United States, and their junction with the warriors of Sitting Bull would greatly enhance the chances and the formidableness of a war. Supposing our forces equal to the emergency, and that Sitting Bull should be driven back into the Dominion, the Canadian Government would have a by no means enviable problem thrust upon it. But we cannot conceive that the oscillation of a savage tribe between two adjacent countries should go on for ever without a mutual understanding and joint provision for removing this menace to the peaceful settlement of the Northwest.

The verdict of the jury in the Buford case, which was that of guilty, and specified the prisoner's punishment as imprisonment for life, is satisfactory to lovers of justice in general of course, but it is particularly encouraging to wise and sincere friends of the South. Taken in connection with the similar verdict in the Cox case recently tried in Atlanta, it is possible that it may indicate a tendency upon the part of Southern juries to deal with Southern outrages as the juries of other civilized lands deal with crime. Buford's case, however, was a peculiarly flagrant one: he had shot a judge for a decision adverse to him, and his defence of insanity was a thoroughly transparent *pis-aller* of his counsel. Even a Kentucky jury could not fail to see the enormity of Buford's crime, and the consequences which his acquittal would have upon the community's respect for law; and even this jury, which is described as an ignorant one in the main, could not be made to believe insane a man who had been a creditable public lecturer, a candidate for the Legislature, and a politician whose opponents had never accused him of mental derangement. So that any inference from their verdict that the character of Southern civilization is changing may be justly considered hasty. Still, it is to be said that Buford's acquittal was almost everywhere confidently predicted, and that in a certain degree his conviction is evidence that there are crimes, aside from robbery and rape, in deliberating upon which the Southern mind does not allow its sense of justice to be obscured by its notions of Middle-Age chivalry.

Judge Hilton's manifesto against the Jews at Saratoga two summers ago has been imitated, with less coarseness and less rigor, by Mr. Corbin, the presiding genius of Manhattan Beach and its approaches. His main grievance appears to be that the class in question sit too long at the tables on his piazzas, smoke cheap cigars, and do not drink enough; so that, apparently, a little more fondness for the promenade, greater extravagance in the consumption of tobacco, and a decided disposition to get drunk, would go far to redeem them in his eyes. He does not complain that they interfere with the good order so remarkable at Coney Island, or add anything to the cares of the police; but for all that, without expressly forbidding them to come on his premises, he wishes to discourage them. The idea of a money discrimination—as, for instance, double fares on the boats and cars, or "two prices" for everything ordered by Jews from his restaurant—does not seem to have occurred to him. In fact, Mr. Corbin's abstaining from any positive measures to carry out his prohibition makes it a *brutum fulmen* for all except the more sensitive and self-respecting of the obnoxious class—*i. e.*, the very ones not aimed at by it. It has consequently been regarded as a mere advertising expedient, and some of Grant's enemies have, we are sorry to say, compared it, as a family measure, with the army order expelling the Jews from the Federal lines—with an evident intent to injure "the boom."

It looks as if there would have to be a new Rapid Transit Commission to secure the object for which the unfortunate gentlemen who now hold that barren title were appointed. This is due to one of the interesting blunders which municipal legislatures occasionally make. The Aldermen were so desirous of putting themselves "squarely on the record" that they reconsidered their veto of the Commission's report, it will be remembered, and definitively settled the matter by the emphasis of a second veto. Now, the property-holders of the new wards are anxious that the routes laid out above the Harlem River should be adopted, to which the Aldermen have no earthly objection, but which they have put it out of their power to bring about, as they might once have done, by the adoption of that part of the Commission's report which did not involve suspicious favors to that well-known *bête-noir* of the legislator, the corrupting Mr. Vanderbilt. All the remedy that we have seen suggested for this charming state of affairs is a new appeal to the mayor by the necessary fifty property-owners for the appointment of a new commission to visa, so to speak, part of the old report. Steps have already been taken to this end.

The progress in harvesting the wheat crop in the Northwestern States, which are the principal producers, was such during the week as to warrant the expectation that the product in quantity and quality will be fully up to the average. This, together with the European advices, which report short crops and foreshadow an unusually large demand on this country, induced free drawing of commercial bills against grain shipments to be made in August and September. The amount of these anticipatory bills was such as to overcome the present demand for remittances to Europe and to break down the rates for all bills on London; prime drawers at the beginning of the week asked 4.85 for sixty-day drafts and 4.87 for demand drafts, but these were subsequently reduced to 4.83 to 4.83½, and 4.84½ to 4.85, respectively. The same reasons that depressed sterling exchange gave an impetus to the upward speculation in the stocks and securities of the railroads of the Northwestern States, and there was a large advance in the prices of all. Aside from this movement the Stock Exchange markets were dull. United States bonds were rather weak for the four per cents, and it really begins to look as if some of the national banks would relinquish their note circulation rather than substitute four per cent. bonds as security for their notes in place of 10-40 bonds, which have been called for redemption and interest on which has ceased. The Treasury bond settlements have all passed without disturbance to the money market, and the rate for loans here rules at 2 to 3 per cent.; in London, discounts are yet obtainable at the rate of ¼ to ⅜ of 1 per cent. per annum.

The last monthly report of the Bureau of Statistics completes the statement of exports and imports for the fiscal year ending June 30. The total value of the former was $710,423,743, of the

latter $445,792,141, or an excess of exports amounting to $264,636,602. This is an increase of some seven millions over the surplus of 1877–78, and involves an increase in the exports of $15,600,000, and of imports of $8,800,000. For the past seven months, however, the upward tendency has been with the imports. The year before the panic marked the culmination of the adverse commercial balances since the war. The average of these balances annually was, as the *Commercial Bulletin* shows, $98,800,000; the total for nine years (deducting the net export of specie) being $363,000,000. During the past six years, on the contrary, the credit balance has averaged $125,000,000 and the total (net export of specie added) has been $924,000,000. Nothing can show more forcibly the debt-paying capacity of the country, and the material rewards of industry and economy; the moral gain cannot be stated in figures.

The so-called "Letellier Case," even more than the question of protection, influenced the last general election in Canada, and has since been the chief topic of discussion in the politics of the Dominion. It has at length been settled. Mr. Letellier, it will be remembered, was the Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec, and had dismissed the Provincial Ministry, in spite of its having a working majority in the House, on the ground that it had treated him with disrespect and had forced certain measures that were not in the public interest. The Dominion Parliament at once took up the issue thus created, and Sir John Macdonald, then the leader of the Opposition, after a parliamentary defeat, made it a leading question after the subsequent dissolution, and upon becoming the Conservative premier at the next session, with a large majority behind him, demanded Letellier's dismissal at the hands of Lord Lorne. The latter referred the matter to the Home Government, which, generally wise in inaction, referred it back to the Governor-General, and Dr. Robitaille has just been announced as Mr. Letellier's successor. There can be no doubt of the wisdom of the Beaconsfield Government's refusal to interfere; anything other would have irritated Canada as, in the opinion of less radical judges than Mr. Goldwin Smith, it would have been foolish to irritate her. As for the pith of the real question at issue, it must be admitted that Sir John Macdonald has had the good fortune to be more nearly right than is often his lot. There was a cloud of dust raised and a great deal of heat engendered, but the dismissal of Mr. Letellier seems, in spite of all the complexities of the matter, to be a vindication of the responsibility of parliamentary ministers to their electors, a protest against arbitrary individual action on the part of individual executives, and an emphasis of the well-understood supremacy of the different Canadian provinces in purely local matters. On the other hand, those who regard provincial cabinets as costly and somewhat ridiculous surplusage in the Dominion system, will find their objections confirmed by the incident just closed.

From England there is little news beyond the Zulu victory, whatever attention can be spared from the obsequies of the Prince Imperial and the performances of the Comédie-Française being bestowed unavailingly on the deplorable condition of agriculture, which is now in a more serious condition than trade. A royal commission is to enquire into it, and some sensation has been excited by the admission of the Marquis of Hartington that the present land system cannot stand. In fact, it appears more and more likely that the Liberals will now make a desperate effort to dislodge the Tories from the counties, of which they have held almost undisputed possession for two centuries, by offering the tenant-farmers better tenures and more freedom, and by making it easier for landlords to lower their rents and to sell what they cannot afford to keep. The only thing the Tories could oppose to this would be protection for agricultural produce, which, however, they dare not talk of, as it would mean dear food and rouse the working classes to fury.

Lord Chelmsford has delivered himself from a very unpleasant position by winning an apparently decisive victory over the Zulus, and destroying the large "kraal" which passes for King Cetewayo's capital, Ulundi, and Sir Garnet Wolseley pronounces the war at an end. The difficulty in bringing the king to terms in spite of his two defeats appears to have lain in the fact that the invaders fought him on both occasions behind intrenchments or a wagon laager, and from his experience at Isandula he has believed he could beat them in the open by an impetuous charge. At Isandula, however, besides the surprise, the Zulus were received in line, and even in the open order which the breech-loader has introduced into the tactics of all European armies. In this last fight their onset was received in a hollow square, as in the old days of cavalry charges, and they were routed in half an hour and pursued by the cavalry with heavy slaughter. It is now said that, having redeemed himself, Lord Chelmsford will resign, and leave to Sir Garnet Wolseley the task of settling the terms on which the Zulu king is hereafter to live with his neighbors.

The English Ministry have furnished one more weapon to the Liberals by Lord Salisbury's denial in a recent speech that they incurred any responsibility about reform in Asia Minor by their Convention with Turkey. He says the very idea is "absurd," and that "the utmost they can do is to urge upon every suitable opportunity and with all the energy they can that the promises the Porte had given should be fulfilled." The facts are that the Convention guaranteed Asiatic Turkey against all aggression, and in return for this the Porte promised reform, and the Ministry presented this promise to the country as an assurance that the Turkey they were to defend was to be a renovated Turkey. The present repudiation of all responsibility about reform shows that the Liberals were right in their assumption that the Convention was a cunning device of Lord Beaconsfield's to cover up the substantial defeat he sustained at Berlin, and the *Economist* compares it now, in language never before applied by respectable writers to ministers of the Crown, to "a check with no effects behind it in order to get respectably out of a tavern."

Germany is passing through the most serious political crisis which has overtaken her since 1866. Prince Bismarck, before the adjournment of the Reichstag on the 13th ult., formally broke with the National-Liberal party in one of his most powerful speeches, and put himself at the head of a combination composed of the Conservatives and Ultramontanes. Not only has Dr. Falk been dismissed, as a sop to the Ultramontanes, but they have been further gratified by an agreement that all money over a certain amount raised by the new protective tariff shall be divided among the separate States, which is a distinct concession to the Particularist interest. Encouraged by his success thus far, the Chancellor now proposes that the duration of the Imperial Parliament shall be extended to four or six years, and intervals of two shall elapse between its sessions, so that the taxes will have to be voted for two years at least, thus greatly diminishing parliamentary control over the revenues. This project, which involves several amendments to the Constitution, is now before a committee, and it has filled the Liberals of all shades with dismay, and the National-Liberal party is said to be utterly disorganized.

The Austrian Liberals have also been unfortunate at the late general elections. They have lost forty-five seats, leaving them with a majority of only eleven, which can hardly be called a working majority. The gains are made mainly by the landed interest, and indicate a revival of the influence of the great proprietors, particularly in the Slav constituencies, and the cause is very much the same as that which put Disraeli in power in England in 1873, and has enabled Bismarck to carry his tariff and other schemes in Germany —viz., a sort of weariness, aggravated by the hard times, of the rule of the commercial and professional classes, which has now lasted since 1866. Having tried the "thinkers" and progressive men without attaining complete happiness, the constituencies turn to the country squires.

SENTIMENTALISM IN POLITICS.

THERE is at present some curiosity in the public mind to know how the Administration feels towards the solid Democratic South after the contest it has had with its representative majority in Congress. Mr. W. E. Chandler essayed to gratify this feeling a few days since by assuring a reporter that the President far out-did himself and his fellow-Stalwarts in the indignation which he felt at the general political course of the South during his Administration. Whether this was merely the random assertion of a mind not remarkable for sobriety of judgment, or the shrewd guess of an astute politician, it is worthy of consideration from its representative character. The notion that such a feeling on the part of the Administration would, under the circumstances, be eminently reasonable, is entertained by a large majority of the Republican party, and, no doubt also in secret, by no small number of Democrats.

The case presents itself to the average mind in a form like this: When President Hayes came into office, there was a contest between the two wings of his party as to whether he should or should not use the military force at his disposal to keep Chamberlain and Packard in power in the States of South Carolina and Louisiana, and whether he should continue to confine the Federal officers in the South to that class of men who held them under the Grant régime. In this contest the white Democrats of the South believed that the interests of their section were deeply involved. If Hayes yielded to the Stalwarts, governments which they considered as among the most odious would be enforced upon them, and the material prosperity of their section would continue exposed to all the dangers and drawbacks arising from bad administration. Instead of pursuing this course, which from the ordinary politician's point of view was that demanded by the interests of his own party, the President did what the South desired, and thus conferred upon the latter a valuable and lasting privilege. Such being the case, it was supposed that the common sentiment of gratitude would prompt them to do something in return. Since the benefit came from a source which, in some sort, represented the Republican party, it seemed nothing more than reasonable that the expression of gratitude should take the form of a favor to that party, and the only favor which could be done it was that of voting its ticket. Hence the President is supposed to have looked with great interest to see the Southern people rise up and overthrow the Democratic party in all the Congressional districts where the beneficent effects of his policy had been felt, or, at least, to stay away from the polls in sufficient numbers to allow the Republicans to elect their candidates. The Stalwarts assured him that no such result would follow, that the South was not to be trusted to do anything but oppose his own party to the utmost under all circumstances, and that it would use the very power he put into its hands for the benefit of his political enemies. To a mind so magnanimous as that of Mr. Hayes this seemed hardly credible, and he went on in full confidence that he would find his good feelings and intentions reciprocated. Time has proved the Stalwarts to have been right, so far as the impossibility of recruiting the Republican party from the white Democrats of the South is concerned, and now the President and his supporters are supposed to be lamenting the failure of his policy and the ingratitude of humanity.

Plausible as this view appears at first sight, it is founded on those radically false ideas of the objects of political management which, diffused among the masses, constitute one of the great difficulties with which the progress of sound principles has to deal. Those who adopt this view do not think it worth while to ask whether the course of the President has or has not promoted the cause of good government in the South, but only whether it has been successful as a political manœuvre. It assumes that the only motive which actuated the President and his supporters was that of securing a Republican Congress, and, of course, the effort is pronounced a failure because this end was not gained. The lesson which the more radical Republicans would have the country learn is, that the South is not to be trusted. But if they will look a little deeper they will find that a much more valuable lesson is taught them.

Wise statesmanship accepts human nature as it is, with all its infirmities, and does not assume that men in general are either angels or devils. Human nature is so constituted that it does not overflow with gratitude for any act, however beneficent, unless that act be prompted by a disinterested spirit. Just so far as support and gratitude are expected in return, just so far is the moral effect of the act diminished. As Morley says in his study of Rousseau, "A service done in expectation of gratitude is from that fact stripped of the quality which makes gratitude due, and is a mere piece of egoism in altruistic disguise." In political life men's innermost motives are as clear as the light, and the more gratitude a public man expects from his constituents for a virtuous act, the less he will get. Now, every one feels and knows that neither political party is at the present time actuated by any higher motive than that of succeeding in the next election; and so long as this is so it is puerile to expect any interest to deal with it in a spirit different from its own. No doubt when President Hayes assured the Southern States the privileges of self-government within the Union he acted from the purest and highest motives. Could the Southern people have given him political support entirely irrespective of party, we can hardly believe that they would have hesitated in doing it. But they knew very well that behind him was a party carefully ciphering out on their slates how many members of Congress it might gain or lose by his course, and looking on the situation in no other light than that of its effect on their own interests. Such being the case, it was only human to resolve that the calculators should be left to take care of their own interests.

If we look upon the Administration as having no higher hope than that of winning Southern whites over to the Republican party, good advice would be thrown away upon it. An individual who is not only selfish but is not willing to wait for the slow grinding of the mills of God, will never receive much sympathy from any quarter, nor much benefit from good advice; and the moral law is much the same for an organized party as for an individual. But if the party, or its leader, sees some higher problem of statesmanship than that of making the majority vote their own ticket, it will not be difficult to point out some of the conditions of success.

The first thing to be recognized is, that the problem of dealing with the South is a purely practical one. Sentiment has nothing at all to do with the matter, and is nearly as much out of place as passion. We may as well at once make up our minds that any profession of love on our side will do little good, unless we make them feel that it is entirely disinterested and has no relation to politics, which it will be difficult to do under present circumstances. We must throw aside all considerations of love and hate, gratitude and ingratitude, and show them that we are actuated by a regard for sound principles and an honest administration in which no amount of unfriendly feelings on their part can make us waver. A dispassionate adherence to a fixed line of policy, dictated by a regard for the general welfare, modelled so far as possible after the laws of nature, unshaken by threats or blandishments, and persevered in to the end, has a wonderful influence on all men, even the most degraded. Nothing quells passion so surely as resistance by an entirely dispassionate agent. In the Constitution and laws we have such a policy marked out with sufficient precision to serve as a guide under nearly all circumstances. Differences of opinion in matters of detail are, of course, inevitable, but in settling them no better rule can be adopted than to reject the advice of all who are moved by feelings of any kind, whether love, hatred, or passion, and take the advice only of the coolest portion of the community. What is most wanted to cement the Union is a few years of an Administration which shall show neither animosity nor favoritism towards the South, expect neither its opposition nor support, insist on nothing but a due regard to the Constitution and laws on both sides, and wait patiently in calm confidence that the reward of virtue, though long delayed, will surely come at last.

The present Administration has kept about as near to this ideal

as we can expect in the present state of political feeling, and whatever disappointments it may have suffered it has every reason to be satisfied with the result not only to the South but to itself and its party. It has started the South on the only possible road to good government by allowing power to be taken from the hands of reckless adventurers and put into the hands of men who, whatever their shortcomings, represented the intelligence of the community. An element of moral strength has thus been gained which would not have been possible under any other course, and which will the more surely tell in the future the more closely it is imitated by Republicans everywhere. So far as purely party interests are concerned, if the President has not saved his party in the South, he has saved it in the North. Those of its members who complain that it does not command its old majorities should compare its position now with its utter demoralization two years ago, and reflect upon the situation in which it would now be placed if the Stalwarts had then had their own way. The doctrine that in time of peace a State government can be kept in power by Federal bayonets is one which can never receive the sanction of the Northern people, unless under the influence of a gust of feeling. Had the President desired a Democratic successor he could have taken no more effective step to gain his object than that of yielding to the friends of military rule over the South; and whatever the final result may be, it will not be so bad for the party as that course would have proved.

THE PROPOSED AMERICAN INTEROCEANIC CANAL.

THE development of steam navigation made it necessary to cut a ship-canal through the Isthmus of Suez, and the time has arrived when it is equally necessary to create a water-way across the American isthmus. The subject has been discussed periodically for three centuries with great earnestness; and but for the natural obstacles to be overcome and the enormous cost of the work, it would long ago have been completed. Steam traffic between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans has reached the point which ensures an adequate return for the investment of the sum required to complete and maintain an American interoceanic canal, and this, coupled with the necessity for diminishing the cost of carrying the products of our Pacific States to European markets, ensures the construction of a canal within a period of ten or fifteen years. These products, it should be stated here, are not such as can ever be profitably transported across the continent by rail, and there would be no injurious competition between the Pacific railways and an interoceanic canal.

The Suez Canal is simply an exceptionally wide and deep ditch, cut for the most part mechanically through loose sand across a low and nearly uniform section of land. The genius of M. de Lesseps was displayed not in overcoming the forces of nature by engineering triumphs, but in persuading governments, bankers, and individuals to furnish him the money needed to complete the canal. It is a tolerably familiar fact that there was water communication between the Mediterranean and Red Seas, *viâ* the Nile and a canal, more than three thousand years ago, and there is evidence of the existence of an artificial water-way across the Isthmus of Suez more than four thousand years ago. The engineering problems presented for solution in the construction of an American interoceanic canal are not comparable with those of any similar works in the Old World, and have but few parallels in the United States; they are novel in many particulars, and can only be solved by deliberate study in the light of past experience. There is, therefore, something ludicrous in the assurance with which M. de Lesseps and his associates in the Suez construction arrogantly assume a superior knowledge on all canal questions. A lack of appreciation of the magnitude of the work now about to be undertaken, and an inordinate conceit in his power to overcome all obstacles, are the two most prominent deductions from the recent utterances and acts of this influential personage.

Prior to 1870 our knowledge of the American Isthmus was derived chiefly from the assertions of interested persons and from incomplete surveys, although parts of several routes had been carefully examined. Beyond demonstrating the need of a systematic examination of the whole Isthmus, and teaching how to provide against climatic and other natural difficulties, very little had been accomplished. The selection for chief of a bureau in the Navy Department of an officer who had given special attention to the canal question, combined with the growing popular interest in the subject, and demand for more rapid sea-transit between our Atlantic and Pacific ports, resulted in the organization, in 1869, of naval exploring parties which spent the six ensuing winters on the Isthmus, and the summers in working up the observations for publication. This labor was persisted in until every probable route had been instrumentally examined and the data prepared for discussion. The service thus rendered by the Navy reflects the greatest credit on the officers engaged in it, and particularly on Commander E. P. Lull, who appears to have been either the chief or the second in command of all but one of the exploring parties. The whole body of data was placed before a commission appointed by the President, by authority of Congress, composed of the Chief of Engineers of the War Department, the Chief of the Coast and Geodetic Survey of the Treasury Department, and the Chief of the Bureau of Navigation of the Navy Department. After careful and deliberate examination of the subject the Commission unanimously reported, in February, 1876:

> "That the route known as the Nicaraguan route . . . possesses, both for the construction and maintenance of a canal, greater advantages, and offers fewer difficulties from engineering, commercial, and economic points of view, than any one of the other routes shown to be practicable by surveys sufficiently in detail to enable a judgment to be formed of their relative merits."

This decision will be regarded by all unprejudiced and disinterested persons capable of appreciating the circumstances as finally settling the question as to the best route for a canal. Subsequently, and in apparent ignorance of this decision, and of the extended surveys on which it was based, M. de Lesseps and a few associates advanced a large sum of money and sent parties to explore the Isthmus. During these explorations a concession was granted by the Colombian Government to their agent, who thereupon made an effort to obtain copies of the unpublished data resulting from the United States surveys of the Panama route. These and all other data which the world owes to the United States surveys were ultimately laid before the Congress recently held at Paris, under the auspices of the Geographical Society, by representatives of the United States Government. The meeting had been called ostensibly to discuss the subject and recommend the best route; an examination of the *procès-verbaux* and accompanying documents shows clearly that the Society permitted M. de Lesseps and his associates in the Panama Canal venture to use its name and influence to secure the approval of their scheme, so that the concession they controlled might be utilized. An analysis of the list of members of the Congress shows that of the one hundred and fifteen members seventy-five were self-appointed Frenchmen; of the sixty foreign members five were connected with the Suez Canal, and twelve were given seats by M. de Lesseps. Certainly none of the French members, none of those connected with the Suez Canal, nor any of the members given seats by M. de Lesseps, would be likely to oppose him; the result was a certain majority of sixty-nine votes on any question avowedly advocated by M. de Lesseps. From his opening remarks to his closing address before the Congress and its committees, at social gatherings, in private and in public, he advocated the construction of a canal *at sea-level viâ* Panama and Aspinwall. The excuse offered for this indecent exercise of his powerful influence was the conviction on his part that a canal with locks was impracticable. So manifest were the advantages of the Nicaragua over all other routes that, in spite of the opposition of M. de Lesseps, the engineers of the Congress had almost reached the point of recommending it, when, on the day before the final sitting, the Panama scheme at sea-level was abandoned by M. de Lesseps and his adherents, and a plan substituted for it in which locks formed the essential feature, and which was founded on an imaginative basis of topography of the Isthmus unwarranted, if not conclusively proved as not existing, by the United States surveys.

Admitting that M. de Lesseps and his associates were sincere in opposing a construction involving locks on account of the time necessary to operate them, is such an objection well founded? The proof that it is not is found in the official reports of the United States Army Engineers in charge of the construction and management of the Des Moines Rapids and Louisville & Portland Canals. It is a satisfaction to us, and might possibly interest our transatlantic friends, to know that there is now near completion at the St. Mary's Falls, between Lakes Superior and Huron, a lock having a length of five hundred and fifteen feet and a lift of eighteen feet, the largest ship canal-lock in the world, through which vessels will be passed in ten minutes.

We do not think it necessary to defend the selection of the Nicaraguan route by the American Commission, composed, as it was, of three men so well fitted to make the selection by their eminent ability, extended experience, and, above all, their freedom from personal prejudice in favor of any one route, against the selection of the Panama route by a packed congress composed chiefly of non-professional members and secretaries of geographical societies practically, if not positively, pledged in advance to advocate and support a certain route because those who had called the congress controlled a favorable concession for using it. A canal at sea-level at Panama is shown to be impracticable by the indisputable facts that such a canal must receive and carry off without injury to itself all the drainage of the Chagres River, and that this river frequently rises over thirty feet in one night. If tunnels are constructed, such a rise would stop traffic by filling them. An open cut would cost five or six times as much as the traffic would warrant, and require an enormous sum to keep it in repair; and if ever completed, the canal would be a financial failure. The official utterances of M. de Lesseps since the Congress adjourned indicate his bewilderment on the economic as well as engineering questions involved. The cost of the canal *viâ* Panama, as estimated by the *Commission Technique*, was one thousand and forty-four millions of francs, and the time necessary to complete it twelve years. M. de Lesseps has within a short time publicly stated that the same canal can be built for less than five hundred millions of francs in less than five years. He proposes to issue four hundred millions of francs of stock, incur an indebtedness of two hundred millions of francs, guarantee an annual interest of five per cent. pending the construction, and an annual dividend of eleven and a half per cent. after completion. He fails to state the sources of his revenue pending construction, and he admits that the gross revenue of the canal will only be ninety millions of francs. He must, therefore, have in view some novel method of providing for the maintenance of this costly work with one-tenth of one per cent. of the gross annual revenue.

The construction of an American interoceanic canal being necessary to the United States, the economic and political questions involved are of greater importance than any discernible by human foresight in the near future. Wherever and whenever it is constructed it will become the most sensitive and vital part of our interstate and international commercial system, and we must be prepared to protect it from the evils of local revolutions and foreign aggression, to seize it when necessary and successfully defend it against the two greatest naval powers in the world. The completion of such a canal involves, therefore, the creation and maintenance of a naval force in the Atlantic and Pacific capable of contending with that of any possible European combination.

THE COMÉDIE-FRANÇAISE IN LONDON.

London, July 12, 1879.

THE Comédie-Française gives to-night the last representation of its extraordinarily successful series, and I am reminded that I am on the point of losing my opportunity for carrying out an intention long deferred, and making a few remarks upon this very interesting episode of the visit to London of the children of Molière. The first remark to be made is that this visit has been a brilliant, a complete, an unclouded success. It is saying little for it to say that it is incomparably the most noteworthy event that has occurred for many a long year in the theatrical annals of London: these annals are not so rich as to impart any great force to such a compliment. But what I may say is that the episode will have been a memorable one in the annals of the house of Molière itself. Its members, individually, have refreshed their laurels and renewed their fame, and the beauty and power of the best French acting have affirmed themselves under circumstances which give an added value to the triumph. The appeal has been made to a foreign audience, an audience whose artistic perceptions are the reverse of lively, whose ear does not respond quickly to the magic French utterance, and whose mind does not easily find its way among the intricacies of French sentiment; and yet the triumph has been perfect, and the Comédie-Française and the London public have been thoroughly pleased with each other. I am far from intimating that the Théâtre Français in its collective or ideal capacity has gained in prestige or in dignity by its visit to London and its successful exploitation of English curiosity. This is another question, and there are various things to be said about it. If London has been charmed by this delightful episode, Paris has by no means been affected in the same manner. Parisian irritation has been almost in direct proportion to English applause. It is hardly too much to say that Parisian opinion has been to a certain point scandalized. The conservative view of the case is easy to understand, and (inconsistent as the declaration may appear) it wholly commands my sympathy. In this view the Comédie-Française has no right to detach itself from French soil; it is beneath its dignity to wander off to foreign lands like a troupe of common strollers, to fill its cash-box and make barbarians stare. If it leaves Paris it should betake itself to some other French city; it should speak only to French-speaking audiences; it should find a temporary home at Lyons, at Marseilles, at Bordeaux. Indeed, in the view of many fastidious spirits, the Comédie-Française should not think too much about the cash-box at all. It should enjoy its copious subvention; it should live in comfort and credit; but it should never propose to itself to make money. It should never, as the French say, *courir les aventures*. Such vulgar ambitions are for other companies—they are not for the house of Molière, which belongs to the Gallic soil, to the climate, to the atmosphere, and has as little right to absent itself as the French Academy or the Chamber of Deputies would have to hold their sittings in neighboring states. The pretext of this brilliant escapade on the part of an austere institution was the undertaking of certain repairs and embellishments in the great theatre of the Rue de Richelieu, where it must be confessed that some such labors had long been urgently needed. The house was to be put in order, the theatre was to be closed for six weeks. It was decided to spend these six weeks in London, and a rich pecuniary harvest was guaranteed beforehand. The Comédie assumed no risks, and no one connected with the enterprise can have been a loser—not even the tattered persons, of both sexes, whose share in it has been to thrust the play-book into the windows of the long train of carriages slowly advancing to the Gaiety Theatre. This is all very well; but if I were a consistent Parisian I should be no better pleased. I have spent as many evenings at the Gaiety Theatre as I have found possible, and I have always enjoyed my privilege; but, distinctly, the institution which I just spoke of as austere has lost to my eyes a part of that sanctity in which it was formerly clad. I have enjoyed it in London, but I am afraid that in case of paying it a visit in Paris I shall not enjoy it so much. I have seen it out of its element—I have seen it in the Strand! I have seen it vulgarized, reduced to the level of ordinary commercial ventures, departing from its traditions and compromising with its ideal. I don't know a more striking example of the spirit of the age, of the march of a civilization before which old scruples and reserves, old sentiments and sanctities are successively toppling over.

But of course if the Comédie-Française was willing, we were only too delighted, and I must restrict myself to talking of our charming impressions. It is true that we have talked of them a great deal already—a certain section of the London world may be said for the last five weeks to have talked of nothing else. It had found a topic, and in a community addicted to dinner-giving a topic has precious uses. Indeed, there came a time when the Comédie-Française threatened to take rank with the weather, or with Mrs. Langtry, as a subject available only for persons who had resigned themselves to the apparent sacrifice of originality. I almost feel tempted to say that the most entertaining part of the episode has been the performances, not of the Comédie, but of the audience. The Théâtre-Français, as exhibited to London society, is one branch of the affair; London society, as exhibiting itself to the Théâtre-Français, is another. The most amusing comedians have not always been before the footlights, and the drama has gone on in the world as well as on the

stage. The whole thing, on the part of the public, has been very characteristic, very English—the Parisian mind would probably say very provincial. I shall not attempt, however, to go into details on this point—it is enough to say that the hospitality of the London world has been extreme and complete. The Comédie-Française has been "taken up," collectively and individually, with a warmth which must have taxed the preconceptions of the French imagination, and which does great honor to English courtesy. How the French imagination may have reconciled all this—especially in some of its phases—with the familiar traditions about English stiffness and coldness, English prudery and false delicacy, it profits not to enquire. It is enough that it must occasionally have been sorely puzzled, and have carried away a considerable store of tough problems, to be solved at leisure. One of these, for instance, will be connected, as we may surmise, with the extraordinary vogue of Mademoiselle Sarah Bernhardt, and will concern itself with enquiring into the sources of the tender interest excited by this lady. I speak of her "vogue" for want of a better word; it would require some ingenuity to give an idea of the intensity, the ecstacy, the insanity as some people would say, of curiosity and enthusiasm provoked by Mlle. Bernhardt. I spoke just now of topics, and what they were worth in the London system. This remarkable actress has filled this function with a completeness that leaves nothing to be desired; her success has been altogether the most striking and curious, although by no means, I think, the most gratifying, incident of the visit of the Comédie. It has not been the most gratifying, because it has been but in a very moderate degree an artistic success. It has been the success of a celebrity, pure and simple, and Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt is not, to my sense, a celebrity because she is an artist. She is a celebrity because, apparently, she desires with an intensity that has rarely been equalled to be one, and because for this end all means are alike to her. She may flatter herself that, as regards the London public, she has compassed her end with a completeness which makes of her a sort of fantastically impertinent *victrix* poised upon a perfect pyramid of ruins—the ruins of a hundred British prejudices and proprieties. Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt has remarkable gifts; her success is something quite apart, as the woman herself is something quite apart; but her triumph has little to do with the proper lines of the Comédie-Française. She is a child of her age—of her moment—and she has known how to profit by the idiosyncrasies of the time. The trade of a celebrity, pure and simple, had been invented, I think, before she came to London; if it had not been, it is certain that she would have discovered it. She has in a supreme degree what the French call the *génie de la réclame*—the advertising genius; she may, indeed, be called the muse of the newspaper. Brilliantly as she had already exercised her genius, her visit to London has apparently been a revelation to her of the great extension it may obtain among the Anglo-Saxon peoples, and the dénoûment of this latest chapter in the history of the Comédie-Française is that Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt has resigned her place as *sociétaire*. You will, of course, have heard long before this reaches you that she has formed projects, more or less definite, for visiting the United States. I strongly suspect that she will find a triumphant career in the Western world. She is too American not to succeed in America. The people who have brought to the highest development the arts and graces of publicity will recognize a kindred spirit in a figure so admirably adapted for conspicuity. Mlle. Bernhardt will be a loss to the Comédie-Française, but she will not be a fatal one. Charming as are some of her gifts, peculiar and picturesque as is her whole artistic personality, it cannot in the least be said that she is a consummate actress, or even what the French call a real *comédienne*. She is far from belonging to the race of Rachel and Desclée, she has something sceptical and cynical which was wholly foreign to the manner of those concentrated and serious artists. There are, indeed, actresses now at the Théâtre-Française who are very much more complete than Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt. Mlle. Favart knows her trade as her more youthful and more captivating successor will probably never pretend to do. But unfortunately Mlle. Favart lacks charms; she pleases no one but the people whose judgment is complicated by an appreciation of technicalities. It is to be added that Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt's repertory is a singularly narrow and disadvantageous one; in a single part, in "Phèdre" alone, has she a chance to give the measure of a great talent. The plaintive and pathetic passages of "Phèdre" she renders with admirable delicacy and grace; but in the violent scenes she forces her note beyond all reason, and becomes painfully shrill and modern. Her only other opportunity is in the last act of "Hernani," which apparently has been her great success in London. In "Ruy Blas" her part is pale and savorless, and in "L'Étrangère" it is an almost grotesquely bad one. In "Zaïre" she has failed in London to make her mark; and in "Andromaque" she has little or nothing to do but to assume the attitude of a weeping willow, rustling and murmuring in melancholy zephyrs. This it must be confessed, however, she does to perfection.

Her rival, Mademoiselle Croizette, has obtained a very much scantier share of the public favor, and this lady's failure to please the English public has been, I believe, for the administration of the Comédie-Française, one of the surprises of the visit to London. This accident will have been less of a surprise to many spectators; yet I nevertheless think that Mlle. Croizette has not received her due. She has the misfortune of lacking a certain indispensable delicacy of interest, and it must be added that the amplitude of her person has reached a point at which, in the parts of young girls, illusion tends to vanish. But Mlle. Croizette is a very handsome woman and a very vigorous and definite actress, and it would have been in the interest of ideal justice that English applause should have been rather more equally divided between the most eminent of the younger ladies of the Comédie-Française. As regards the elder ones, we have had the entertainment—and found it an excellent one—of seeing Madeleine Brohan and Mademoiselle Favart in the parts of mothers and aunts The latter lady, in consenting to undertake the representation of maturity and maternity, has opened for herself a fresh and honorable career; and nothing can be more charming, more brilliant and picturesque, than Madeleine Brohan's creation of the old *Marquise de Villemer*, in George Sand's agreeable drama of that name. The striking thing in London, however, as it has long been in Paris, is the great superiority of the masculine side of the house. The great trio of Got, Delaunay, Coquelin, is unapproached, and from present appearances unapproachable, by any feminine combination. Each of these great actors has won himself large honors with the English public; each of them has done with a rich perfection that which he has had to do. If I were to put forward one of these artists rather than another as the source of my own highest pleasure, I think I should have little hesitation in naming the rich, the rare, the admirable and inimitable Coquelin. There was a time when I thought Got the first of living actors, and Got is certainly still a consummate, a superb comedian. But as Coquelin has advanced in life and in his art, he has attained a command of his powers and developed an intelligence of the whole dramatic mystery which place him, to my sense, almost alone. His variety, his versatility, the extent of his scale, are extraordinary; he is at once the most joyous and exuberant of pure comedians and the most powerful and touching of serious actors. He has a deeper intelligence than is often seen upon the stage; he strikes at once the note of high comicality and the note of passion, of deep seriousness; and he does both of these things with a certain touching, moving, exciting ardor. I said just now that Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt was supposed to be going to America. That is all very well; but what I really wish is that M. Coquelin would go.

XX.

THE KHEDIVE'S DEPOSITION.

CAIRO, July 5, 1879.

THE forced abdication of the Khedive in favor of his eldest son has been effected so quietly that but few persons out of Egypt are aware how near we came to having very serious times here. It is well known that when the question of the abdication first came up the Porte was strongly in favor of the succession of Halim Pasha, the late Khedive's uncle, now living in exile in Paris, who, according to the old system of succession, would have succeeded Saïd Pasha in 1863. The late Khedive had told Shaim Pasha, the Minister of War, that if Halim Pasha, or any person other than one of his own sons, should be designated as his successor, he would fight. He added, moreover, that the present state of affairs was such that the chances were that no European power would care to go to the expense of sending a force to conquer Egypt as soon as it was known that there would be a serious resistance. Military preparations were selessly but effectively pushed forward, and in three weeks about one hundred thousand men could have been put into the field well equipped and passably well disciplined.

On Wednesday, June 25, at three o'clock in the morning, the Consuls-General of England and France called at the palace and demanded the immediate abdication of the Khedive. The Khedive asked them what guarantee would be given as to the succession of one of his sons. Upon the reply that Tewfik Pasha, his eldest son, would succeed, but that they were not prepared to give any guarantees, the Khedive refused to consider the question of abdication any further at that early hour in the

morning, and referred them to the Sultan. Wednesday and Thursday the scene was transferred to Constantinople, where the representatives of the Powers had their hands full in making the Porte realize the folly of persisting in the succession of Halim Pasha. On Thursday noon their efforts were crowned with success. The Porte agreed to accept Tewfik Pasha, and a telegram was sent to that young prince declaring him Khedive of Egypt. The new Khedive, who is only in his twenty-fifth year, went at once to embrace his father, who congratulated him on his succession to the throne, and held his first reception at the Citadel in Cairo on Thursday afternoon, and all was quietly settled. Tewfik has been very carefully educated, and speaks Persian, Turkish, Arabic, French, and English. Although, with the exception of ten days in Vienna, he has never spent any time out of Egypt, nevertheless he is more liberal and more European in his views than any of his brothers. His chief adviser is Sherif Pasha, who has been President of the Council of Ministers since the fall of the Nubar-Wilson-De Blignières Ministry.

Ismaïl Pasha, accompanied by his two sons, Hussein and Hassan, left here for Naples on June 30. At the departure the scene of separation was most impressive. Under a personal government almost every individual of any importance has some special and perhaps confidential relations with the sovereign ; and when the ministers and functionaries and employés came in turn to bid farewell to him who had been their sole master for sixteen years, there was scarcely a countenance in the vast crowd that was not moved to tears. Ismaïl Pasha alone remained apparently unmoved, and received the homage of those about him with the same grace and dignity which characterized his receptions when at the height of his splendor. The shrieks and cries of the harems were simply indescribable. The women tore their hair and put dust on their heads, and the scene was most painful. At five o'clock in the afternoon Ismaïl Pasha embarked on board his beautiful steam-yacht, the *Maroussa*. From the immobility of his expression one could scarcely realize that his highness was about to leave his country for ever. He had for every one an affectionate word, and told those who begged to accompany him that by rendering as good service to Tewfik Pasha as they had rendered him they would please him best.

The result of all this is not deemed so encouraging by European residents here as it seems to be in Europe. One khedive has been changed for another, and two countries, France and England, propose virtually to administer the country. Whether they can do this in face of the obstacles of religion and prejudice of race in Egypt itself, and in face of the jealousy and the rights and privileges which other European Powers have obtained by treaty, remains to be seen, and will form the subject of another letter.

FRANCE AND ENGLAND IN EGYPT.

PARIS, July 8, 1879.

IT would be difficult to explain the singular attraction which the land of the Pharaohs has so long had for France. Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt was perhaps the origin of it, though it was, on the whole, unsuccessful, and ended in a disastrous capitulation. This expedition was conceived, at the time, as an indirect attack on England; but it was a mere incident in the revolutionary wars. The savants who accompanied Bonaparte came back with many notes on Egypt, and the result of their labors is still preserved in a monumental work. The fashion became Egyptian. Heads of sphinxes became a common ornament, and marked the transition from the style of Louis XV. to the hideous style called the "Empire." The discoveries made in the valley of the Nile opened new horizons to history, to philology ; and though these discoveries have been much extended since, it is certain that the expedition to Egypt was, in a scientific sense, almost a revolution.

There was no Egyptian question till France conquered Algiers. This conquest, provoked by the insolence of the Bey of Algeria and by the depredations of the Algerian privateers, was the first blow to the power of Turkey and of the great Sultan in Africa. French influence had always been felt in Syria, in Lebanon, at Jerusalem. There was a Levantine population at Alexandria and at Smyrna. The French element was important in these towns, and enjoyed the benefit of the *capitulations*—that is, of the consular jurisdiction. When Mehemet Ali made himself independent France naturally became his ally and protector. Egypt at that time threatened to become very formidable. The new sovereign of Egypt attempted to tear Syria from the hands of Turkey ; the "Quadruple Alliance" put an end to his dreams ; Lord Palmerston contrived to unite all the great Powers against Mehemet Ali and against France. You can read in the memoirs of M. Guizot and in those of Charles Greville how the intrigue of the Quadruple Alliance was conducted under the eyes of M. Guizot, who had gone to London as ambassador. Guizot was an Anglomaniac. He was *enguirlandé*, to use a favorite Russian expression, by the English aristocracy, and Lord Palmerston was able to unite all Europe against the cabinet of M. Thiers, who was then Prime Minister. Louis Philippe had to choose between peace and war, and war with all Europe—war for a Mussulman pasha. He wisely chose peace, and made a composition with Europe in virtue of which Mehemet Ali lost his ephemeral conquests in Asia, but the possession of Egypt was guaranteed to him and to his family. The rulers of Egypt were still kept dependent on the great Sultan. They had to pay a tribute ; but Egypt became autonomous and practically independent.

France is accustomed to go to war "for an idea." In 1840 she did not actually go to war, but she incurred great dangers, and we were obliged to put our army on a war-footing. France actually gained nothing substantial from her great efforts in favor of Mehemet Ali, except perhaps the "obelisk" of Luxor, which now adorns the Place de la Concorde. Under the rule of Mehemet Ali and his family Egypt might have developed quietly her vast resources. It would be unjust to say she has not partly done so ; unfortunately, much evil has been mixed up with partial good. The two last rulers especially, Saïd Pasha and Ismaïl Pasha, have been only too much civilized ; they seem to have been able to combine and to marry all the vices of an old and effete civilization with those of a barbarous state. The diffusion of knowledge among the people, a just and moderate taxation, a good administration of justice—all the real objects of a high civilization have been utterly neglected by them ; the *fellah* is as ignorant, as submissive, as wretched now as he could have been under the rule of the Pharaohs ; the system of taxation is as barbarous now as then, the tithes are collected in kind, the bastinado seems to be considered as a necessary process for the collection of imposts ; the taxes are often levied before they are due. Altogether, the Egyptian khedives have treated their people as unmercifully as a pasha sent from Constantinople to Asia Minor, to Damascus, or to Bassorah. It was thought, and it seemed natural to think, that an unlimited tenure of power would calm and subdue the lust of plunder in the hearts of the Egyptian rulers. The pashas of Bagdad have a fortune to make in a few years ; the fortune of the Khedive was already made.

The members of the family of Mehemet Ali, coming from a semi-barbarous stock, were only able to see in civilization what is material and visible ; they could build palaces and fill them with treasures ; they could buy costly furniture, chosen without any reference to art ; they could encourage science, if science brought from the earth something visible—inscriptions, monuments, sphinxes, rings, amulets ; they could encourage art, if art spoke to the senses. Verdi was commissioned to write his opera of "Aïda" for the theatre built by Ismaïl Pasha ; the new Pharaoh gave himself the amusement of seeing, so to speak, the ancient Pharaohs revive under his eyes. But he was not contented with the noble music of Verdi, even if the singers were adorned with real diamonds and rubies ; he wanted something more *civilized*—it was his pride to be looked upon as a Parisian. Hortense Schneider was obliged to go and sing the "Grande Duchesse" on the shores of the Nile. The *opérette* was at home in Cairo ; the songs of the "Bouffes-Parisiens" and of the "Palais Royal" became popular in Egypt. Journalists were hired to go to Egypt, were hospitably treated and made to sing the praises of the new rulers of Egypt. Even books were written in their honor. I am not sure that Edmond About, the author of 'Tolla' and of the 'Roi des Montagnes,' is not the author of a volume called 'The Fellah.' Prévost-Paradol made a pleasure trip on the Nile on a Government steamer. The hospitality of the Khedive was boundless ; life at the Windsor Palace, in the Burg of Vienna, even in the Summer Palace or Winter Palace of the Czar, is tame compared to what it was in the oriental palaces of Ismaïl.

The Khedive was not only a most generous host, he was not content to draw to Egypt the celebrities of Europe; he really believed himself to be a man of progress. But he could only understand progress in the material sense. He could interest himself in canals, in railways, in works of irrigation, in machines, in sugar-factories ; he became the largest landlord in the world, by the very simple means of confiscation or of buying at his own price. He possessed, together with his own family, about one-fifth of the cultivable part of Egypt. He was, with all his civilized airs, more absolute than the King of Dahomey. If he had been a good man of business his rule, strange as it was, would probably have benefited Egypt in the end. The opening of the Suez Canal is a benefit which cannot well be forgotten. Unfortun-

ately the Khedive contrived to spoil everything by his bad management; he was never satisfied, he was a schemer as full of projects as a man who has his fortune to make. When the American war of secession broke out he began to grow cotton, and for a few years the speculation was a good one; now the cotton-plantations of Egypt have become almost worthless. It was the same with his sugar-factories. He looked after every detail, and in the number of the details he completely lost sight of the whole. The whole was the budget of Egypt; after a number of years spent in civilizing, Egypt found herself hopelessly ruined. Credit had been the chief instrument of the Khedive; he had soon perceived that he need not be long the prey of the Levantine bankers; he found in London and Paris a host of easy and complacent lenders. There was a halo about Egypt, the Isthmus of Suez, the civilizing Khedive, which was very favorable to speculation. Who would not assist the great man who loved France so much that he even valued the French *opérette?* The savings of France began to find their way to Egypt. A great institution, called the "Crédit Foncier," was instituted under Napoleon III. for the protection of French agriculture. This bank, which has a capital of 40,000,000 francs, makes loans to our farmers and landlords at a moderate rate. The bonds of the Crédit Foncier, having the guarantee of a first mortgage on land, are good securities; but the directors of this establishment thought that they might encourage agriculture in Egypt, and so they did. The Crédit Foncier holds now about 160,000,000 of Egyptian securities (francs). The loans made to the Khedive by this great establishment were made with the capital of French depositors; the directors have since been blamed and changed, but there remains the disagreeable fact that an immense sum is due by Egypt to a French establishment which is under Government control, and the director of which is appointed by the Minister of Finance. There is besides in Paris what is called a "great Syndicate" of bankers and banking-houses which have between them about 80,000,000 of Egyptian securities.

You see that the Egyptian question has become for our financial world a question of the highest importance. A short time before he fell from power the Khedive had contracted a new loan with the greatest financial house in the world, guaranteed by his own domains and by the domains of his family. The English and French Governments have been placed by all these circumstances in a somewhat difficult position. They have always refused to give their formal guarantee to any of the loans contracted by the Khedive; at the same time they have assumed a great share of responsibility in the management of the Egyptian finances, by the continued interference of the consuls and the defence of the claims of the creditors of the Khedive, and by the direct interference in the administration of Egypt through Nubar Pasha, MM. Rivers Wilson and De Blignières. This last cabinet was, in fact, an Anglo-French cabinet imposed on the Khedive; the Khedive dismissed it, but he fell soon afterwards himself, without noise, without difficulty, at the first intimation of Europe.

What will come next? Europe chose to use the hand of the Sultan to give the last blow to the Khedive, but everybody understands that the revolution in Cairo was not the work of the Sultan; it was the work of Europe. Directly, or indirectly, France and England have undertaken to administer Egypt and its finances. They are afraid themselves of this *condominium;* they know the danger of any *condominium.* That is the reason why they screen their action behind the action of the Porte, and why they are not sorry to see the Austrian and the German associate their action with the Anglo-French action. On the whole, the fall of the Khedive has not much simplified matters; the change of one man will not, at least for the present, improve the state of the Egyptian finances, and the circumstances of his fall will allow fresh combinations in European politics which may become dangerous. It seems to me probable that Turkey will soon be thrown into the hands of Russia; that Austria and Germany, who are completely tied now, will favor the Anglo-French *condominium* in Egypt, in the hope that it will bring on the difficulties which are inseparable from a common action of two Powers in a distant country and for separate interests.

Correspondence.

BI-METALLISM IN EUROPE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I infer from some recent remarks in the *Nation* upon ex-Secretary McCulloch's Harvard lectures that there is a notion prevailing in America that Europe, and especially England, is coming to take a more favorable view of bi-metallic money. Having been at some pains recently, both in London and Paris, to sound the depths of the so-called "silver movement," I feel justified in saying that there is no such movement—that is, no *new* movement. The resolutions of the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce were promptly negatived at Manchester, and they never produced a ripple in London. After diligent search in the latter city I could find no movement in reference to silver except a languid discussion of the expediency of bi-metallism in India. Even this, which can hardly be called a silver movement, was extremely faint and inconsequential. One gentleman of eminence in the financial world was quoted as having changed his opinions and being prepared to take a favorable view of silver as full legal-tender, but this gentleman was not quoted as in any way active or as constituting a movement. I became convinced that the depreciation of the rupee, so far from inclining England to adopt a bi-metallic currency for her own uses, was having the opposite effect, and that if silver became as cheap as tin she would cling only the tighter to the sovereign.

In Paris there is absolutely no silver movement, except the agitation which M. Cernuschi keeps on foot from his princely residence on the Parc Monceaux. This agitation is not confined to any one country or continent, and it is less effective in France than in England or the United States. M. Cernuschi, by the way, is not favorably impressed by the Warner Bill. Indeed, he esteems the supporters of that measure the worst enemies of bi-metallism in the world, and he thinks that the United States by coining silver dollars are postponing the triumph of the principles which he espouses, by making the burdens of Europe lighter by two millions per month.

As to Germany, I cannot speak with the same confidence as with reference to England and France—not having visited Berlin as yet. I have been informed, however, by persons whose business it is to keep *au courant* with the subject, that not only has the German Government no intention of changing her new gold standard for a bi-metallic one, but such a change is deemed impossible, and therefore not worth wasting words about.

The indifference of the world does not prove anything, in the forum of reason, against the bi-metallists. They believe that there is not gold enough in the world to answer the monetary needs of mankind, and that some more can be added by joint resolution. They may be right, but we shall probably never know till the last day. The only purpose of this note is to disabuse the minds of your readers of the impression, if it exists, that a change has come over the public mind of Europe since the failure of the Paris Conference in August of last year.

Horace White.

Wiesbaden, July 10, 1879.

THEOLOGY IN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a clergyman, I have been much interested in your recent articles upon the teachings of theology in colleges. If, as the *Nation* seems to intimate, it is impossible for theology to be taught under the auspices of a university, I should be glad to know it, that I may advise my young friends to seek some other profession where their education *can* be that of a university. If, of all the liberal arts, theology alone cannot be taught with the single purpose of discovering the truth concerning it, I think the public would be glad to know it, that it may once for all discard theology from its concerns. If of all the departments hitherto covered by a university training, Harvard College, which is called a university, feels itself incompetent to provide for any particular one, whether theology, or natural science, or medicine, I am sure many graduates of Harvard College besides the ministers would be glad to know it, that they may make the University worthier of its name. In a word, if while all other education in these days is becoming broad and catholic, theological education alone must remain provincial, it behooves us all to understand the reasons.

Whatever may be said on this question, the simple fact remains that theology is, and has always been, one of the branches of sound learning; and this being the case, the university is bound to embrace it in its course or else show reason why it does not. That theology has hitherto been taught in a narrow or partisan spirit is no concern of the university whatever. So has Greek, for that matter; and so is political economy taught to-day in half our schools and colleges. The attitude of the university is, that whatever can be taught at all *can* be taught without par-

tisanship, else university training is a myth or a misnomer. If it be charged that where theology is taught in this way only one sect will accept its instruction, the duty of the university still remains the same. When Harvard College begins to decide what it shall teach, or how it shall teach it, by the political or religious prejudices of the community, it is time for it to close its doors. Harvard College is offering agricultural instruction to-day without regard to the prejudices of New England farmers. That New England farmers do not value it, or will not accept it, may starve the Bussey department out, but is no reason why the Bussey experiment should not be tried.

For some strange reason it seems to be held against the Harvard Divinity School that it succeeds in training ministers for a particular denomination. I am not aware that any such charge against a law or medical school would be considered fatal. If any special community preferred university-educated lawyers or doctors to others, or even Cambridge-educated ones to New York or Philadelphia-educated, this would show the taste of the community, but would not affect the duty of the university. If Unitarian churches prefer university-taught theology, no Unitarian has cause to blush, and Harvard University may simply rejoice that there is one sect that appreciates its theological wares. Fortunately there are many indications just now that other denominations are forming the same taste.

I argue on the assumption that theology *can* be taught without partisanship; at least with as little partisanship as any branch of study where different conclusions are possible. It would be difficult to prove, and certainly the present discussion has not shown, that theology differs on this point from the other sciences, in any other way save that theological prejudices and prepossessions are more deeply rooted than any other. But this only argues the greater need of university training. This is what universities are for. To divorce theological education from the great centres of learning, as the *Nation* suggests, and turn it over to the sects in their out-of-the way corners of the student's world, is deliberately to doom theology to narrowness.

I notice that in this discussion, as in others of the kind, the analogy between theology and such branches as political economy and medicine is conveniently ignored as having nothing to do with the question. It has everything to do with the question; and when the *Nation* can show that because political economy means to the world at large free-trade or protection, mono-metallism or bi-metallism, or because no good teacher of political economy can fail to have convictions on these points, therefore political economy may not be taught in a university, it will be time to demand that theology be banished on the same grounds. To most of us this is the best reason why the university should undertake the one and the other; and for Harvard College to refuse to attempt it seems not a noble unsectarianism but an ignoble abdication of the university's true responsibility.

The *Nation* is anxious to have its correspondents define "non-sectarian theology." Excuse me, but this is the very thing which we look to the university to do. My Catholic neighbor would like very much to have me define "non-sectarian history." I decline the attempt myself, but send him to Cambridge to find out. If he still complains that his son is taught anti-Catholic history, I say so much the worse for Cambridge, which ought to know how, or to find out how, to teach history undenominationally, whether its professors are Protestant or Catholic. If there are difficulties in the way it is a poor university that cannot overcome difficulties of teaching.

But really I cannot see the difficulties here which seem to the *Nation* so portentous. It thinks such questions as the Trinity, the Nature of Christ, the Atonement, etc., must be taught in a sectarian way or not at all. But why? No one disputes that a doctrine of the Trinity is held in the Church. The question is where it came from and what are its claims? Is it part of primitive Christianity, or has it grown out of primitive Christianity by processes which can be historically traced; or even if part of early Christianity, was it the teaching of all the founders, or of only one or two of them? These are questions of historic fact to be decided by the study of ancient documents and of the writings of two or three centuries. If the *Nation* discovers any respect in which these differ from other historical facts, or any point at which a scholarly and independent mind cannot view and teach them on their merits, it is bound to make its discovery known. The case is essentially the same with the other doctrines alluded to. Even when the ultimate question arises, whether Christianity itself demands any other acceptance for its facts or teachings than reason accords to all other facts or truths, this does not differ in the least from ordinary questions of logic and philosophy. If any claim that it does, it is for them to prove how it does. If it is urged that theology never has been taught in this way, I can only reply that it is quite time it should be, and that in no place can it be more properly attempted than in our oldest and largest university.

As for Unitarians, so far as I may speak for them, let me assure the *Nation* that whenever such absolutely unsectarian theology as this is offered at scholarly hands, they, as a sect, will be perfectly satisfied, and will not enquire whether the teacher be orthodox or heretic, if they are the only ones to be satisfied. I still insist that this is not a matter for the university to consider. It has offered thorough training to theologians; and there its responsibility ceases. E. H. H.

WORCESTER, MASS., July 18, 1879.

[It would have saved trouble if "E. H. H." had defined his meaning in speaking of "theology." If he means "natural theology"—that is, the proof of the existence of a benevolent creator from the order of the universe—we have said already that we do not see how a university can avoid teaching it. But if he means Christian theology—that is, the religion revealed by the Bible and Church traditions—he ought to have informed us how this theology is to be taught in a non-sectarian form, for this is what the present discussion is about. It is "non-sectarian theology" which the Harvard Divinity School is, we are told, going to teach, and, as well as we can make out, "E. H. H." sees no more difficulty in teaching it than in teaching political economy or agriculture. This is something rather odd, coming from a minister, for he knows that the great majority of the Christian world hold not only that certain theological beliefs are essential to a man's eternal happiness, but that they contain the sources of his morality in this life. Unitarians and Universalists may not hold this, but then it is admitted that Harvard University is not intended for the exclusive use of Unitarians and Universalists, so that their readiness to accept "non-sectarian theology" does not meet the emergency. He knows also that this is not true of economical or agricultural opinions. No father thinks his son will be damned eternally or suffer in character if he does not believe in free trade, or in a high tariff, or entertains singular views about manures or the rotation of crops. "E. H. H." also appears to assume that the theological professor will have no more serious duty regarding the Trinity, for instance, than tracing the history of the dogma. But we can hardly believe that we understand him rightly. A professor of ecclesiastical history might possibly by very careful steering confine himself to this; but think of a professor in a divinity school, in talking to his students about the Trinity and the Atonement, evading the question, "Are these doctrines true, as held by the great body of Christians both Catholic and Protestant?" Think of his telling his class that they might believe them or not, just as they pleased! What Christian father would like to have his son instructed in this way on such matters? What honorable father would like to have his son educated at an institution in which a body of professors was engaged in communicating information on such themes without letting their own views be known? If we were to take "E. H. H.'s" language literally, we should conclude that what he meant by theology was what is called the "science of religion," in which Christianity is put in the same category with fetishism, Buddhism, and Mohammedanism, and all religion is treated as simply a form of human expression, like art or language, and to be studied in a spirit of pure criticism. But, then, this is not what President Eliot proposes, or what the contributors to the new endowment fund have in mind. Moreover, a professor who taught this successfully would have almost necessarily to be a sceptic. The true way out of the difficulty is, it seems to us, if the University must teach theology, to set up, frankly and candidly, as they do in Germany, an orthodox Protestant faculty, and a Unitarian faculty, and a Catholic faculty, and let the student suit himself. But do not let us assume that there is an essence of theology which can be served out in a harmless form, and which each denomination can afterwards flavor and dilute to suit itself.—ED. NATION.]

THE DANGER OF DIVINITY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Was it not rather rash in an experienced editor to print the following sentence?

"We shall be glad to receive from Dr. Clarke a definition of 'non-sectarian theology,' describing in detail the manner in which it is taught and the view it takes of such questions as the Atonement, the Trinity, Original Sin, Future Punishment, the Nature of Sacraments, the Relation between Faith and Works, and telling us whether the chair or chairs from which it is to be taught in the Harvard Divinity School can or will be filled by Congregationalists, or Episcopalians, or anybody but Unitarians. Some explanation of this sort is due both to the subscribers to the endowment, and to parents throughout the country who are asked to consider the college undenominational."

By this cordial invitation you open your columns to a description "in detail" of the mode of teaching six important doctrines. To do this in the way you desire would require some five or six articles in successive numbers of the *Nation*, each occupying, perhaps, a page in your paper. Would you like, on the whole, as much theology as this? But I will not take advantage of the rare moments in which a good editor may nod. Though you ask for details on all these great theological questions; though you tell me that I am bad at a *résumé*, and thus indicate your wish to have an argument rather than a summary, processes rather than results, I shall try to limit myself to the essential points in your paragraph.

1. *What is non-sectarian theology?*

A theology which is not confined to the limits of any sect, nor taught in the interests of any sect, may be called, I suppose, a non-sectarian theology. If the teachers of theology are not bound by any creed, nor subject to the criticism of any sect, but are free to enquire, to change their views, and to say freely what they believe, they are non-sectarian teachers.

2. *Is there any non-sectarian theology?*

It would be safe to say, in reply, that there is no sectarian theology. No sect, as far as I know, has a theology peculiar to itself. Each one shares its views with others, and contains a large range of opinion within itself. I never heard of a theology which belonged exclusively to any sect. Even what is called the Unitarian view of the Trinity is held substantially by four or five different denominations.

3. *Is Harvard Divinity School non-sectarian?*

A recent article in the *Christian Register*, evidently written by one in close connection with the Divinity School, makes the following statements:

(*a*) The foundation of the Divinity School declares that "no assent to the peculiarities of any denomination of Christians shall be required, either of the instructors or students."

(*b*) As a matter of fact, students are encouraged to examine both sides of every theological question. They are free to defend orthodox views of the Trinity, Atonement, etc., in their essays, sermons, and discussions. They often do defend them. The writer refers to instances in which orthodox students have entered the school, have maintained orthodox opinions in their sermons and lectures, and, after graduating, have entered the orthodox ministry. The students are encouraged and taught to read the leading works on both sides of each important question.

(*c*) Prof. Ezra Abbot (who probably stands at the head among the professors of textual criticism in this country) teaches at Cambridge exactly as he would at Princeton. The Professor of Ecclesiastical History at Cambridge has more than once publicly expressed his satisfaction with the definition of the Trinity, not as given in the Athanasian Creed, but as really taught by Athanasius himself. No one suspects the Professor of Hebrew Language and Literature of teaching *that* in a sectarian way. The same may be said of the teaching of theism, of ethics, and of the ethnic religions.

Harvard Divinity School is, therefore, already to a large extent non-sectarian by its statutes and foundation: by the encouragement given to students to examine both sides of important questions; by the largest liberty given them in their essays, discussions, and preaching; by there being no doctrinal tests for students or professors, and by its having in its chairs men of too much insight and breadth to narrow their minds to any sectarian limits. To make it wholly non-sectarian it is only necessary to have other professorships established, to be filled by eminent men of different denominations. And this is exactly what we all wish to have done, and what President Eliot is preparing to do.

4. *How can a non-sectarian theology be taught at Harvard?*

It can be taught by having professorships endowed by different denominations, to be filled by their best men; by having professors who are themselves superior to any sectarian bias, and by having an instruction deep enough to go below the common sectarian controversies. You seem to assume that there are only *two* sides to such doctrines as the Trinity or the Atonement. But, in fact, there are many different views to be taken of them. Serious study disposes of most sectarian definitions by rejecting all of them. It finds truth and error in all creeds. It advances by means of new statements and broader generalization. No theologians of any party in New England would accept either the orthodox or the heterodox views of the Atonement which were generally held two hundred years ago. No Calvinist now accepts Calvinism pure and simple. In proportion as a man is a real scholar he *must* teach an unsectarian theology.

The purpose of endowing new chairs in the Harvard Divinity School is to enable the corporation to secure the ablest men from all quarters, men who, because able, are usually liberal. Such men will be welcome there, no matter from what denomination they come.

5. You say that "a large body of Christian parents" believe Harvard University "to be a hot-bed of Unitarianism."

This may have been true twenty or thirty years ago, but it is too late now to attempt to alarm any one with this phantom. Parents who wish to send their children to Harvard know perfectly well that no sectarianism exists in the University; that its professors and students are of all denominations; that the University provides seats for the students in any church they desire to attend; and that the Divinity School is wholly apart from the academic department. So long as classes of two hundred or more enter college we may be sure that there is no cause for the anxiety you feel on this subject.

Though I have not answered "in detail" all your questions, for which I have not time nor you space, I think I have sufficiently indicated the answer which may be given to them.

James Freeman Clarke.

Jamaica Plain, Mass., July 23.

[We are not so rash or so simple as Dr. Clarke supposes. We are so confident that anybody who undertakes to describe "non-sectarian theology," and tell how he will teach it, needs plenty of elbow-room, that we are fully prepared to meet large demands on our space. This is one of the cases where brevity means obscurity. Taking his answers in their order we will observe:

1. Yes; but what would be the effect on a young man of religious teaching communicated by a professor of this kind? Would it make him religious, or deepen his faith in "God and immortality"? Moreover, what is "a theology which is not confined to the limits of any sect"? Is not this definition the substitution of one uncomprehended for another?

2. Of course every sect holds some view that some others hold; every sect believes in the existence of God; but if you teach "non-sectarian theology" you must teach only the things which no sect rejects, for whatever any considerable sect rejects and some other considerable sect holds is sectarian, and, therefore, non-teachable. Your only escape from this difficulty lies in throwing down the dogmas before the student and bidding him choose for himself. We grant that some subjects may be taught in this way, but surely theology is not one of them. The value of a theological opinion rests on the strength of conviction with which it is held. Loosely held, or merely selected from "a desirable assortment" on the recommendation of an obliging professor, it can hardly be considered a very useful part of a young man's equipment for any calling.

3. The declarations of the founders of the Divinity School are of little moment; the important thing is the practical working of it. That cases have occurred in which orthodox students have graduated in it may be true, but the fact remains that all but an infinitesimally small number of those who graduate from it are Unitarian ministers. The mode of acquiring their theology, as described in the *Christian Register*, is one which must of necessity produce theologians with little or no theology, if we may use the expression; or rather theologians whose attitude towards all doctrines is one of negation or indifference. We know of no reason why a university should not teach Hebrew and New-Testament Greek as well as Anglo-Saxon or Sanskrit, and anything else which prepares a man to study theology. Why, for instance, ecclesiastical history, which deals with

the agency which has most powerfully influenced the course of events in the modern world, is relegated to divinity schools, is something we have never understood. But our "non-sectarian" friends must not, as the *Christian Register* has done, by putting forward these subjects, to which divinity schools have no proper claim, as examples of things which may be taught undenominationally, try to cover up their retreat about great Christian dogmas like the Atonement and the Fall of Man.

4. No one who values positive religious opinions, or thinks belief in the doctrines of Christianity of deep moment, is at all likely to endow orthodox chairs in Harvard Divinity School as described by Dr. Clarke, when he has Yale and Princeton and Andover to go to. Few religious men like to see theological teaching converted into an exercise for sharpening the wits, or would like to see young men exposed to the influence of professors who took half a dozen different views of the Trinity and the Atonement.

5. If "the Divinity School be wholly apart from the academical department," how is it to help to arouse interest "in God and immortality" in the college at large, and why should the president make a special effort on its behalf, *quâ* president? Why not leave it wholly to the care of those who understand and value unsectarian theology? Why should the University charge itself with a piece of work which no two men would describe in the same way? Classes of two hundred are large, but there is no good reason why they should not soon reach five hundred with such an equipment as the college now has, and such a position towards the country at large as President Eliot's administration during the last ten years has created for it.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

S. C. GRIGGS & CO., Chicago, have in press 'Summer Savory,' by Benjamin F. Taylor; 'Somebody's Ned,' a novel by a Chicago author; 'A New Method for the Study of English Literature,' by Louise Maertz; and 'Clinical Lectures,' from the French of P. Jousset.——G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly issue a rejoinder to Mr. Mallock's 'Is Life Worth Living?' "from the pen of a well-known writer."——R. Worthington will reprint for this market Sir George Campbell's 'White and Black' recently brought out by Chatto & Windus, London.——According to George P. Rowell & Co.'s *American Newspaper Directory* for July there has been an increase in the number of newspapers in the United States during the half-year from 8,703 to 9,153. Suspensions have been fewer than for several years during the corresponding period.——We are informed that Miss Emily F. Wheeler, formerly of the Northwestern University, who has just returned from a two years' residence in Europe, has been elected to the chair of French and Belles-Lettres in the Cincinnati Wesleyan College.——'Summer Vacations at Moosehead Lake and Vicinity' is published by A. Williams & Co., of Boston, for the author, Lucius L. Hubbard, who manages, in 145 pages, indexed and prettily illustrated with photographic views, to provide tourists of the usual summer variety, and also more advanced enthusiasts, with a practical and well-edited guide-book.——We learn from the *Athenæum* that a new English version of 'Don Quixote' is about to be brought out by C. Kegan Paul & Co.; also that the following English works are in preparation: Dr. Krause's 'Life of Dr. Erasmus Darwin,' translated with a preliminary notice by his grandson, Mr. Charles Darwin; a 'Memoir of Edward and Catherine Stanley,' by their son, the Dean of Westminster; 'Rheinsberg; or, the Student Life of Frederic the Great,' by Andrew Hamilton; 'Nile Gleanings,' by H. Villiers-Stuart; and 'Japanese Letters,' by Miss Bird, who rode 700 miles on horseback through the remoter regions of Japan.——Sime's 'Lessing,' reprinted in its original English by Brockhaus, at Leipzig, comes to us in two neat volumes from L. W. Schmidt, 24 Barclay Street. The form not less than the contents well fits them for the pocket or the satchel of the vacation tourist. They might be surreptitiously read even at Manhattan Beach.——Authorized German versions of selections from the Morley series of 'English Men of Letters' are announced by Eduard Wartig's establishment, in Leipzig. Goldsmith, Defoe, and Thackeray will be first published. They should prove excellent aids to students in the practice of German composition.——Von Holtzendorff's 'Handbuch des deutschen Strafsprozessrechts' completes with Part 6 its first volume, and enters upon the second with Parts 1 and 2 (Berlin: Carl Habel).——A portrait of Mozart, after one drawn from life in 1787 by Doris Stock, has just been published by Franz Hanfstängl, in Munich. The features are more delicate than in the common pictures and busts of the great composer. The artist was an aunt of the poet Körner.——Mr. E. Maunde Thompson contributes to the *Academy* of July 19 a number of letters which form part of the correspondence between Lady Byron and Mrs. Leigh lately purchased for the British Museum. They form another and convincing chapter of the negative evidence brought forward since the publication of Mrs. Stowe's story, now happily forgotten.——The *Portfolio* for July (Mr. Bouton) contains, besides some not over-brilliant landscape etchings, a valuable fac-simile by the Armand Durand process of a horse by Paulus Potter, well exhibiting the large, candid style of the young etcher, who may be said to have exhausted the essentials of the art in the practice of the eighteen coppers he left. Munkácsy's painting is described, representing Milton and his daughters, a fine work soon to be added to the public collection of the Lenox Library in this city. A running notice of Stanfield is begun, replacing Mr. Hamerton's criticism on Goya, an unfortunate bit of journeywork which its writer should never have undertaken. It was written without sympathy, in confessed ignorance, and might be described as a version of Yriarte's "Life," with the mild English word "shocking!" placed in various faint inflections between the lines; and Goya is not an artist who should be "written up" merely to gratify a sense of outrage.

—Mr. Lalor's translation of the second volume of Von Holst's 'Verfassung und Demokratie,' reviewed by us some weeks ago (see the *Nation*, No. 715), has just been published in a handsome volume by Callaghan & Co. (Chicago). It does not appear as a second volume, but as an independent work—'The Constitutional and Political History of the United States, etc.; 1828-1846, Jackson's Administration—Annexation of Texas'; a chapter, as it were, of our national history published by itself. The translation is in general very accurate. No doubt there are here and there Germanisms and mistranslations; it would be strange if there were not. Whatever such defects may be found come from Mr. Lalor's over-anxiety to adhere to the very words and order of the original, lest by recasting or amplifying an expression he should do injustice to the original. We think he might safely have allowed himself somewhat greater freedom. For example (p. 106), "a politically *viable* people" (*lebensfähig*); some such paraphrase as "a people capable of political life" would have been better and more idiomatic. So "a constitutional source" (p. 273). Of errors of translation we find two on page 202. "*Für denselben*" (of a vote) is rendered "on the question," instead of "for the proposition." And below: "Benton's declaration that the good services of the State banks *should have been* secured," etc. (*man . . . habe gewinnen müssen*, where the translation would, we think, require *hätte*). What Benton said ('Debates,' xiii. 403) was: "The administration *could not* cut loose from the local banks then: they were allies against the Bank of the United States, and as such *had to be* saved." (The italics are ours.) We wish Mr. Lalor had provided the book with what it needs so sadly—an index, or, at least, a practicable table of contents.

—We have received a number of additional communications, from both sides in the late war, on the subject of army breastplates, but it is quite useless to print any more. Our attention has been directed to specimen No. 4,654, in the Army Medical Museum at Washington, classified as XXVII. B. I., and described in the catalogue as "An iron breastplate . . . taken from the body of a rebel officer killed at Gettysburg, 3d July, 1863." Only one correspondent, a Confederate officer, confirms General Taylor's allegation about the strapping of Federal cavalrymen to their saddles, but his testimony is not conclusive, for he only says: "I never saw an instance of it, but I have heard the statement made so circumstantially and by persons of such character that I could not doubt its truth," and adds that this was in the early period of the war. More to the point is the surmise of a Federal officer, who writes us as follows:

"The story of cavalry strapped to their horses is too absurd for belief, and cannot be worthy of serious denial. General Taylor must, however, have had something beyond sheer fiction in his mind when he wrote the paragraph. Is it not possible that some of the troopers had adopted the fashion, not uncommon later, and derived, I believe, from the Mexicans, of strapping the *scabbard* to the saddle, thus occasioning the delay of unbuckling when called to surrender their arms? This is a mere suggestion. But strapped scabbards are not unusual, and they may be the foundation in memory of the myth which has become curiously magnified and distorted in passing through General Taylor's brain."

MALDEN PUBLIC LIBRARY

—The report to Governor Hartranft of Mr. Joseph D. Weeks, Special Commissioner of the State of Pennsylvania, upon the practical operation of arbitration in settling difficulties between employers and employed in England is recently published. Mr. Weeks appears to have made a thorough study of his problem, and a careful examination of what statistics he could get during his English visit. His report gives in brief space the history and practical workings of industrial arbitration in England, describing the different systems, such as those of Nottingham and Wolverhampton, and their success or failure, with impartiality; and its conclusion is strongly in favor of the principle discussed. That it is "infinitely to be preferred" to the method of strikes is scarcely, Mr. Weeks thinks, "a subject of argument." The one method he calls that of reason, the other that of brute force. Still, he acknowledges that arbitration is not a "wonder-worker," that it is "used by men that are extremely selfish," and that "for these reasons it will fail to accomplish all that is expected." Indeed, Mr. Weeks's deductions are more comprehensive than specific and distinct, perhaps, but this does not touch the value of the record of facts from which he makes them. The historical part of his report it would be a good thing for every trades-union inwardly to digest.

—Richard Wagner contributes to the August number of the *North American Review* an article entitled "The Work and Mission of My Life." Whoever reads it with the idea of learning something on this interesting subject will certainly be disappointed. The composer of the "Meistersinger" and of the "Nibelungen" might well have saved himself the trouble of telling the world what he intended by his music, what want he felt himself called upon to supply. Those who wish to know something about his "work and mission" will find all that can be known in a careful study of his operas, beginning with "Rienzi," the work of his immature youth, following him through his transition period, in "Tannhäuser," and finally arriving at the glorious perfection of the "Meistersinger" and the "Ring of the Nibelungen"; and any one who cannot recognize the creative genius in these noble monuments will certainly be more bewildered and confused than before by the string of stilted, pompous, and pedantic phrases that compose the article in the *North American Review*. Wagner has imposed his views of his own work upon the Germans in nine stout octavo volumes. It seemed almost an impertinence towards a highly cultivated public to tell them that they must understand his works in his own way, that otherwise they don't understand them at all, and are not worthy to listen to them. A work of art, whether a poem or an opera, a painting or a marble group, cannot be called perfect if it cannot be understood, on its own merits, by an intelligent and cultivated man, without the author's own explanation of what ideas and principles of art he intends to convey. Shakspere did not feel called upon to explain to his countrymen that there was an actual inward necessity for writing his "Hamlet," his "Lear," his "Coriolanus"; Beethoven confided to nobody what he meant by his Ninth Symphony; and Goethe left it for contemporary and later critics to sound the depths of his "Faust." An advanced state of musical culture and knowledge is necessary to understand and appreciate the "Meistersinger" and the "Nibelungen." This only proves the grandeur of the genius who wrote them, but does not call for the composer's intrusive interference. Wagner cannot resist the opportunity afforded by this article to have a fresh fling at the hated Jew. In speaking of Mendelssohn and Meyerbeer his aversion to the whole race is expressed in a sneer which may be called mild in comparison with the tone of his scandalous pamphlet, "Das Judenthum in der Musik," which appeared about ten years ago. In Robert Schumann, too, Wagner can see nothing but "a tasteful composer of little spirited and pleasant songs and pieces for the piano-forte"; yet Schumann's symphonies and other orchestral works, his chamber-music, and his pianoforte compositions approach nearer than any other composer's to the great creations which Beethoven left to the world. The style of Wagner's prose is heavy, dull, and ambiguous, unless we are here dealing with an incompetent translation, as may be suspected. The incredible self-conceit of the man is transparent in every line.

—A little more than a year ago a professorship of Anglo-Saxon was established at the University of Cambridge. There was already one at Oxford, but, singularly enough, only one man in all England to whom achievements in Anglo-Saxon philology gave a claim to either chair. This was Mr. Henry Sweet, an Oxford man, but not an Oxford professor. The new place at Cambridge, "the Elrington and Bosworth professorship of Anglo-Saxon," was filled by the appointment of the Rev. W. W. Skeat. Mr. Skeat's labors in fourteenth-century English are well known, but his mark is yet to be made in the older language. The nomination was still the best that Cambridge could make from its own body. Mr. Skeat is a man of great activity, and not far advanced in years, and there is hope that he may do something to set forward (were it not for Sweet, the word would have to be *set up*) the scientific study of the primitive form of the mother-tongue within its original domain. The first work undertaken by the new Cambridge professor is an 'Etymological Dictionary of the English Language' (Macmillan). The first quarter was issued within a year of his appointment, and the second is promised for November next, so that the book will be completed within about three years, if driven through with uniform speed. Now, there is no doubt that an etymological dictionary of our language is needed. The etymologies in Worcester, for instance, were compiled by a person or persons who had no qualification for the business. Those in the revised Webster were the work of a competent scholar, but they were abridged very materially at the instance of the publishers, who insisted that either the etymologies should be made shorter or every other one left out! Wedgewood does not stick firmly to historical ground, pursues phantoms of onomatopœia, is loose and arbitrary. A good etymological dictionary of English *in* English was a thing to desire. But it is not desirable that for this the Anglo-Saxon professor should be kept from his proper work even for three years. A translation of the new edition of Eduard Müller's dictionary would have answered nearly the same purposes, and might have been done by somebody else. Though Mr. Skeat may have accumulated interesting and valuable etymological notes (and a mere turning of the leaves shows a great deal of the sort), nevertheless, considering the shortness of life and the extent of the work in Anglo-Saxon which is to be done in England, and which cannot be done out of England, he should not have been drawn into making a dictionary for the sake of publishing them. Even what he describes as an important feature of the work, and perhaps regards as the most important—the attempt to mark approximately the date at which a word first appears in the language—is the very thing which cannot be done to any satisfaction within the time which Mr. Skeat has allowed himself; and this, moreover, is probably to be one of the principal objects, and the characteristic feature, of another work which the Clarendon Press announces, a dictionary of the English language founded on the materials collected by the Philological Society. But when we come to the work itself, all that is done seems to be well done. There is a good method, and the sources of information have been judiciously used. There is also much that is new, and entertaining too, in the notes on the history of words. Why certain words are left out is not clear—for example, barbecue, bosh, to calk (a horse), cricket (a footstool), demijohn. All these are in other etymological dictionaries, and this does not purport to be a selection. It is very much to be regretted that even courtesy to the ex-professor of Anglo-Saxon at Oxford should have allowed Mr. Skeat to speak of Earle's insane derivation of *bédridden* from "*bedrían*, to bewitch," as a "suggestion that can hardly be accepted"—a derivation which throws the root-accent back on the inseparable and necessarily unaccentable particle *be-*! This was a lapse on Mr. Earle's part which generosity should make us forget. If Mr. Skeat could fall into such a pit—but he could not—it would harrow us with fear and wonder.

—The Société de Géographie has just paid a remarkable tribute to the memory of the English navigator, Capt. James Cook. The séance held on February 14 was entirely devoted to celebrating the centennial anniversary of Cook's death. On this occasion there was exhibited a large collection of relics of Cook, and objects illustrating his voyages. The Bulletin of the Society for May gives the addresses made on this occasion by the president, Admiral de-la-Roncière-le-Noury, and MM. Huber, Hamy, and Varigny. Following this is a catalogue of the Exposition "à l'occasion du centenaire de la mort de Cook." The remainder of the Bulletin, some sixty pages, is occupied with a "Cartographie et bibliographie relatives à Cook," by James Jackson. Included in this bibliography are notices of ten charts and four hundred and seventeen separate publications of Cook's, or relating to him. The first on the list is "An Observation of an Eclipse of the Sun at the Island of New found land, August 5, 1766, by Mr. James Cook," published in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society in 1767. The last is "Viajes y descubrimientos en el Polo Norte por E. Contreras de Diego, Madrid, 1879." Many of the titles have notes explanatory of their reference to the great navigator.

—Krones's 'Geschichte Oesterreichs' has just been brought to a completion by the publication of its fourth volume. It was originally an-

nounced to be finished in three volumes; but it would have been contrary to the nature of serial historical publications if this promise had been kept. Even the limits of four volumes are only realized by crowding the events of the eighty years from 1792 to 1870 into about a hundred pages. As an accurate and exhaustive treatise the work deserves all recognition, but it is exasperating even beyond the measure of German books in having absolutely no table of contents except for the individual books—an *Inhaltsübersicht* of half a page, for instance, for a "book" of nearly three hundred pages. When one wishes to look up some special point, and has found his place in this labyrinth, he will always find the subject treated fully and perspicuously, and in the light of the most recent scholarship. If we compare this history of Austria with that of the author's townsman, Dr. Mayer—Krones is professor in the University of Grätz, and Mayer in the *Realschule* of the same place—we should say in general that Krones's is designed for scholars, Mayer's for general readers. Mayer's two volumes are just about equal to one of Krones's; and, without being deficient in scholarship, his work makes no attempt to discuss minute and controverted points of history. It covers the ground much more proportionately, too, coming down fairly to the year 1873, and giving nearly one hundred and fifty pages to that latest period which its more voluminous rival crowds into about one hundred. Both books are well provided with genealogical tables and references to literature; neither of them, however, makes a practice of referring to authorities upon special points.

MacVEY NAPIER'S CORRESPONDENCE.*

IF some highly intellectual cook, some Ude or Vatel, had left behind him all the culinary correspondence that preceded his grand entertainments—had printed his appeals for salmon, his entreaties for *entremets*, his letters on lettuces, and had added the responses from all lands and climes—his work would have had an interest curiously like that of the delightful collection of letters here printed. After all, the process of victualling a castle or a palace is not very unlike that of keeping a review supplied with the needed nutriment. Through all Mr. Napier's most familiar letters the reader finds him always the same persistent literary purveyor, whose one great object is to secure with unfailing regularity the fit rations for the *Edinburgh*.

He was born April 11, 1776, and was educated at the universities of Edinburgh and Glasgow. In 1799 he became a member of the "Society of Writers to the Signet," and in 1805 was made librarian of that fraternity of lawyers. In 1814 he was appointed editor of the "Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica"; in 1824 was made first professor of conveyancing in the University of Edinburgh; and in 1829 was selected by Lord Jeffrey as his successor in the editorship of the *Edinburgh Review*. This office—then the most influential position in British literature—he retained until his death, which occurred February 11, 1847. For more than thirty years, in these successive editorships, he was in confidential correspondence with the leading literary men of his nation, and selections from his letters and theirs make up this volume of more than five hundred pages. The persons who appear the most frequently are Jeffrey, Brougham, Macaulay, McCulloch, and Sir James Stephen. There are also letters, though less abundant, from Scott, Hazlitt, Moore, Godwin, Gifford, Carlyle, the two Mills, Bulwer, Campbell, Wilson, Senior, Dickens, Thackeray, Buller, Palmerston, Lord John Russell, Lewes, and Mrs. Austin. Mingled with these letters are many from contributors whose support was most important to the *Review*, in those days, but whose very names are almost forgotten. How many Americans could lay their hands on their hearts and assert that they ever heard of John Allen or William Empson?

In dealing with all these it was the editor's duty to plan, propose, oppose, criticise, encourage, refuse, mediate; to soothe jealousies and reconcile feuds; to deal with a class proverbially irritable, and yet avoid irritation; to win new contributors, and yet keep old ones; to maintain *esprit de corps*, and yet have his own way. In all this he certainly had a great success. When we consider that Lord Brougham had maintained such a right of ownership in the *Edinburgh Review* that Jeffrey had been accustomed to beg new contributors not to mention that they wrote for it lest they should offend this touchy monopolist (p. 3); when we find McCulloch getting into a rage (p. 76) because the editor admits a single paper on political economy from anybody but himself,—we must recognize the rare qualities needed to keep house for so very unreasonable a family.

It is hard to tell whether one is more amused in this book with what the writers say of one another or with what they think of themselves. Tom Moore frankly avows that if he has a strong point it is theology, and he delights to announce that he is habitually termed in Ireland "Defender of the Faith and Father of the Hibernian Church" (pp. 115, 137). Macaulay, usually very good-natured in his tone, describes Wilson as a "grog-drinking, cock-fighting, cudgel-playing Professor of Moral Philosophy"; and Senior thinks the same Christopher North "one of the very worst of the clever bad writers who infest our literature; full of bombast, affectation, conceit—in short, of all the *vitia tristia* as well as *dulcia*"; and closes with saying, "I had almost as soon try to read Carlyle or Coleridge" (p. 424).

It is singular to find in a man of Carlyle's superiority so much less recognition of his own weak points than in Macaulay. Carlyle's strongest conviction is that "at all events one can and should ever *speak quietly;* loud, hysterical vehemence, foaming and hissing, least of all beseems him that is convinced, and not only *supposes*, but *knows*" (p. 97). Yet it never seems to occur to him that he here condemns himself, whereas Macaulay constantly recognizes by his own self-criticism the precise faults that posterity discovers in his essays. He thinks his paper on Burleigh "a strange rambling performance" that ought to be put into the fire (p. 127); says that he has "never written a page of criticism on poetry or the fine arts" which he would not "burn if he had the power" (p. 257); that his "Frederic the Great" does not go deep (p. 381), and that the editor and the public will probably think "Addison" a failure (p. 429); that he "will not found any pretensions to be a classic" on his review articles (p. 394); that he is far from putting himself on a level with Mackintosh or Dugald Stewart (p. 410); that his essay on Moore's 'Byron' is "wretchedly bad" (p. 112), and that some of his articles are "viciously florid" (p. 77) and passages in others "indecorously violent" (p. 66). There are few among his published essays which he reads with satisfaction, but happily those few are the latest (p. 428). Certainly the whole impression of Macaulay in these letters is most agreeable, and he shows the greatest good-nature that is possible for an author when he more than once authorizes Napier to erase from his essays anything that might seem too personal, adding: "I had much rather that in a case of private provocation you should judge for me than that I should judge for myself" (p. 100).

It surprises one to find how frankly Macaulay was discussed by his contemporaries, and how many of the later opinions of critics were anticipated while the essays were yet fresh. Sir James Stephen, to be sure, says: "I can forgive him anything, and am violently tempted to admire even his faults" (p. 391); but see the vehemence of Lord Cockburn's utterance in 1844: "Though I incur your contempt by the sentiment, I think the brilliancy of his style, especially on historical subjects, the worst thing about him. Delighting, as I always do, in his thoughts, views, and knowledge, I feel too often compelled to curse and roar at his words, and the structure of his composition. As a corrupter of style he is more dangerous to the young than Gibbon. His seductive powers greater, his defects worse. But still I rejoice in all his deliveries" (p. 474). On the other hand, Carlyle writes in 1832: "Macaulay is always spirited and emphatic, worth reading even on a worn-out matter" (p. 129); while Macaulay says in the same year: "As to Carlyle, he might as well write in Irving's unknown tongue at once" (p. 122).

Lord Brougham, writhing under personal unpopularity, succeeds in convincing himself that Macaulay is more unpopular still, calls him pityingly "Poor Tom," and says that "he is absolutely renowned in society as the greatest bore that ever yet appeared." "I have seen people," he continues, "come in from Holland House breathless and knocked up, and able to say nothing but 'Oh! dear, oh! mercy.' What's the matter? being asked, 'Oh! Macaulay.' Then every one says: 'That accounts for it; you're lucky to be alive,'" etc. (p. 403). He declares in the same letter that Macaulay "is always upon stilts, never able to say the plainest thing in a plain way, . . . half poetry, half novel, no argument, no narrative—fifty little periods in a paragraph, fifty little sparkling points in a sentence." And, after all, the article thus sharply condemned turned out not to be Macaulay's, but Stephen's, and all the wrath had to be retracted in the very next letter! On the other hand, Macaulay more composedly sets down Brougham as "all but mad," and says that "the stories which wander about town as to his sayings and doings are almost incredible, yet the strangest of them are true" (p. 429).

The correspondence most essential to the value of the book—that indeed which, in spite of fragmentary material, gives to the whole a continuous interest—is the series of letters to and from Jeffrey. To him

* 'Selections from the Correspondence of the late MacVey Napier, Esq. Edited by his Son, MacVey Napier.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.

alone, as predecessor and confidential adviser, could Napier write with entire freedom, and the answering letters supply a continuous commentary on all that occurs. Jeffrey is informally that functionary often wished for in literature—a reviewer of reviews—for he furnishes a careful criticism on each issue as it appears; and he is always ready to be called on for counsel, when it is necessary to mediate between Watt and Brewster, to repress Brougham or to curtail Macaulay. His prophecies as to particular contributors may not always have found fulfilment in history, as where he has hopes of Carlyle's one day becoming an "elegant" writer; but he has admirable sense, and his criticisms on the whole hit the mark better than those of anybody else. At any rate his letters constantly supply gaps left by those of others, or give the same facts at a wholly different angle. Indeed, this series of utterances from different persons often seems like the various versions of the same story in Browning's "The Ring and the Book," or like the children's play of "Consequences"—what he said, what she said, and what the world said. In these pages we hear first from some contributor, punctual and unconscious, simply doing what has been asked; then from another contributor, very indignant; then from the sagacious adviser, suggesting the discreet course; then from the editor, bland, conciliatory, final. *Tantæne cœlestibus iræ?* asks the innocent reader, when put behind the scenes of this battle of the gods. Thus, Sir David Brewster is set to review Whewell's 'Philosophy of Inductive Sciences,' having previously reviewed another book by the same author, and having frankly expressed to Napier the opinion that Whewell was "a mere bookmaker" who displayed the most deplorable ignorance (p. 193). Naturally, the criticism when it finally appears (January, 1872) proves anything but flattering, and as it occupies the first place in the number, it attracts much attention. Jeffrey at once complains of it as "a great deal too personal and bitter" (p. 371); Macaulay thinks it prompted by "every sort of animosity, personal animosity, national animosity, academical animosity" (p. 377). These frank criticisms are duly transmitted to the unlucky reviewer, who declares that he wrote "without soreness or irritation," that Lord Brougham and Sir John Barrow endorse his review, and that it was written with the knowledge that Arago and Biot would read it. Then Macaulay writes, partly retracting and admitting that Brewster's view may be the true one after all. But how little did the innocent readers of the *Edinburgh*, accepting all its verdicts as the solemn award of some unseen court of infallibles, know how the dread tribunal was divided against itself, and what hard names the judges were calling one another through the post-office!

Literary history as yet records but few authors who positively enjoyed being cut to pieces in a leading quarterly; and the editor is pretty sure to be like that British drummer who complained of the unreasonableness manifested by the soldiers whom he had to flog, inasmuch as whether he hit high or low there was no such thing as pleasing them. Mr. Napier's tact seldom fails, however, and seems to have fairly deserted him only once, when he wrote to Leigh Hunt that he should like to have "a gentlemanlike article from him." "Between ourselves," remonstrates the kindly Macaulay, "the word *gentlemanlike* was used in rather a harsh way; and considering that poor Hunt has more than once been attacked for really ungentlemanlike conduct, and is naturally sore on that point, I am not much surprised that he was hurt" (p. 366). It took a long letter from Macaulay to make the necessary explanations; then Napier wrote "a most generous and amiable letter," by which the wounded poet was much touched and "more than satisfied." Whether Macaulay was the gainer by his intervention may be doubted, for it appears that just a year after, on the publication of his "Roman Ballads," Leigh Hunt wrote to him to lament that these ballads were no better, and to ask for a small pecuniary loan. Macaulay says that he should have refused the loan had it been accompanied by praises, but that he gladly sent Hunt a few guineas for his frankness (p. 411). If plain-speaking among authors brings in the market a reward thus high, this volume may well have an ample retail-price set upon it, for it is rare to find between two covers so many instances of that particular virtue.

THE MEANING OF LIFE.*

THE question of the value of life, according to Mr. Mallock, conveys to different minds such different meanings that he finds it necessary at the outset to define in precise terms the exact nature of the question as he undertakes to answer it. When he asks, "Is life worth living?" he is not enquiring "whether its balance of pains is necessarily and always in excess of its balance of pleasures," nor "whether any one has been, or whether any one is, happy," but *whether life ought to be found worth living by all?* For this, he says, is what it is pronounced to be when as a general truth it is said to be "worth living"; when it is said to be sacred, or solemn, or earnest, or significant. The meaning of all such language is that those who hold it believe life to have some deep, inherent worth of its own "beyond what it can acquire or lose by the caprice of circumstance," health, or riches, or success—an essential value which it can lose by no act but our own. This superior value, of course, life has derived from religion. It is belief in the existence of God, as a rewarder of good and punisher of evil, and in the continuation of existence after death, which gives life on earth its overwhelming importance and meaning. Whatever substitutes for these beliefs may be suggested or invented for the future, it is not open to dispute that in the past the sacredness of life has rested, as the very word implies, upon a purely religious basis. Now, the progress of science has, in the opinion of persons whom Mr. Mallock somewhat vaguely calls "Positivists" (by this word he declares in the prefatory note that he does not refer to the Comtists, but to "the whole scientific school"), eliminated the supernatural from life, and the question therefore arises, Whether from what is left we can extract any value for life at all? The Positive thinkers (such men as Huxley and Tyndall, for instance) "have taken everything away from life that to wise men hitherto has seemed to redeem it from vanity," and they now have to prove to us that they have not left it vain. For the positivists are entirely unwilling to face the dilemma in which science has placed them, and throw religion overboard altogether. They wish to retain the moral advantages of the supernatural without subjecting themselves to its intellectual fetters, and it is therefore incumbent upon them to explain how, if they remove the intellectual support on which the intrinsic value of life has always been rested, they can still maintain that value to have a real existence. Mr. Mallock quotes "the most popular English exponent of the new school"—probably Mr. Frederic Harrison—as admitting "to the full all that has ever been said about the dignity of man's moral and spiritual life," and points out that this dignity must, if positivism be true, be found "in the very place where hitherto it has been thought to be conspicuous by its absence"—"in this earthly life, this life between the cradle and the grave." Where, therefore, do they find it? We have not space to go through in detail the various answers which Mr. Mallock suggests as possible for positivists to make. They all agree that the dignity of life, whatever else it may be, is essentially moral in character. Life, that is, contains some special prize to which morality is the only road. But the prize must, if it has any existence, be describable, and its value verifiable by positive methods. But such positivists as J. S. Mill, George Eliot, and Professor Huxley have never been able to describe the prize or verify its value. The nearest approach they have made to it is to imagine the advancement of the general happiness of the race to be the goal which makes life worth living. Impassioned benevolence is to be the motive power of all the positivist's ethical machinery, and the spring of this is to be a belief that such benevolence will tend, in the long run, to make this human life of ours something better and higher and purer. But this is to the last degree vague, and can hardly be said to give life a meaning or importance to any but a very few highly educated and refined persons.

The positivists, then, do not succeed in giving to life, after they have taken from it its religious meaning, any new value. It remains nothing more nor less than human life, without any religious basis, and without any other moral basis than will be furnished by the common sense and prudence of mankind. There are, of course, many moral rules which would be enforced by public opinion, religion or no religion; but in the absence of religion they would rest on nothing higher than utility. We are threatened, therefore, with a terrible future, the like of which has never before been thought of—the disappearance of religion from the earth; and not only of religion, but of all the thousand hopes and aspirations inspired by religion, and there remains nothing but dull empty life. We must refer the reader to the book itself for the very striking and disagreeable picture which Mr. Mallock draws of the world as it is to be, after the positivists have had full swing for a certain time.

If Mr. Mallock had closed his book here it would have been a most effective exposure of the pretensions of positivism to furnish any guide for the conduct of life, or any substitute for religion; and this we think would have been a practical benefit to the world at large, and to the positivists in particular, for whatever claims to public respect they have established have been the claims of a school devoted to exact thought and to truth. A positivist (we use the term in the sense in which Mr. Mallock

* 'Is Life worth Living? By William Hurrell Mallock.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.

uses it) is bound by the laws of his philosophy to admit nothing to have a real existence except the phenomena of the natural world. That there may be realities outside of this he neither affirms nor denies, but his refusal to do either is equivalent for practical purposes to a denial. The position of the positivist is, therefore, of all those which the enemies of religion have taken from the beginning of the world the hardest to attack. He does not dispute the existence of God or of a future life, nor does he even question the possibility of a revelation. He merely says that we have no knowledge of anything as yet except the unalterable course of nature, which tells us nothing of God, or of a future life, or of revelation. It is difficult to see how this purely agnostic position can be attacked in any way. It is admitted on all hands that the degree of proof which can be produced in support of any of the tenets of a natural theism is not greater than a high degree of probability, and all that positivists say on the subject is that a high degree of probability is not proof in the sense in which we apply the term in ordinary life, and that while they have no sort of objection to any one worshipping a probable God, or indulging in hopes of a possible future life, they themselves do not feel called upon to join in the devotion or share the hope. But, as Mr. Mallock shows, unfortunately for their reputation for consistency, they have not been content with leaving the mystery of life unexplained. Feeling, as every one, philosopher or not, feels in his heart, that life contemplated as a riddle, of which the key is fatally lost, is not a spectacle calculated to produce content or happiness; feeling the necessity of something outside of life as a standard by which life may be tested, of a lamp by which it may be lighted, of a consolation by which it may be supported, they have endeavored to find within the limits of their philosophy something corresponding to religion, and they have failed. On their own showing, religion belongs to a world with which they have nothing to do; and for them after all to put on priestly robes and volunteer the invention of a new superstition, is an impertinence which we instinctively resent. We have no space to examine in detail the arguments by which Mr. Mallock shows "the utter hollowness of that vague faith in progress, and the glorious prospects that lie before humanity, on which the Positive school at present so much rely, and about which so much is said." His seventh chapter, on "The Superstition of Positivism," is a masterly criticism of those vague emotional substitutes for the Positive tenets of Christianity with which every one is familiar in the writings of Tyndall, George Eliot, and other positive thinkers. As an exposure of the fallacies of this school the whole volume cannot be too highly commended. But Mr. Mallock has proposed to himself an undertaking vastly greater than an exposure of the fallacies of positivism. His book is not only an attack on positivism; it is an appeal in favor of Holy Church. Although we believe the author still professes an attitude of scepticism, his book is, as distinctly as it is possible for a book to be, a Catholic tract, and the last half of it is devoted to a clever résumé of arguments by which he thinks the Catholic faith is supported. Most of this is such familiar ground that we shall not tax our readers' patience by going over it in detail. First, we have arguments for the existence of a God; and, theism once established, the probabilities of a revelation are raised to a very high point. But a revelation once granted, it is quite clear that it is not to be found in the Bible, but in the Church, an inspired body which has had a continuous existence since the revelation of the true religion. All this part of the book forms one of the best Catholic tracts that we have ever seen, and Leo XIII. is much to be congratulated upon being able to number among English sceptics one whose method of reasoning is so little affected by his scepticism. But it does not to our minds strengthen the book, the merit of which lies in its attack on positivism. As to this, however, in the interest of fair argument we desire to offer one or two observations. We have already said that, considered as an exposure of Positive *superstition*, it is very strong. As an attack on Positive morality, however, it goes too far.

Mr. Mallock's argument is in the nature of a *reductio ad absurdum*. The positivist takes away the religious basis of life, and what does he offer instead? Everything that he proposes is in turn shown by Mr. Mallock to be out of the question; and, therefore, he leaves it to be inferred that there must be some religious basis for life, and thus there can be nothing in positivism. It does not appear, however, to have occurred to Mr. Mallock that the sentiment of *altruism*, and the duty of sacrificing one's self for one's neighbor, is simply one branch of the Christian law of life, the other having been left out from the Positive creed because its affirmation presupposes a confession of theistic faith. What is Professor Clifford's "band-work" but an awkward expression of the idea that it is a duty to love one's neighbor as one's self? But if the consequences of altruism are absurd when altruism is put forward as a guide for life by a positivist, they must be equally absurd when put forward by a Christian. *Ergo*, Christian morality is absurd. And is it not so? Does not the following description by Mr. Mallock of the positivist's ideal world apply with quite as great satirical force to that held in view by Christians?

"They live in a world of their own imagining, in which all the rules of this world are turned upside down. There the defeated candidate in an election would be radiant at his rival's victory. When a will was read the anxiety of each relative would be that he or she should be excluded in favor of the others; or, more probably still, that they should be all excluded in favor of a hospital. Two rivals in love with the same woman would be each anxious that his own suit might be thwarted."

To every man of the world—and it is to men of the world to which these arguments are addressed—it is quite clear that unselfishness as a guide to the conduct of life involves an inversion of most of the ordinary rules of conduct. We cannot see that a divine sanction alters this fact. Whether it is God or Professor Huxley who tells us that it is our duty to seek others' happiness rather than our own, it is equally true that it is impossible to imagine a world in which the command is acted upon to such an extent that a desire for the happiness of others has become a primary motive. But surely a rule that we never expect to see the world conform to is no practical guide for life. We think, therefore, that it may be fairly objected to Mr. Mallock's *reductio ad absurdum* of Positive morality that it is also a *reductio ad absurdum* of Christian morality. Mr. Mallock tries to get over this difficulty by the following argument:

"The positivists ask the Christians how they expect to enjoy themselves in heaven. The Christians may, with far more force, ask the positivists how they expect to enjoy themselves on earth. For the Christians' heaven being *ex hypothesi* an unknown world, they do not stultify their expectations from being unable to describe them. On the contrary, it is a part of their faith that they are indescribable. But the positivists' heaven is altogether in this world, and no mystical faith has any place in their system."

But this does not cover the ground. The Christian heaven may be indescribable, but the Christian rules of morality are not so; they are identical with those of positivism. Now, Mr. Mallock makes very merry over "altruism" in the Positive system, while in that of Christianity he sees nothing absurd. But it is unlikely that a just God would reveal a religion a part of which is a moral system that is, as Mr. Mallock shows, on its face absurd; *ergo*, the Christian religion is an imposture. Such is the conclusion to which Mr. Mallock's argument forces us. But, after all, no *reductio ad absurdum* of its moral system can prove or disprove the truth of the positivist philosophy. The only question as to this is whether it is true or not; and though Mr. Mallock makes a very effective plea against what he supposes to be the fallacy that truth is an end in itself, it is certainly not open to those who take part in the discussions of philosophy to maintain that error is an end in itself. Both the positivists and Mr. Mallock propose to themselves the same end, the investigation of the facts of life. They reach one conclusion, he another. The only possible question as to the different results must be, Which is true? This was the only question at the beginning, and it must be the only question at the end. That remote consequences deduced from the conclusion arrived at in either case seem absurd, does not disprove the truth of the conclusion.

Mr. Mallock cites for another purpose a passage from John Stuart Mill's autobiography, which may be used as an illustration of the commission by a positivist of a fault which generally disfigures arguments as to natural and revealed religion. According to Mill's account, one of the most conclusive arguments to his mind against the existence of the Christian God was the supposed existence of hell. The possibility of an all-wise and all-good creator condemning his creatures to endless torments seemed to him inconsistent with his supposed attributes. But if the existence of God can be proved by arguments which commend themselves to our reason, we cannot get rid of him by proving that he does what we could not understand an enlightened human judge doing under the circumstances. When it is said that God is all-wise, all-good, and all-powerful, we do not understand that the epithets are used in their ordinary sense, but that the attributes of the Divinity in all respects surpass and defy the understanding. Therefore, the fact of the existence of a superhuman being once proved, it is a sheer impossibility by ordinary human arguments to disprove the possibility of his having made a hell. In a somewhat similar way, if an apparently faultless chain of reasoning leads us to the conclusion that we cannot know whether a God exists or not, it is idle to ask us after that to explain what will happen to life if this agnostic condition becomes general. Mr. Mallock's book is full of arguments to show that, if reli-

gion is not true, then is the human race indeed most miserable, and that the system of positivism is an absurd one ; but what he calls the agnostic major premise—*i. e.*, "that we can be certain of nothing that we cannot support by proof"—he does not seem to us to meet. It is no reply to this to show that Tyndall shirks the question too.

History of Medicine in New Jersey, and of its Medical Men, from the Settlement of the Province to A.D. 1800. By Stephen Wickes, A.M., M.D. (Newark : Martin R. Dennis & Co. 1879.)—This work, like the title, divides itself into two parts, the latter, and by far the larger, comprehending some 300 biographical sketches of New Jersey practitioners down to the beginning of the present century. The first part is much less restricted than the title would lead one to suppose, for the author, in his history of medicine, includes all the colonies in his survey. He shows how in the beginning the practice of the healing art was chiefly in the care of the clergy, and that they were the authors of some of the earliest medical papers printed in America. In an appendix he reprints a rare pamphlet by the Rev. Jonathan Dickinson on Throat Distemper (Boston, 1740). In the most sparsely settled regions the physicking was chiefly done by women, and everywhere the midwife ruled over her special department. Dr. Wickes states that obstetrics were first taught in a medical school at the University of Edinburgh in 1726, when instruction was confined solely to midwives ; and not till thirty years afterwards were classes formed for male students. "The profession of an accoucheur was esteemed very unbecoming a gentleman, and it was only in the most extreme cases that his advice or aid was sought." The first man midwife recorded in the colonies was a New York physician who died in 1745. To proclaim one's self such "was deemed a scandal to some delicate ears, and Mrs. Grany Brown, with her fees of two and three dollars, was still deemed the choice of all who thought women should be modest." The early obstetrician was not recognized as the peer of the regular physician.

Under the head of Medical Practice we read that in 1718 the method then prevailing in New England was waggishly yet not untruly described as "very uniform—bleeding, vomiting, blistering, purging, anodynes, etc. If the illness continued, there was repetendi and finally murderandi. Nature was never to be consulted or allowed to have any concern in the affair." As for systems, Sydenham's came first; in 1760 that of Boerhaave (the so-called humoral pathology) "governed the practice of every physician in Philadelphia," and doubtless elsewhere; and from 1783 to the close of the century Cullen's 'Practice of Physic' was the approved text-book. A Swedish traveller, Kalm, in 1747–49 noticed that

"Europeans in North America, whether born in Sweden, England, Germany, or Holland, or in America of European parents, always lost their teeth sooner than common. This was especially true of women. The Indians, as he had observed, always had fine teeth. It did not, therefore, arise from the climate. He ascribed it to the use of tea, and to the custom of eating and drinking everything hot. The same effect was produced upon the Indian women after they had become addicted to the use of tea."

The throat distemper, identical with diphtheria, began in May, 1735, "at Kingston, an inland town in New Hampshire, situated in a low plain." Yellow fever is believed to antedate the arrival of the Pilgrims, and to have almost annihilated the coast natives of New England in 1618. As there was no intercourse then with the West Indies, this is regarded as proof of the origin of yellow fever in this country between the 41st and 44th degrees of latitude. In 1798 "it prevailed to some extent on the shores of the Delaware in New Jersey, where it seemed to find its origin."

The New Jersey Medical Society was organized July 23, 1766, and was the first provincial or State society in America. Dr. Wickes collects the scattered notices of other even earlier associations of medical men in the various colonies. One of the first acts of the New Jersey Society was to make a rule that no student should be taken as an apprentice by any of the members "unless he has a competent knowledge of Latin, and some initiation in the Greek." It strove still further to elevate the profession by procuring the enactment of a law providing for the license of physicians by judges of the Supreme Court, after an examination before a board of medical men, who were usually appointed by the Society. The lead taken by Philadelphia in the founding of medical schools caused students from New Jersey to seek instruction there during the last and for the greater part of the present century ; even now, all from West Jersey and most of those from East Jersey receive their degrees in Philadelphia. The French wars of 1758–66 were of great advantage to the medical profession, both from the opportunities for practice and from association with the more cultivated British army surgeons.

The biographical sketches in this volume are somewhat proportioned in length to the author's ability to supplement notices already published in the county medical histories, in which New Jersey is so rich. Sometimes they are reduced to a simple copy of an epitaph, but the proverbial insincerity of such records is not emulated by Dr. Wickes, who frankly tells the truth about several hard characters, forgers, drunkards, and debauchees. If space permitted we might borrow a number of amusing anecdotes with which these histories are enlivened. What is most remarkable is the heredity of the profession in many instances. Take the case of the Blachlys. Dr. Stephen L. Blachly, still living in Pennsylvania, says :

"An old friend and neighbor of mine informed me that my great-grandfather and my grandfather bled him when he was about sixteen, while they were in New Jersey. When a young man he removed to Pennsylvania and settled near my brother [*qu.* father ? also a M.D.], and he bled him; later in life I bled him ; and in advanced life, being of plethoric habit, my son also bled him ; making five successive generations in the family who bled the same subject, with marked relief, and he lived to be eighty-five years old."

Besides these, Dr. Wickes chronicles the Budds, Elmers, and Piersons, four generations each ; the Burnetts, Campfields, and Hornblowers, three each. We must not forget to mention the ancestor of Dr. Hezekiah Stites, John Stites, one of the original emigrants to New England, settled at Hempstead, Long Island, who is said to have "lived to the extraordinary age of one hundred and twenty-two or one hundred and twenty-three years, and when upwards of one hundred was able to walk forty miles a day." On pp. 130–31, there is a confusion between Dr. Assheton and his father (both dying at the age of thirty-seven, the latter July 9, 1773, the former January 4, 1774), which we cannot reduce to order. On page 19, "*Si*riodendron tulipifera" is printed for "Liriodendron," and these are almost the only errors we have detected in this laboriously compiled and elegantly-printed book, for which the thanks, not only of physicians but of the general reader, must be heartily given to Dr. Wickes.

Gazette des Beaux-Arts. Deuxième Série. Tome xix. (New York : J. W. Bouton. 1879.)—When this volume, just concluded by the June number, began, there were two subjects in hand and not yet done with—viz., the examination by M. Charles Éphrussi of Albert Dürer's drawings, scattered among the various museums and private collections of Europe, and "Diane de Poitiers and her Taste in the Fine Arts," by M. Anatole de Montaiglon. The latter series of papers is completed by a very long one in the February number. Some late explorations among the ruins of Diane's famous château of Anet had brought to light interesting constructions which had been forgotten, and statues and sculptured ornaments long since lost had been identified at the Louvre, at the Church of the Sorbonne, and in the neighborhood of the château ; so that the vast and princely building, one of the wonders of the Renaissance, the central part of whose principal front is set up as a model in the court of the École des Beaux-Arts, comes up for a fresh discussion, which, with its illustrations, forms a useful appendix to the great monograph of M. Rodolphe Pfnor. But it is not only the stately residence of the famous courtesan that is treated of : her library with its superb bindings ; the utensils and fittings of her household ; her personal adornments, and the allegorical and enigmatical designs, in the taste of the time, made to her honor and glory—the examination of all these goes to the elucidation of a curious epoch in the history of art. What Madame de Pompadour was to a later time and a degraded art, was "Madame la Grand-Sénéchale" to the French Renaissance.

M. Éphrussi's study of Dürer is a long one ; the eighth paper is in the January number, and the ninth, in the March number, completes it. It is rather a sketch of Dürer's life than a critical or comparative study ; but an immense number of his drawings are named in their chronological order, and many of them are reproduced. It is a valuable treatise, in the historical sense, and forms one more life of Dürer, and one taken from a new point of view.

One of the most voluminous treatises in this volume is M. Yriarte's "Les Arts à la Cour des Malatesta au XVe Siècle. It is completed in three numbers. It seems more serious and careful than the big parlor-table books which have come from the author of late years; and, although we cannot advise any reader to take M. Yriarte for a critical authority, and although he is far too much inclined to take for granted everything that a famous artist does or a famous epoch produces, yet this examination into the history and character of buildings seldom visited,

bas-reliefs almost unknown, medals dear to a few collectors but unheard of by most students, cannot but have its value. The author's historical researches seem, moreover, to have been extensive and serious. Nor does this essay complete the list of papers devoted to the French Renaissance; M. Ferdinand de Lasteyrie, of the Institute, whose death last May at the age of seventy called attention to his consistent protest against the Second Empire from the *Coup d'état* to the end, had contributed the first part of a paper on the Constable de Montmorency and his patronage of the arts, a valuable essay which we fear never to see completed.

M. François Lenormand contributes to the February and April numbers a very interesting article on the Schliemann discoveries at Mycenæ, in which he refuses to accept the enthusiastic theory or rather assumption of the discoverer of the royal tombs in the Acropolis. Some valuable illustrations, not borrowed from Dr. Schliemann's book but from photographs specially taken, add to the value of this review. Other reviews of books on art are limited to one paper each; thus, the editor-in-chief, M. Louis Gonse, notices Adeline's 'Sculptures Grotesques et Symboliques,' and Vidal's 'Les Instruments à archet'; M. Eugène Müntz, librarian of the École des Beaux-Arts, reviews the magnificent work of M. Paul Mantz on Holbein, the third large book devoted to Holbein's life and work which has been published within a few years, and the best of the three; and M. Paul Mantz writes the notice of the book on the sculptors and metal-engravers, the father and sons Caffiéri, by that M. Guiffrey who is known as biographer of Charles Jacque and author of the catalogue of that great etcher's work. These book reviews are not quite what we hope to see in the new Boston art-monthly. French criticism, even the best of it, is apt to be too polite, and to carry too far the good theory that every man's work should be judged from his own standpoint and not from another; and then these book notices are, perhaps confessedly, not critical at all; they are called *comptes-rendus*, as if to disclaim any great severity in passing judgment. The volume ends, as all the volumes do, with a long list of works on the fine arts published during the semester.

One of the most useful articles is the long study of the Museums of the North of Europe, by the Count Clément-de-Ris. The three papers contained in the volume before us are devoted to the Hermitage at St. Petersburg, and one of the illustrations to this is a full-page drawing by M. Goutzwiller of that wonderful Grecian vase which made the despair of M. Vitet, the vase of Cumæ, "la perle, le lustre de la collection Campana," one of those wonderful vases, with figures in relief and gilded and painted, which Russia obtained before France bought the rest of that famous collection in 1862. These papers are very minute and exact, forming almost a catalogue of the museum, with critical enquiry into the authenticity of the ascriptions, etc., and one apparently very thorough and valuable.

But it is impossible to describe all the papers of this volume, and we wish to call attention to what seems to us one of the best features of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, the frequent appearance in its columns of careful papers written by competent judges, and illustrated by good draughtsmen, on works of art which are at the time exciting general attention. Thus, the Louvre acquires, for the price of forty thousand francs, a bust of Philip Strozzi by Benedetto da Majano, and in the January number M. Gonse gives an account of its origin and former home, and the inscription which is hidden beneath, not to be seen by the visitor to the gallery where it stands; while M. Paul Laurent gives a large drawing of the bust. Another recent addition to the Louvre is the kneeling or crouching Venus, found long ago at Vienne in Dauphiny, and until now a private possession. To this statue M. Félix Ravaisson, of the Institute, devotes a long paper, accompanied by three drawings of the statue, two from as many different points of the statue as found, and the third of the statue as set up in the Louvre, with feet added, all three by M. Montalan. M. Joseph Israels has just finished a set of etchings, it appears, and they were not yet for sale when in the April number M. Duranty gave three pages to their consideration, and one very lovely specimen ("Enfants sur la Plage," a real gem) accompanies the text. It was in this way that Méryon, and afterward Haden, were introduced to the French public. In like manner there is question of two splendid portraits by Rembrandt, which, with other paintings, had been bought a year before by the Rothschilds, in Amsterdam, to the great scandal of all Holland. Mr. Henri Havard, author of a charming book about the dead cities of the Zuyder Zee, and, more lately, of a treatise on Delft ware, a large volume with splendid illustrations, writes upon the subject of these Rembrandts and their companions in exile, and two full-page etchings by Flameng accompany the text. And in connection with these articles on current topics it is right to name the engraving by M. Gaillard of "Monseigneur Pie," the bishop of Poitiers, with a brief mention of this and other works of that wonderful engraver, by M Gonse. Why M. Gaillard's works are so little sought for by collectors, at least in this country, it would be hard to say, but every owner of a set of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* has half-a-dozen of them, the work of the only original line-engraver, so far as we know, who is now alive and at work. In nothing does the *Gazette* deserve more praise and thanks than in the care with which these engravings *tirées à part* are printed, for the etchings by Haden, Israels, Jacque, and a score of other masters, and these burin engravings of Gaillard's, are satisfactory and brilliant prints, good enough for any collector's choice. No doubt the coppers are steeled, and the prints therefore, while uniformly good, a little less rich and mellow than a few early proofs before the *aciérage*; but that is of course.

The Pedigree and History of the Washington Family: derived from Odin, the Founder of Scandinavia, B.C. 70, involving a period of eighteen centuries, and including fifty-five generations, down to General George Washington, first President of the United States. By Albert Welles, President of the American College for Genealogical Registry and Heraldry. (New York: Society Library. 1879. Pp. xl. and 370.)—In past years it has been our duty to speak pretty plainly about Mr. Welles and his sham College of American Heraldry. We were also obliged to censure his pretentious and unfounded genealogies; and we truly hoped, for the credit of American literature, that we should never again encounter his name on a title-page. But it seems that we misinterpreted his silence, and that he has really been engaged in an enterprise worse than its predecessors. Few people cared whether or not his stories about the Welles family were true; but it is a national disgrace to have a false pedigree set forth for the greatest representative of our country. George Washington has, indeed, been unfortunate in his successive heralds. Sir Isaac Heard, full of zeal and sympathy, published a wrong pedigree of the ancestors of the emigrant Washington. Then the Rev. Mr. Simpkinson tried to correct that story and substituted a fresh blunder. This one died hard. The Legislature of Massachusetts, inspired by Charles Sumner, sanctioned it, and during the present year *Harper's Magazine* gave a fresh impetus to it. But it is an avowed error, and Mr. Simpkinson has repeatedly expressed his regret at his mistake. Now, after all this, we are brought face to face with a new and infinitely greater bundle of figments, and we can only hope that Mr. Welles has been the dupe of an abler writer, who has deliberately concocted a literary forgery.

In the New York *World* for March 29, 1879, Colonel Joseph L. Chester, a genealogist and antiquary of the first rank, now living in London, sounded the alarm. Colonel Chester knows more about the Washingtons than any other man; he has for years studied the matter, and he exposed the errors of Heard and Simpkinson years ago. He had seen proof-sheets of Welles's book, and he termed it "unmitigated rubbish." For the English pedigree Welles seems to rely upon "James Phillippe," of London. This is said to be one alias of an adventurer who calls himself "Marshal-General Plantagenet Harrison," a getter-up of pedigrees to order, and unpleasantly known to literary men in England. At all events, the character of his work shows that he is without scruples or without judgment. His book abounds in direct statements for which he declines to give any authority. A pedigree thus prepared is useless, and its author must expect the harshest construction to be put on his silence. Mr. Welles, indeed, tried to reply in the New York *Herald* of May 19, 1879, to the crushing criticism of Colonel Chester. It was an utter failure. Without encumbering our pages, it is enough to say that Mr. Welles declared that "in regard to the proofs of the identity of Laurence and John Washington, who emigrated to this country in 1659, the proofs are in my office." Perhaps they are, but they are certainly not in his book.

With the ridiculous fictions relating to Odin we have nothing to do. There are numerous families or branches of Washingtons in England, and this pedigree tries to connect the emigrants with one of these—the Washingtons of Warton, County Lancaster. Mr. Welles writes, pp. 101 and 105, that Laurence Washington was baptized at Warton in 1625, and his brother John was baptized there in 1627, both being sons of Leonard W. of that place. Now, Colonel Chester wrote last spring: "I have carefully examined that register (Warton) personally, and very carefully, and can declare that no such entries are to be found in it." Where, then, are Mr. Welles's proofs of the baptism? Where are his proofs that Leonard had any two sons named Laurence and John? Above all, where are his proofs of identity? The plain truth is, that no one has yet the faintest proof of the identity of the emigrants with any two known members of

any English family. Simpkinson and Heard found a Sir John with a brother Lawrence of the same date as our Americans ; but also a further search proved that both of them lived and died in England. Of course a pedigree is good only so far as proved. Similarity of names may be presumptive evidence, various circumstances may give us moral proof of identity ; but mere assertions are impudent attempts to mislead the ignorant. If Mr. Welles has any proofs, it is his duty to present them. If he does not, he is like any other incredible witness, and he should be told plainly that his mere assertions are good for nothing.

As to the rest of his book, we find numerous small errors in the parts which have a historical basis. In regard to the American portion we hope that he has copied correctly from sound authorities, but the lack of proper arrangement prevents critical study, and the general fatuity and stupidity of the whole book discourage the critic. There are some books which defy analysis or correction ; they sound like the ballads in 'Alice's Adventures,' and with a show of meaning bewilder the firmest brain. It is so with all of Mr. Welles's work ; we cannot correct without re-writing the whole, a task for which we have neither time nor inclination.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 7, 1879.

The Week.

THE *Herald*, which may always be relied upon to do something to relieve the monotony of the summer, has hit this year upon the ingenious device of publishing a series of editorials urging upon Mr. Tilden the necessity of withdrawing from public life. Mr. Tilden must see, the *Herald* thinks, that he is a very serious impediment in the way of "harmony" in his party. The next Presidential election cannot be carried without the State of New York, and yet the Democrats in New York are hopelessly divided into a Kelly ring and a Tilden ring, and the Republicans have an excellent chance of carrying the State. To restore harmony, to bring about peace and calm, the only means is the retirement of Mr. Tilden from political life. What is distracting the Democrats is his candidacy; with him out of the way they could easily unite upon a good candidate with a fair hope of electing him. The *Herald* has accordingly drawn up a dignified letter of resignation, which it urges Mr. Tilden to sign. As yet, however, the suggestion has not been acted upon, mainly, we suppose, because Mr. Tilden does not consider himself really in public life. His view of the situation, as we understand it, is that he is simply a private citizen residing at 15 Gramercy Park (one of the most sequestered parks of the city), having no connection with politics in any way, and attending to his private concerns; that the people are justly indignant that his election in 1876 was rendered null and void by the fraudulent decision of an unconstitutional commission, and that the people will never "condone fraud." Under these circumstances what is the old gentleman to retire from? The *Commercial Advertiser*, in its ribald way, says that the only farewell address that will ever be issued in Mr. Tilden's case, will be in the obituary columns of the daily newspapers, accompanied by the usual notice of a funeral from 15 Gramercy Park.

It would be difficult to overestimate the importance of the election this autumn in this State in its bearing upon the Presidential contest of next year. If the Republicans carry the State the Conklingites, who still completely control the local machine, will go into the Republican convention with the whole weight of this State behind them, which Conkling cannot be said to have had in 1876 at Cincinnati. On the other hand, if the Democrats elect a Tilden Democrat, like the present Governor, even by a small majority, the "mortgage" which Tilden is supposed to have upon his party will be in a fair way of being speedily foreclosed. But if the Kelly forces obtain a victory and defeat the Tilden nomination, there is no saying who will secure the Democratic nomination; in all probability it will fall to the hands of some Western inflationist. All this makes the nominations of this year of exceptional importance; and it is a curious proof how little real popular interest is felt in politics as they are now managed in both the parties, and how little popular expectation there is of a change for the better through the victory of one or other of the factions, that the struggle excites little or no attention except among professional politicians and in the party press.

Among the Republicans there are absolutely no signs of movement in the Reform wing, composed of the anti-custom-house Republicans and those who, in general, think better of their party, as reflected in the editorials of *Harper's Weekly*, than as it appears in the life and conversation of Conkling or "Johnny" Davenport; and the result of this apathy is that it is now generally conceded that Mr. A. B. Cornell, whose nomination this wing prevented when it was last pressed, will this year be nominated without any real difficulty. Among the Democrats the situation is very different. Kelly has announced in a newspaper interview that Tammany will not support Mr. Robinson under any circumstances. The reason for this is that Robinson is a mere "tool" of Tilden's, is "haughty," "domineering," "overbearing," and means to rule the party or ruin it. Mr. Robinson has also been interviewed, and says that he is a candidate for renomination. Should Tammany bolt the regular nomination Mr. Robinson could hardly be elected; but it is extremely improbable that anything like the whole Tammany vote could be induced to follow Kelly in such a revolt. A great deal will depend upon the management of the State Democratic Convention, and that again to a great extent upon the temporary organization. This is in the hands of the State Committee, which last year was in Kelly's interest, but of which enough members to give the control are said to have been since converted to the other side.

When the New York *Times* published its census of public sentiment in regard to Grant's renomination, in spite of its disclaimer of any sympathy with the verdict it was generally regarded as having rather wilfully given this acceleration to the Grant "boom." Since that time its course has been remarkable for undisguised antipathy to Secretary Sherman's Presidential aspirations and prospects, as when it allowed its Washington correspondent to accuse him of "fixing," by Treasury patronage, the Southern delegates to the next Republican convention. Accordingly, its giving up seven columns of Monday's issue to a flattering account of Mr. Charles Francis Adams in his library at Quincy, had all the appearance of an attempt to start an Adams boom. There could have been no mistake about it six months later, but the enterprise is probably to be set down to the exigencies of the dull season, and not to any spirit of propagandism. The same explanation doubtless holds good for the protracted rehearsal of Tilden's frauds in the last election; but this had the further advantage of eliciting complimentary notices from the country press, the reprinting of which in the *Times* itself ensured an unlimited supply of padding.

The Kentucky election on Monday resulted in the election of Dr. Blackburn, the Democratic candidate, of course, but by a majority about forty per cent. smaller than that of McCreary four years ago. The Republicans gained several members of the Legislature, among others a successor to the Speaker of the last House of Representatives. There was a call for a Constitutional Convention voted on, but it failed to receive a majority, and at this writing it is doubtful if a majority of the voters of the State took the trouble to go to the polls. Blackburn's reduced majority is perhaps due not so much to unusual Republican activity as to his personal objectionableness. That, according to all accounts, was great; and his election is the reverse of creditable to the State. During the campaign repeated enquiries as to his identity with the Blackburn infamous for his connection with the plot to introduce yellow fever into the Northern States during the war, were left unanswered by himself and his friends. The Cincinnati *Gazette* made a point of repeating this question daily and in every conceivable form, but was only able to elicit from the *Courier-Journal* a counter interrogation as to certain misdeeds of one Richard Smith; other journals made the charge distinctly—except notably the Cincinnati *Commercial*, which would doubtless prefer anything to interference with a sensation of the *Gazette*. If it is true—and, we repeat, though constantly made it was never denied—it is curious that Dr. Blackburn should have owed his nomination to his heroism and self-sacrifice in treating yellow-fever patients last year. In this event yellow fever may be said to be his "specialty," and to possess attractions for him which he cannot withstand, but is forced to pass his life either in fighting his enemies with it or in rescuing his friends from it. At any rate it is to be hoped that the citizens of Kentucky, whose affairs he is now to administer, will manage to keep on the right side of a man of such proclivities.

The political riot at Yazoo City, of which full particulars have been published during the week, is an affair which concerns the people of Mississippi more nearly than it does any one else. A Colonel Dixon, much respected by every one in the county, and three other gentlemen announced themselves candidates for various local offices, subject not to the ratification of the forthcoming Democratic Convention, but "only to the choice of the people at the ballot-box," it being well understood that "the people" included the colored voters. This was looked upon as intolerable impudence by the regular organization, and Dixon and his friends, having made an active canvass, were finally "waited upon" by an armed mob of three hundred which insisted that they should leave the county or "take the consequences," "consequences" being, of course, the local euphemism for "death." Finally a compromise was arranged; Dixon withdrew his candidacy, and his party virtually disbanded. The case recalls the attempt last fall of General Davis, in the same State, to get negro support as a Greenback candidate; what he did get being threatening letters and a burning in effigy. Commenting on this, in opposition to those who thought it an occasion for Federal interference, we held up the duty of the Southern whites to display the courage of their convictions. The moral of the Dixon outrage is precisely the same. If the South is not to be for ever the slave of its lowest elements, the Dixons and the Davises must be ready to pay with their persons for the privilege of independent opinion and political action. The martyr stuff is what is needed, not withdrawing and disbanding under compulsion. What Northern constituency ever submitted to such "bulldozing," or appealed, as did the Independents of Yazoo County, to a judge for his advice in their distress? Judge Morris, it is only fair to say, bids them maintain their organization and proceed resolutely, and invokes the support of the prominent planters who participated in the Vicksburg Convention. He foresees as a consequence of failure to face the mob a revival of the exodus and the embittering of the "solid North." But it is high time Mississippi realized that exhibitions of white pusillanimity produce no effect at the North except disgust.

There has been no important change in the condition of Memphis, and the prospect seems to be that, while the daily average of new cases and deaths hitherto will probably be kept up through the rest of the hot weather, the epidemic is by no means likely to reach the last year's proportions. There have been ninety-seven new cases and twenty-five deaths during the week; the largest number of new cases being 18 on Tuesday, and of deaths 7 on Saturday, when all river traffic and railway travel ceased. Some trouble between the Committee of Safety and the colored people over the unwillingness of the latter to go into camp has not been in any degree serious. The National Board of Health has made a requisition for 500 tents upon the Secretary of War at the instance of Congressman Casey Young; and some of the papers are finding much fault with it for having done nothing else—save collect information. At New Orleans the Board of Health announces there is no danger and no likelihood of any but "sporadic" cases from time to time; of these there have been eight and two deaths. In this city the Commissioners are to appoint a special physician for the Quarantine hospital, where apparently one has been needed for some time.

The War Department has recently published a list of appointments from civil life to vacant second-lieutenancies in the regular Army, the only educational examination required of them being wholly unprofessional, and limited to the ordinary degree of scholarship which can be attained in most of our public schools. Appointments of civilians to the lowest grade of military rank is no innovation, having been common before the war of the rebellion to fill vacancies remaining after the graduates of the Military Academy had been exhausted. This plan added neither to the efficiency nor popularity of the service, and a section in the Army Appropriation Act of June 18, 1878, was intended both to secure the rights of actual soldiers and to improve the personnel of the Army by providing that "hereafter all vacancies in the grade of second lieutenant shall be filled by appointment from the graduates of the Military Academy, so long as any such remain in service unassigned; and any vacancies thereafter remaining shall be filled by promotion of meritorious non-commissioned officers of the Army [recommended under the provisions of the next section of this Act]; *provided*, that all vacancies remaining, after exhausting the two classes named, may be filled by appointment of persons in civil life." The following section made elaborate provision for the selection, recommendation, examination, and report of enlisted men. The forms of this law have been observed with the astonishing result that so few non-commissioned officers have been appointed as to allow the selection of a large number of civilians. It is well known that the first or "orderly" sergeants of the companies of the line perform virtually all the official work of their companies beyond certain signatures and parade posturings. Most of them are certainly competent to instruct professionally any of the civilian youths who are to be appointed over them. Moreover, during several years past the difficulty of entering into business pursuits has induced many young men of perfectly good habits, and who probably can pass the slight educational examination required of the new appointees, to enlist, and learn the duties of soldiers. If neither of these classes are now fit for promotion the Army must be in a deplorable condition.

The present law, not having accomplished its object, might well be amended by striking out the proviso above quoted, and requiring that all vacancies in the lowest grade of the Army, after the graduates of West Point had been assigned, should be filled by meritorious non-commissioned officers of sufficient length of service to prevent another colorable evasion. When the commanding officers of the military subdivisions and the members of boards find that they cannot secure the appointment of their own friends and relations in civil life through the rejection of soldiers, there will be plenty of the latter who will pass the required examination, and a far higher standard will be gained for the companies, to which would be given the incentive of an honorable ambition. The alleged exclusion of the Army from politics, and its supposed freedom from all phases of favoritism, as markedly contrasted with the condition of the civil service, have furnished strong arguments to its supporters. Nothing is more likely to diminish both respect and gratitude than the knowledge that commissions are given on the same political and personal grounds as are clerkships throughout the country, and with no difference in the standard for examination except that the candidates for the temporary and less respected positions are required to possess higher qualifications. The memorandum published by the War Department, attached to the general order of announcement, is not fortunate. A significant proportion of the names announced are qualified as the sons or other relatives of present officers of the Army. If the mode of selection, so far as regards efficiency, is to be the same for officers of the regular Army and for the irregular army of clerks, the rule published, and to some extent observed, in the departments at Washington should be universally enforced, that two members of the same family should not be favored. Military commissions becoming, like all other executive appointments, the mere spoils of office, there should at least be a pretence of impartiality in distributing them.

The Attorney-General has given the Albany County Bank an opinion on the new six-per-cent. interest law which must be considered authoritative, at least until the questions involved are passed upon by the courts. He decides that the new law applies to State banks and repeals their right to charge seven per cent. From the concluding portion of his opinion it would seem that national banks must also lower their rate to six per cent., they having authority only to charge the rate established by law in the State in which they do business. The State banks were by a special act (L. 1870, ch. 163) empowered to charge seven per cent., but the

new act repeals in explicit terms all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with its provisions. The Legislature must in inserting this clause be assumed to have had in mind the State banks, and therefore the repealing clause amounts to a specific withdrawal of the right conferred by the act of 1870. As a matter of fact it is highly improbable that the Legislature had anything of that sort in its mind, for if it had it would probably have noticed that the act must also have the effect of cutting down the interest on the United States deposit fund, the income of which goes to the public schools. The deficiency in that fund arising from the change will, the Attorney-General says, have to be supplied by taxation. He thinks that the act does not affect the statutes against usury, which remain, *mutatis mutandis*, in force. On this point, however, there is clearly room for difference of opinion. It is rather a serious matter to have the law relating to interest on money left in this condition. Whether the Legislature had better leave the point in dispute to be settled by the courts, or try their clumsy hands at it once more, may perhaps be open to question.

Mayor Cooper last week made formal charges against Police Commissioner Wheeler in connection with the Bureau of Clothing and Equipment, and Monday afternoon was fixed for the hearing. The charges include misappropriation of funds, and retaining money due to tradesmen for supplies. Wheeler is a Republican Commissioner, whose term of office has expired, and who is holding over. His behavior in doing so is satisfactory to no one, even Mr. George Bliss being reported as remonstrating with him, and urging him to resign for the good of the party. He is not altogether fit for the place, being a bankrupt, and laboring under the suspicion of being "controlled" by the notorious Captain Williams, who is believed to have "a hold" upon him. Mr. Wheeler, however, evidently profited by the previous proceedings before the Mayor, and immediately retained counsel, who applied to Judge Van Brunt for a writ, which was granted and served upon the Mayor. This interesting document has been published in full by the morning papers, but as our space is limited we are only able to give an abstract of it. It is headed: "The people of the State of New York to Edward Cooper, Mayor of New York, greeting," and states that Wheeler has informed the court that he has been summoned before the Mayor to show cause why he should not be removed; that the Mayor has no jurisdiction in the premises, and that anything he does will be illegal and void; that, nevertheless, the said Cooper, contriving to oppress the said Wheeler, proposes to carry out his nefarious design. It goes on to command the audacious Cooper to desist until the third Monday (18th) of August, and further order of the court. The legal student will perceive that this document resembles the ancient writ of injunction introduced into England by the early chancellors, and brought to a high pitch of perfection in New York during the present century. It is, however, really what is known as a writ of prohibition, designed by the founders of the common law for the purpose of preventing encroachments of jurisdiction, and much in use in England in the time of Henry II. It has never before, we believe, been applied to prevent a mayor of a city from removing a police commissioner "under the charter." Mr. George Bliss, however, has told a reporter that it was once used to prevent Quimbo Appo, a Chinese murderer, from being tried. Its employment for such purposes is, therefore, corroborative of the jurist's favorite maxim, that "there is no wrong without a remedy."

Perhaps the most important event of the week was the decline in the rates for foreign exchange to very near the point at which gold can be imported. Sterling fell to within ¼ of a cent of this point, and bills on Paris were so low that an importation of $200,000 double-eagles to New York was reported. As this decline comes before expected foreign demand for our breadstuffs has much more than begun, the prospect of getting a considerable amount of foreign gold before the year closes seems to be fairly good. Should the movement of specie to this country become large, it is a safe calculation, however, that an effort will be made in the foreign financial markets to return American securities to us. The New York money market has shown symptoms of advancing during the week, but rates are not firmly higher than a week ago. It now appears that the Treasury during July paid out the eight-odd millions of legal-tender notes which made up the fund held for the redemption of fractional notes. This disbursement increased the ease of the money market and neutralized the temporary disturbances incident to the settlements of the bond contracts between the Treasury and the national banks. Money continues very cheap and abundant in London. Silver bullion there has ruled at 51⅛*d.* to 51¼*d.* per ounce. At the close of the week the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was $0.8623.

The foreign news of the week is unimportant. Parliament has been called upon to vote a new credit of $15,000,000 for the expenses of the South African war, making the total cost of that enterprise so far $22,500,000, to say nothing of the Prince Imperial. Cetewayo is still at large, but his military power seems utterly broken, and his territory will be divided among his brothers and other surrendered chiefs. The proceedings of the court-martial which sentenced Lieut. Carey to death have been quashed, ostensibly on account of informality. The French Chambers have been prorogued till November, and consequently the Ferry laws go over the heated term.

Judge Kelley's interview with Bismarck is described at length in a letter from himself to the Philadelphia *Times*. When the conversation had passed from the Chancellor's habits of work and sleeplessness to the pending Tariff Bill, Bismarck laid down the principle that each government should regard the welfare of its own people, and proceeded to show how much the agricultural interests of Germany stood in need of protection against the pauper labor of Hungary and Russia. He then complimented the United States on having, by means of its tariff, brought machinery and transportation to such a point (or, in other words, so pauperized its industry) that it "can send food even into Germany." The grounds of cordiality between the German and American statesmen being thus established, Judge Kelley made an "opportunity" of the last remark, and reminded his host that Germany's demonetization of silver had arrested the progress of the United States and restricted its trade; but as this could not fail to be gratifying intelligence to the great protectionist, he immediately added that a further consequence was the driving of bankrupt traders and unemployed artisans into agricultural pursuits, and that this, by reducing prices, had increased the competition with which Germany was contending. Bismarck thereupon frankly admitted that they had gone too far in this direction, said he had prohibited further sales of silver, and on being told that our Government was about to call a new bimetallic convention, said his acceptance of the invitation would be immediate. He had, however, some curiosity to know what would happen if the other governments addressed did not respond favorably, and was assured of the Judge's hope that they would all refuse, based on his confident belief that "our people would, in less than two years, imperatively demand the full and unqualified remonetization of silver," and would, as silver mono-metallists, presently monopolize the trade of China, Japan, British India, Mexico, and Central and South America. These unhappy countries "could not sell their raw materials to, nor purchase their manufactured goods from, people who used a much more costly metal as a standard of payment." But Bismarck would not listen to this selfish programme: "In this matter you must not act alone; others must co-operate with you." The only other noticeable feature of the interview was Bismarck's "intense contempt for the arrogant pretenders who regard the doctrines of the British school of free-trade as absolute and indisputable propositions." "He characterized them as doctrinaires and closet-men," and said that "doctors, clergymen, and lawyers, but few of whom know anything of the details of public affairs, are generally on that side."

THE REVELATIONS BEFORE THE RAILROAD COMMITTEE.

THE question of railway power, and the methods and effects of its exercise, continues to force itself upon the public consideration. The Legislature of the State of New York was petitioned last February by the Chamber of Commerce of this city to investigate a number of charges against certain companies, which were set forth in the memorial with more distinctness than such charges usually are. The matters complained of were alleged to be fraught with much general harm, and to be especially detrimental to the interests of both the State and City of New York. Other important bodies also urged similar complaints, and the Legislature finally, by successive resolutions, created a committee of nine, with Mr. A. B. Hepburn as chairman, endowed it with ample powers, and charged it with very comprehensive duties. Its sittings commenced June 12, in this city, at the City Hall.

The New York Board of Trade joined the Chamber of Commerce in securing the services of Mr. Simon Sterne to act in their behalf before the committee. His opening speech did not exaggerate the gravity of the evils which gave birth to the investigation, nor the need both of more knowledge as to their extent and causes and as to the proper remedies. The public nature of the services rendered by railroads was shown, and their claim to exemption from public supervision and reasonable regulation easily disposed of, while the grosser and more palpable tyrannies engendered by their past license were forcibly depicted. Indeed, it is not easy to understand why the community should seriously doubt the question of the right to regulate. Nothing can be vainer than the hope that railways may, through pleas of business privacy, or others, long escape from whatever degree of enquiry may be found essential to throw light on their ways and management, and from the amplest and completest code of regulations which the public weal may seem to require. Indeed, the only real question worthy of consideration is the extent to which the community should and can safely call upon their government to proceed. There is a popular and justifiable distrust about confiding to government officials the supervision of large aggregations of capital, especially when their particular functions are affected by or may greatly affect the complicated and fluctuating movements of commerce. This many-sided question is worthy of our wisest thinking. But every fresh probing into railway practices only makes clearer the fact that some effective regulation is imperatively needed.

Mr. Samuel Goodman was the first witness who testified before the Committee. This gentleman is Assistant General Freight Agent of the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad Company, in special charge of its local freight business. He has been connected with that system of roads for twenty years. His duties, as defined by himself in his testimony, give him a certain and substantially unrestricted power over the commercial prosperity of all merchants, manufacturers, farmers, and other men of business living in the territory which that system serves—a power which in periods of commercial distress is quite sufficient to determine whether success or bankruptcy shall be the issue to men of limited means, no matter how prudent, thrifty, and industrious they may be. Such a power is much too great to be confided to any one, however competent, equitable, and upright he may be; but it has been wielded by Mr. Goodman. How fit he is to wield it, and how much credit he does to those who selected him, he has very fully revealed in the course of his evidence. A few extracts will illustrate his intelligence, and especially his knowledge of the business in which he is engaged, and in which he passes for an expert.

The examiner attempted to discover some rule or basis upon which the violent and sweeping changes in tariffs that had been confessed to were made. The witness protested that they really did rest on reason, and were not the offspring of mere whim, nor, when secret, of simple favoritism; but he nowhere produced any sound reason for them, nor, indeed, much semblance of any rule or guide for his actions; but he finally asserted with some positiveness that the first condition in determining rates was the cost of transportation. In response to persistent questioning, he was obliged to admit, however, that he did not know the difference in cost between transporting potatoes and flour by the barrel, nor how much it cost to haul freight, or to handle freight at termini, nor what effect grades had on such cost, nor the cost per mile per ton or train, nor in which direction the most empty cars ran, nor how much additional cost it would involve to move a car loaded instead of empty, and, in short, that he was not familiar with any of the elements which enter into the expense of freight carriage, though he also testified that he could get the information if he chose to ask for it. He could give no good reason for the present classification of freight, excepting some vague generalities respecting variations of value and bulk; but any attempt to define the relations between such variations and the allotment of goods to classes, simply exposed anew the density of his ignorance. However, he is probably not alone so far as classification is concerned. As it at present exists it is really a sort of untrimmed growth of years of custom, and is loaded down with the excrescences and absurdities which usually characterize such growths.

"Can you tell us," asked the examiner, "how much of the transportation expense is due to the handling of goods?"—"Not to such an extent as to give intelligent answers."

"Have you any guess upon the subject of (the cost of) haul?"—"No, sir; I have not the slightest idea."

"Does the ease with which an article may be handled at the termini determine the question whether it is to go into the first or fourth class?"—"It *does* to a certain extent."

After some explanatory questions and answers:

"Then the terminal charges do *not* enter into consideration *at all* in making this classification?"—"Not particularly at this time."

Certainly a frank acknowledgment of incompetency is better than unfounded pretension to skill; and for this reason Mr. Goodman is worthy of commendation. But there is something appalling in the fact that a great power over the well-being of vast communities should be lodged with one so grossly and wilfully and almost boastfully unfitted for its intelligent exercise.

The facts drawn out of him, in illustration of the practical administration of his department, were as numerous and instructive as the illustrations of his incapacity. The tariffs of charges, by which all his patrons were necessarily compelled to regulate their business, were in some cases two years old; some, two weeks. They had been issued with so little precision that the witness himself could not tell the exact day when even the most recent took effect. Between the various local stations there were absolutely no tariffs in print, nor were there any at non-competitive points. The bulk of such business is done under special rates made from day to day, and for each shipper as he needs to ship. "More than one-half of these special rates, and all the important ones, are made verbally, and in many cases under a pledge of secrecy." If Mr. Goodman thought potatoes worth one dollar per barrel, his tariff would perhaps be twenty cents; if he thought them worth but half a dollar, he would obligingly cut his rate to ten cents; but if one shipper should simply forward his potatoes as he would mail a letter, he would pay the twenty cents; while his neighbor who was astute enough to consult Mr. Goodman would get the same service done at one-half the cost. And here it should be remarked that Mr. Goodman never gives notice of tariff changes to any but those who choose to enquire of him. If a Western road lops off fifty per centum of the through-tariff to New York, Mr. Goodman's road meekly accepts the capricious decree, and he himself proceeds to consider how far it shall disturb his manuscript tariffs and verbal rates from Buffalo or from Utica. Sometimes Mr. Goodman thinks he will reduce, and sometimes he thinks he won't. When he reduces, the Utica man can ship, and possibly at a profit; when he decides the other way, the Utica man has nothing for it but to stop business or lose money. He has, however, the satisfaction of knowing that his Chicago rival is very cheaply served, and is doing a rushing trade; all the larger that Utica is for the time under the ban of Mr. Goodman's indifference or caprice.

The witness confessed that, while his regular tariff of charges from New York to Syracuse was thirty-seven, twenty-nine, twenty-

five, and eighteen cents per hundred pounds, according to class, he gave to special favorites in that city a rate of ten cents per hundred pounds on all classes; while from New York to Schenectady (130 miles less haul) the very lowest rate he would give to his dearest friends was fifteen cents per hundred pounds. It is only fair to say, however, that some Syracusans stood no higher in his good graces than the best of Schenectady. Of course the generality of shippers at each place paid the full tariff rates. Utica ranks about as highly in his favor as Syracuse, while Frankfort—poor little Frankfort—is not accorded so much as one single special rate; not a single man in Frankfort is pledged to secrecy. The happy result which is thereby achieved is that Frankfort ships nothing, and probably never will ship anything. Mr. Goodman will be thus spared much worry and rate-making annoyance. To win his highest regard, however, it is safest to dwell in Milwaukee. Residents there can under his benign auspices ship from Troy, 1,301 miles, at a lower cost than he will accord to shipments from Troy to Syracuse, 151 miles. Why he should shower smiles on Syracusans who ship from New York City, and frown on such as ship from the city of Troy, does not appear; and it is quite unlikely he could himself give any good reason for the difference. It transpired in the course of the evidence that if any recipient of a special rate was caught patronizing any other route, his rate would probably be withdrawn; and, as from most local points only special rates exist, he might easily find himself debarred from shipping at all. One of the few plausible grounds for discriminating rates between shippers which Mr. Goodman advanced was the relative quantities of traffic they offered for carriage; but when pressed he was obliged to admit that he kept no record of these respective amounts, and was, in fact, totally ignorant of the volume of traffic received from each patron, or whether the special rates really resulted in an increase of business. He had no records to show, and apparently no knowledge, whether the special rates he gave so lavishly yielded any profit, or whether they were not below the actual cost of the work.

Mr. James H. Rutter, who fills the responsible post of traffic manager on the same system of roads to which Mr. Goodman is attached, was a less interesting witness than the latter. His readiest and most frequent reason for inability to furnish much of the information asked for was "necessary unfamiliarity with details," his own duties being general in their nature. It was a convenient excuse, and much resorted to. It was quite evident he understood the value of not knowing too much. A competent traffic manager, such as he may probably be, would hardly fail to familiarize himself with all matters related to so important a feature of his jurisdiction as the drawing-room-car question, unless he had good reason to believe his investigations would not commend him to his superiors.

Mr. Royal C. Vilas, the general freight agent of the New York, Lake Erie, & Western Railway, is as well equipped, both by disposition and study, for the duties of his important post as Mr. Goodman for his. If the two companies should exchange these officers, it would be difficult to determine which had the best of it. We should like to speak of some of the extraordinary facts revealed by him, and notably of the "evener" scandal, but our space will not permit.

The Chamber of Commerce could not more effectually forward their purposes than to have a careful digest made of the points elicited in this testimony. In its present shape it is necessarily too diffuse and lacking in arrangement to be generally read or fully comprehended. The examination has been ably, and we think successfully, conducted, and the mass of ill-doing which it has brought and will yet bring to light before the sessions are closed, should be placed in the clearest possible way before the public judgment.

THE ECONOMIC REVOLUTION IN GERMANY.

MR. W. D. KELLEY'S visit to Germany has been most opportune. He was sure of a cordial reception as a representative of the Pennsylvania school of political economists, which is now in high favor with the German Government and the German Diet; and he has actually had the honor of being referred to by a deputy in the Reichstag as a "leading American statesman," and of being quoted in elucidation of some abstruse question of finance. He has had an opportunity to meet Professor Dühring, the translator and expositor of Carey; to hear the doctrines, though of course not the methods, of the Pittsburgh rioters taught in the classes of the first university of the land; to listen to the eloquence of Von Kardorff, his own German counterpart; to receive from Prince Bismarck economical opinions by the side of which his own are conservative and almost orthodox; and, what to a conscientious protectionist must have been the highest gratification of all, to witness the process of making an imperial law which puts a duty of seventy five cents per hundredweight on petroleum, and corresponding burdens upon canned meats, vegetables, and fruits, machines, grain, and nearly everything else which America has hitherto exported free, or practically free, into Germany. The duty on petroleum is, indeed, a duty for revenue, since not even Herr von Varnbüler has yet proposed to sink oil-wells in the Fatherland, but the other articles are taxed distinctly and avowedly in the interest of "home industry"; and, as the measure is sure to ruin several young but flourishing branches of American export trade with Germany, there was an ironical propriety in the presence of a Pennsylvania protectionist to witness the triumph of the great cause.

The completeness of the protectionist victory is not more striking than the ease and rapidity with which it was effected. There had, indeed, been hints and signs for a year or more that Bismarck was dissatisfied with the tariff system, and sooner or later would begin to tamper with it. Herr von Kardorff in the Diet, and one or two of his servants in the press, kept up a busy agitation against free-trade; but apparently on their own responsibility, and without open encouragement from the Chancellor. His own début in the new character was not made until last Christmas. Before that no general canvass of the country had taken place; the issue had not been submitted to the people, who at the last election had hardly a suspicion of what was coming; and even the *personnel* of the present Diet is not essentially different from that of earlier ones, from which free-trade has for years received such a consistent and resolute support. And yet in six short months the revolution—for it is nothing else—has been accomplished. It would be difficult to find a parallel to such recklessness even in the history of American politics. Compared with it the Bland Bill was a piece of prudent legislation. The "silver question" had at least entered, in a vague way, into the previous campaign; in Germany the protectionist scheme was carefully concealed from the electors. In this country the Government exercised a restraining and salutary check upon the wild purposes of the legislature; in Germany the Government has favored and encouraged the extremists even in the amendment of its own measure. And in the United States the silver triumph was at least mitigated by its inability to produce immediate harm; while the complete overthrow of the historical commercial policy of Germany will unsettle all values, disturb all industries, increase all prices, notably of food, and prepare the way for inevitable social convulsions. But these points of difference—in the end chiefly differences of degree—between the two "reforms" are balanced by points of very striking resemblance, which suggest to the observer certain serious and disagreeable reflections. The enumeration of some of these will at the same time characterize the method of Bismarck's performance.

In the first place, the protective tariff, like the Silver Bill, is a measure of class legislation, and was defended by the basest appeals to class interest and prejudice. The peasant and the artisan were arrayed against the trader; the debtors against the creditors; real estate against funded capital; Christians against Jews; and other insidious and incendiary distinctions were freely employed by the reformers. Prince Bismarck himself did not disdain such tactics; and on one occasion in particular—the debate on the corn duties—he harangued the House in the best style of an American Granger. With a full sense of his responsibility he took up and made his own

all the selfish complaints of the great proprietors. Their taxes were unduly high; foreign grain was ruining them; their lands were covered with mortgages; in short, relief must come if the agricultural industry of the country was to be saved! These mischievous sophisms did their work. The heavy duties which the Government first proposed were afterward doubled by the Diet with the assent of Prince Bismarck, and the consumers will now pay their contribution to the rescue of the squires and landlords of Eastern Prussia.

Another instructive point in the comparison is the fanatical impetuosity of the protectionist majority. Becoming early conscious of their power, they became at the same time utterly deaf to the voice either of reason or of caution, cut debate off impatiently on many occasions, treated the subject as belonging exclusively to themselves, and curtly repulsed almost every suggestion made by members of the minority. In the House of Representatives at Washington the majority can also be tyrannical, but only under certain well-defined conditions. There are various inflexible rules which, under English parliamentary law, must be observed, and which are, on the whole, regarded with a perhaps technical but not unchivalrous respect. In Germany there is nothing of the sort. A bare majority can stifle discussion at any time by a so-called *Schluss-Antrag*, or motion to close debate; and even during debate the Speaker can control affairs almost arbitrarily through his power of recognizing such deputies as he chooses out of those who have announced in writing their desire to speak. Herr von Forckenbeck, so long as he was President of the Diet, was scrupulously impartial in the exercise of his discretion. But Herr von Seydewitz, whose personal intentions are doubtless no less honorable, was nevertheless elected exclusively as a partisan speaker, and, having besides a majority which was determined to avenge itself for years of ignoble impotence, has found himself more than once in the disagreeable necessity of enforcing resolutions contrary to every sentiment of justice. To make use of the observation which the late John Stuart Mill once applied to another question, the more the protectionists became convinced of their inability to meet the free-traders' argument the more certain they became that their cause had a natural and sentimental strength above and beyond all argument. Their parliamentary intolerance was only one consequence of this singular delusion.

The third tendency which this unfortunate affair reveals is in many respects the most deplorable of all. We mean the open contempt which has been displayed for the authority not only of specialists, but of educated and thinking men in general. The "practical men" controlled the situation. This interpretation of the case is not our own, and is not ironical as might be supposed, but is a great favorite of the Government press and the Government speakers, and did splendid service during the debates. Now, by a singular coincidence, the "practical men" were all in favor of the protectionist scheme. One of them, perhaps the most "practical" of all, was Herr Stumm, a great iron manufacturer; and the appearance of this deputy as the leader of the iron men, speaking and voting under the applause of the Government, for the highest possible protective duties in favor of his own wares, was one of the most shameless exhibitions that the floor of a legislative body can afford. The rich country squires at the extreme Right are also "practical men," and they carried the grain duties against the "theorists," the "book-men," the "literary fellers" of the Left. That Germany has always had her Camerons, Murphys, and Joneses is, of course, no secret, but this is probably the first time that they ever won so cynical and complete a victory over the culture and intellect of the country.

One of the protectionist speakers paid the Chancellor an indifferent compliment when he said that instead of starting the movement he simply saw it coming and put himself at the head of it. This was an absurd error. The only movement up to the time of Prince Bismarck's pronunciamiento last December had been a somewhat languid and modest one, supported by the Liberals rather than the Conservatives, in favor of the introduction of imperial taxes, and thereby the creation of an imperial revenue, to take the place of the matriculary contributions of the states. It was intended to be almost exclusively a fiscal reform. It was a centralizing plan, since it was to put the Treasury on an independent footing, whereas now it is compelled, to use Prince Bismarck's phrase, to beg for its funds from state to state. These imperial taxes were practically obliged to be indirect; and it was proposed to take import duties on tea, coffee, tobacco, and so forth, and on the latter an excise rate. With the outlines of such a scheme the Liberals were satisfied. But they insisted that after the abolition of the matriculary contributions, which were voted by the Diet from year to year, while the proposed indirect taxes were to be permanent, some other arrangement ought to be made securing Parliament's control of the purse. This seems a modest demand, but it is proved to have a momentous importance, for parliamentary control of the purse was just what Bismarck wished to abolish; and the first step being to make the revenues independent, he applied himself to that task with characteristic energy, and, in so far as his relations to parties were concerned, with characteristic unscrupulousness. The fact that the National Liberals had been his chief allies for a decade counted for nothing as soon as they ceased blindly to register his decrees. He turned from them to the Clericals and extreme Conservatives as easily as he would exchange one coat for another. But the Clericals, coming from manufacturing districts, are mostly protectionists, and the rural Conservatives were readily made such by the tempting offer of the grain duties, which at first had seemed incredible; and in this way the "movement" was called into life. Duties for revenue and duties for protection were tacked together in such a form that the Liberals who favored the former were compelled to accept the latter, and the Clericals who favored the latter were compelled to accept the former. The only question was, which faction should be taken and which rejected; and this depended on the so-called guaranties. The Liberals demanded security for the privileges of parliament; the Clericals, security for the rights of the states—in other words, for the federal principle. But the federal principle being also dear to the reactionists, they hastened to accept the proposition of the Centre; and the constitutional guaranties of the Liberals being hateful to Bismarck, he consecrated the rival league, and then the work was done. Protection was triumphantly carried by a two-thirds vote. For the first time since 1866 the National Liberals found themselves in the minority and isolated from the Government, and from this position they are not likely soon to escape.

THREE DEATHS.

LONDON, July 22.

ENGLISH society has been disturbed just now by some painful and touching incidents. First, I must note the death and solemn burial in Westminster Abbey of Lord Lawrence. As you know, he was the last of Indian statesmen who crowned a purely Indian career by filling the highest post in the government of that great dependency. Practically, he saved India during the Mutiny, and his administration of it as viceroy was directed towards the consolidation of its resources, and the limitation of those projects of territorial extension which found favor with some governors before and after him, whose knowledge of India was picked up during their term of office. Mr. Bright in one of his late speeches describes his coming across a newly-nominated governor-general in a railway carriage, and finding him armed with a series of volumes. "I will wager," said Mr. Bright, "that that is Mill's 'History of British India.'" So it turned out to be. That is the basis of knowledge which most governor-generals endeavor to lay before setting out, and on it the advisers into whose hands they fall endeavor to build a superstructure of aggressive and ambitious plans. The late Lord Lawrence's varied experience of nearly every department of Indian administration qualified him to be his own adviser, and to control the large projects of military men and political residents ambitious of action and distinction. The phrase of "masterly inactivity," which was applied to his system, marks its essential character. During the last year of his life his strenuous opposition to the Indian policy of Lord Lytton, and especially his acceptance of the chairmanship of the Afghan Committee,

made him the centre of heated and angry controversy. How heated and angry that controversy was, and into what regions it penetrated, one fact sufficiently discloses. It is well known to all readers of the newspapers that one of the special functions which the Queen has assumed to herself since her widowhood has been that of consoler-general to all persons of a certain degree of political or personal distinction, men or women, similarly afflicted. Her Majesty never fails to administer a telegram of condolence or sympathy to a bereaved husband or wife in the official or high social classes. Until within a few days no message of this kind had been sent to the widow of the great Indian statesman who for a term ruled India in her name, and to whom more than any one else the fact is due that the Indian Empire was not lost to the Queen in the Mutiny.

The political partisanship which has penetrated into the Court, and the personal likings and dislikings which have been indulged and freely displayed, have passed the limits of that wise restraint observed during the earlier years of her Majesty's reign. Some of the Queen's most illustrious ministers have experienced it; but hitherto the resentment and animosity have not passed the bounds of the grave. The contrast which has distinguished the later years of the Queen's reign—the last half-dozen years of it, in fact—from the seven-and-thirty years which preceded, is often exaggerated in popular talk, but it is real. The explanation of it is easy. The theoretic doctrine of the position of the Queen in the Government which the Prince Consort derived from his German training, and which were embodied in the maxims and counsels of Baron Stockmar, are in close harmony with those views of personal rule which form the political philosophy of Lord Beaconsfield. For the first time in her reign the Queen has a Prime Minister whose disposition is to encourage instead of checking the ideas of monarchical authority which are natural to every crowned head—and this not entirely from servility or as a matter of personal management, but from real sympathy. The practical good sense of the Prince Consort, which restrained his action through the Queen far within the limits of his theory, has not transmitted itself to any adviser equally near the throne. During the greater part of her reign the Queen was surrounded by statesmen older than herself, on whose wisdom and experience she relied. Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington, Lord Melbourne and Lord Russell, Lord Lansdowne, Lord Aberdeen, and the late Lord Derby had the authority of age and of services to give weight to their counsels and remonstrances. Even they, however, could scarcely say, "*Ego et regina mea.*" They had to reckon with the distinct personal views and wishes of the Queen and to make large concessions to them, as the 'Memoirs of the Prince Consort,' perhaps prematurely, shows. Now, however, the Queen is surrounded by men who are younger in years or in political life than herself, and who by policy or temperament, or through conscious inexperience, rather follow than lead. During the whole of the Queen's reign, as during that of her predecessors, the personal power of the sovereign has been a larger element in constitutional monarchy than the majority of her people have supposed. It is only, however, within the last few years that the working of the machine has been deliberately laid bare to the public view, the wheels within wheels disclosed, and the principle of the mechanism acknowledged. It may be doubted whether this candor is expedient. With the return of the Liberal party to power, whenever that may take place, and certainly with a new reign, the adoption of the constitutional system as it was believed to be is morally inevitable. The fact that English monarchy was less limited than it was fancied will probably lead to further limitation.

The merely formal representation of the Queen and the Prince of Wales at Lord Lawrence's funeral is in striking contrast with the presence of both, and of other members of the royal family, at the funeral of the late Prince Louis Napoleon, at Chiselhurst. Personal feelings no doubt prompted the display. The unhappy circumstances of the poor boy's death, the relations of intimacy which he had sustained with our own princes, the natural compassion of a reigning for an exiled sovereign, and of an actual for a dispossessed heir-apparent, go for a good deal in matters of this kind. It must be remembered, too, that no official civilities have been wanting towards the French Republic. There was proper recognition of M. Grévy during the Queen's passage this year through Paris. The Prince of Wales breakfasted with M. Gambetta during the Exhibition of 1878, and is said to have left upon the present President of the Chamber the impression that he would make a very good sort of a king for England. Still, there can be no doubt that political did mingle with personal feeling in the display at Chiselhurst. In the struggle which followed the 24th of May the sympathy of courtiers and of the Court was notoriously with Marshal MacMahon and the Duc de Broglie. A Bonapartist or Orleanist restoration was held to be the best thing for France. The contrast between constitutional monarchy, as in England, and a Napoleonic empire is one which flatters our sense of superior capacity for parliamentary rule. The spectacle of a peaceful republic, industrious and orderly, at our very doors, excites a certain disquietude in courtly circles which is not of course openly avowed, which is scarcely self-acknowledged, but which is not the less real. It had a good deal to do with the exaggerated manifestations which followed on the news of Prince Louis Napoleon's death, and the reception of his body in England. It prompts the injudicious suggestion which has been made, and to which Dean Stanley has given a hasty assent, to the erection of a memorial to the Prince in Westminster Abbey. This proposal, however, seems to have outrun the public sentiment; numerous protests have been made and are being made against it, and there is some likelihood that it will not be persisted in. The Dean of Westminster is an excellent man, who, if he is somewhat spoiled by being a courtier, yet is a redeeming influence in the Court. If some virtue goes out of him, it goes into it. The suggestion with which he has complied came from the Prince of Wales, and had the sympathy of the Queen, and this was enough to make it welcome to him. But this was not all. The Dean takes a peculiar view of the Abbey of which he is the guardian. He regards it as a sort of historic museum, of which he is the curator, and for the time being the possessor. He is as eager to add to his collection as a coleopterist or a numismatist is to acquire a rare beetle or a scarce coin. The Dean is a great body-snatcher. Scarcely a man of high eminence dies whose remains Dr. Stanley does not strive to acquire for the Abbey; and if they are not to be had, a monument or bust to supply the place. The Dean has all the eagerness of an enthusiastic collector, and, as is the habit of collectors, he is sometimes more impressed with the rarity than the worth of the object. The undesirability of offending the sensibilities of the French Republic, and the inconvenience of opening a sort of Bonapartist chapel in Westminster Abbey, will probably lead to a reconsideration of the project and its abandonment. It is undesirable that we should have annual pilgrimages, headed by M. Paul de Cassagnac, to England.

The death of the lady whose pleasure it was to be known, from the title of the second of her four husbands, as Frances Countess Waldegrave, removes a conspicuous figure from English society. The daughter of John Braham, the vocalist, whose real name was Abraham, her life was a succession of social conquests. It illustrates strikingly the doctrine of the closing essay in George Eliot's last volume. Theophrastus Such might have appealed to her career and position as a proof of the intellectual power of the Jews, and their capacity of becoming masters in the communities in which but lately they were despised and proscribed outlaws. In politics, in finance, in journalism, in society, the Jews are playing the principal parts. A Jew is Prime Minister; a Jewish house controls in a great degree the political finance of the country; a family of Jews are the proprietors and managers of the most largely circulated and, for its own purposes, the most skilfully conducted newspaper in England, or perhaps in the world; a Jewish girl, the daughter of a public ballad-singer, became a sort of mistress of society, rebuffing or admitting to her favor some of the haughtiest and most squeamish members of our old nobility. Lady Waldegrave's receptions in Carlton House gardens and her hospitalities at Strawberry Hill have often been described. The marriage of a niece of Horace Walpole's with the Lord Waldegrave who was "governor" of George III. when Prince of Wales, and afterwards Prime Minister of George II., brought the celebrated Twickenham house into the family of the late Lady Waldegrave's first and second husbands. With all their property left away from their own family, to whom nothing has descended but a poverty-stricken earldom, it became hers in full possession. The report is that by her will it will return to the family after the death of her present husband, Lord Carlingford, who, as Mr. Chichester Fortescue, was a member of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, and had a large share in the preparation and carrying out of the great Irish measures of that Government. Bold and adventurous, generous, frank, and kindly, a mistress of the arts of management, Lady Waldegrave's career, if ever it be fully recorded, will be as strange and as piquant a story as the political romance of Lord Beaconsfield's life. Though belonging to opposite sides in politics, their sympathy was strong, and Lord Beaconsfield was a frequent guest at Strawberry Hill. Indeed, the way in which the Jews hold together and play into each other's hands while playing on society is remarkable. Minister, financier, and journalist understand each other and work together.

† † †

Correspondence.

COST OF THE MASSACHUSETTS RAILROAD COMMISSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comments on the tenth annual report of the Massachusetts Railroad Commission, in the "Notes" of your issue of the 24th inst., you say "the expense of this excellent work for a whole year was less than $2,500." You here fall into the very natural error of mistaking the statement of the purely office expenses of the Board, as printed on page 435 of the report, for its entire cost. If put forth with the authority of the *Nation*, this might convey a wholly erroneous impression to legislators in other States preparing to organize similar commissions.

Massachusetts has always been what would be considered liberal, judged by prevailing standards, in the provision made for its Railroad Commission. Perhaps the fact that the cost of the Board was met by the assessment of a special tax on the railroad corporations has had something to do with this liberality; but, in any event, the liberality has had a good deal to do with the somewhat conspicuous success of the Commission. Indeed, the salary attached to the chairmanship of that Board ($4,000) was almost the only salary in the State within the reach of the last Legislature which underwent no reduction at its hands. During the ten years since its organization the average annual cost of the Commission has been a little over $16,000 a year. Last year its cost was a little less than $20,000, instead of $2,500, as stated by you. G.

Boston, July 29, 1879.

THE LETELLIER CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial on "The Letellier Case" you say: "There can be no doubt of the wisdom of the Beaconsfield Government's refusal to interfere; anything other would have irritated Canada as, in the opinion of less radical judges than Mr. Goldwin Smith, it would have been foolish to irritate her."

I cannot understand why my name should be thus introduced. I have expressed no opinion in favor of interference with colonial self-government, in the Letellier case or in any case; quite the reverse.

The main feature of the case, in its recent aspect, and that which determined my opinion and the opinion of many others, Conservatives as well as Liberals, is not noticed in your editorial. The charge against Lieut.-Governor Letellier was stale and had been dealt with in a former Parliament. I have no doubt that he did very wrong in turning out his Conservative Ministry, and at the time I was in favor of his removal. But he was then sustained both by the Dominion House of Commons, which voted down the resolution censuring him, and by the people of his Province; and it seemed an equivocal proceeding, and a sinister use of a party victory, to revive the matter in the new Parliament and put the accused person on his trial a second time. This view can hardly be described as "radical"; at least, it did not commend itself to either of the extreme parties.

The Conservative Premier, Sir John Macdonald, was so far from making the case "a leading question," that he evidently wished to let it alone, and himself refrained from moving the resolution of censure in the new Parliament, though he could not control the impetuosity of some of his French supporters.

You say that "the Letellier case, even more than the question of protection, influenced the last general election in Canada." But at the last general election the question was hardly before the country. It was generally deemed to have been settled in the late Parliament, and few of us expected that it would be revived. I will venture to say that it did not turn a vote in any province but Quebec. Even in Quebec, the people who had sustained Lieutenant-Governor Letellier, a member of the Free-Trade party, at the local election and on the provincial question, gave a large majority in favor of the Protectionist leader at the general election.

The last general election turned on the tariff. If there was anything else that materially contributed to the Conservative victory, it was the personal ascendency of the leader, Sir John Macdonald, whose delinquencies had been forgotten and whose popularity had revived.

Yours faithfully, Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, August 2.

WHAT THE SILVER DOLLAR IS WORTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Almost every American one meets asserts that the silver dollar, which he calls the standard, coined in 1878, is *worth* as much as the greenback. It is not so here, but the American invariably replies that it is so in New York. He says that the United States Treasury will redeem all the silver standard dollars presented to it in gold, and therefore it is bound to be worth as much as the greenback. I see you weekly give the value of the silver dollar, which is generally over 87 cents. Is this what the silver dollar is *worth?* and what is the *worth* of the greenback? Americans contend that as much can be bought for a silver dollar as for a greenback. Does this establish the worth of *the silver dollar?* Americans say that it does; I venture to say that it does not, and I assert that even did the Treasury redeem in gold what of standard dollars might be presented, that would not establish the worth of the dollar. Which is right? A word of explanation will be esteemed a favor, not alone by D. B.

Toronto, Ont., July 19, 1879.

[The above is answered by the following statement: What is called the standard silver dollar contains 412½ grains of silver, 900 fine. The legal-tender value of this dollar is 100 cents; the bullion value is whatever 412½ grains of silver bullion is worth, which as we write is $0.8623; the market value, or the value at which the coins can be sold in quantities, is now about 99¼. As yet there are not enough of these standard silver dollars outside of the Treasury to force their circulation at their bullion value; so soon as there are enough out, then these coins will pass only at their bullion value, and the difference between that and the bullion value of the gold dollar, which is 100 cents, will be répresented either by a premium on gold—as during suspension, when the only other legal tender consisted of United States notes—or a discount on silver. The legal-tender notes are promises to pay coin dollars, either gold or silver; and as they can be discharged by paying silver dollars they will always rule at the market value of the silver dollars; as before said, this market value is now nearly the same as the legal-tender value, for the reason that there are not enough of these dollars in circulation to bring their market value down to their bullion value. Silver dollars are not redeemable with gold dollars. Outside of the domain of the United States all coins of the United States are taken at their bullion value, being bought in quantities by the ounce; accordingly, 412½-grain silver dollars are taken at say 87 cents, and gold dollars at 100 cents. As gold dollars can yet be obtained for legal-tender notes, and as the market value of the silver dollar is about 100 cents, the notes rule at par with gold, less the cost of collecting the coin on them. We publish from time to time the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar to inform our readers what these dollars and all coin obligations not specifically payable in gold would rule at if there were a sufficient supply of these dollars in circulation to force them to circulate as the gold dollars now do, at their bullion value. It is only a question of time, provided existing legislation is unrepealed, when the silver dollars will rule at their bullion value, and when the par of all coin obligations not payable in gold will be the gold value of 412½ grains of silver bullion 900 fine.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in preparation 'Memoirs of Henry Armitt Brown,' together with four historical orations, edited by Prof. J. M. Hoppin, of Yale College. The edition will be limited to the number of subscribers at $2.50 per copy.——Nos. 4–6 (vol. xi.) of the Bulletin of the Essex Institute contains valuable "Notes on the Native and extensively introduced Woody Plants of Essex County, Mass.," by Mr. John Robinson. They form in effect a manual of reference to the specimens in the Botanical Department of the Peabody Academy of Science, of which a heliotype view showing the arrangement adorns the Bulletin.——Mr. Warren Upham begins in the *American Naturalist* for August a series of papers on the "Formation of Cape Cod," which will interest all the coast dwellers from Provincetown to Perth Amboy. In the

same number Mr. Albert S. Gatschet records his investigation concerning adjectives of color in Indian languages on this continent. It has a decided scientific importance.——Judge Elisha R. Potter's "Memoir concerning the French Settlements and French Settlers in the Colony of Rhode Island," No. 5 of Mr. Rider's R. I. Historical Tracts, relates primarily to the Huguenot colony on the site of the present East Greenwich, but has for a scarcely subordinate object the unmasking of the Puritans. The author's manner does not always suggest impartiality, nor indeed is the whole case presented; but the residuum of ugly facts is considerable. The French genealogical notices are a useful contribution to the meagre Rhode Island stock of family histories.——The July Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of local histories with genealogical matter; Part V. of the History of Mental Philosophy; and a bibliography of the Renaissance in France and Italy. There is also a list of American newspapers of the last century possessed by the Library, with indications of their incompleteness. The number is considerable (35). The Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Library is chiefly concerned with the growing inadequacy of accommodations, and with the practicability of co-operating with the teachers of the public schools in an attempt to direct the reading of the pupils. No recent Yankee notion is better worth trying.——The August number of the *Magazine of American History* is in a sort a continuation of the February number, being given up almost entirely to Washingtoniana. Mr. Parton has a characteristic paper on "The Traditional and Real Washington"; an account of Washington's headquarters at Preakness, N. J., accompanies a view of the house; and several letters of Washington's are printed, nineteen for the first time.——We have received from the Old Colony Historical Society, Taunton, Mass., its first collective publication, consisting of the papers read at its meetings during the year 1878. The Society is twenty-five years old, and contemplates publishing its earlier collections as soon as it is able. A sketch of its history introduces the present volume.——The Buffalo Historical Society also began its publications with the present year, the third number having appeared in March. In No. 1 the origin of the name of the city is discussed.——Part 21 of Sprüner's 'Historical Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) contains maps of Europe in the middle of the fourteenth century; Italy from 1137 to 1302; the Slavic kingdom of Poland, etc., 1386–1480; and Hungary from the beginning of the thirteenth century to the battle of Mohács. There are, as usual, numerous side maps.——In the *Rassegna Settimanale* for July 13 we find a letter from V. Cesati introducing one from the poet Longfellow in reply to the enquiry why the latter had entitled his poem "Excelsior" and not "Excelsius." His explanation is "that the device on the banner is not to be interpreted 'ascende superius,' but 'scopus meus excelsior est.'" This letter bears date of Feb. 5, 1874.

—Capt. George E. Belknap, U.S.N., in a second article on deep-sea soundings, published in the *United Service* for July, has brought out some of the results of the *Tuscarora's* work in the Pacific Ocean which should not be overlooked while the brilliant record of the *Challenger* is engaging attention. The *Tuscarora* was equipped for the work of deep-sea sounding under Captain Belknap, at Mare Island, in the bay of San Francisco, during the summer of 1873, and, after some preliminary reconnoisances, sailed from Cape Flattery September 17, and began sounding on a line which was to extend to Yokohama, by the way of the Aleutian Islands. After a run of eleven hundred miles the ship came back to Puget's Sound, the deepest of the twenty-five casts which were made being in 2,534 fathoms. While returning to San Francisco eighty-three soundings were made "off-and-on," to ascertain the true continental outline. The submerged Pacific coast was found to be very abrupt in its descent, and a run of seventy miles would sometimes disclose a fall of two and a quarter miles (2,000 fathoms). Later in the year a continuance of soundings south to San Diego, Cal., revealed the same outline. Should the waters retreat, says Belknap, the continent would appear "buttressed and bastioned like an immense fortress." The *Tuscarora* sailed again, January 6, 1874, to run a line across the Central North Pacific, *viâ* the Hawaiian and Bonin groups. Between San Diego and Honolulu sixty-two casts were made, ranging from 71 to 3,054 fathoms. From these soundings Belknap estimated the mean depth of this part of the Pacific at 2,562 fathoms, confirming the Coast Survey estimates based upon the rate of tidal movements. Passing westward to the Bonin islands, it was found that the contour of the ocean-bed loses its regular character; and were the waters of the Pacific drained off, six ranges of mountains, from 7,000 to 12,600 feet in height, would appear between the two island groups, "clothed on their sides and top with coral limestone, sand, and lava, and solid rock, with yellowish brown soil in their valleys." The deepest water found was 3,287 fathoms, and near the Bonin group. Fifty-nine casts were made, eighteen of them in over 3,000 fathoms. Proceeding to Yokohama, the *Tuscarora* made twelve casts, the deepest in 2,435 fathoms.

—On the return voyage the northern line of soundings, *viâ* the Aleutian chain, was completed. In the Kuro Siwo, or black stream of Japan, the current was so strong that soundings were abandoned. In latitude 40° N. they were renewed, and with remarkable results. Running towards Tanaga, of the Aleutian group, seven casts were made in over 4,000 fathoms, *the deepest in 4,655 fathoms.* Good specimens were brought up from four of these casts; in one the cylinder struck rock; in the two last and deepest casts the wire broke—one from a momentary carelessness at the reel; and the other, after 400 fathoms had been reeled in, "pulled in two from the strain at that great depth, five and a quarter miles." "So far," says Belknap, "these are the deepest soundings ever made." The conditions were all favorable—light wind, smooth sea, and gentle swell; the wire had run straight down like a sound in a pond or a plummet in a well, and the indications of the dynamometer were perfect and unmistakable. There could be no mistaking the instant of touch." Captain Belknap complains, and it seems to us with justice, that Mr. Wild of the *Challenger's* civil staff has thrown discredit on his deepest sounding, and has asserted that the greatest of all depths of which we have reliable evidence was found by the *Challenger* between the Caroline and Ladrone Islands, 4,575 fathoms. Belknap's soundings were made by the new and beautiful piano-wire method, suggested by Sir William Thomson, with the Brooke rod and sinker, the whole apparatus receiving on the *Tuscarora* its final form of extraordinary perfection. Simple as it was, it needed to be managed with great care; and this care was constantly given by officers and men. Particular credit is given to Lieut. G. A. Norris and Quartermaster Burns. Belknap contends that if Wild had been familiar with the Thomson machine and its workings he would not have discredited the *Tuscarora's* work, in which four tests proved the accuracy of the soundings—the action of the dynamometer, the stopping of the revolutions of the drum, the detachment of the sinker, and the bringing up of the bottom soil. The *Tuscarora* returned to San Francisco September 2, the anniversary of her departure from Cape Flattery. She had traversed 16,600 miles, and made 483 casts; the *Challenger's* casts in four years were 384. Of the soundings made by the *Tuscarora* thirty-two were in more than 3,000 fathoms; nine in depths ranging from 4,000 to 4,655 fathoms. Belknap's article contains some interesting references to the work of the Coast Survey steamer *Blake*, under Commander Sigsbee, and to other recent deep-sea operations.

—In some respects the ablest of recent contributions to the Ritualist controversy in England is a paper in the *British Quarterly Review* for July on "The Evangelical Movement: Its Parentage, Progress, and Issue," by Mr. Gladstone. It is very temperately, almost tentatively, written, but for that reason it is perhaps more persuasive; and it is particularly effective because what we take to be its motive and its real pith is a defence of the Tractarian movement and its succession, the so-called Ritualism of the present day, and because this is conducted indirectly and under the guise of an examination of the Evangelical movement. In this Mr. Gladstone displays the wisdom of the serpent, and to our mind his subtle attack upon the Evangelical position towards Ritualism is much stronger than Dr. Littledale's open field-tactics in his late discussion with the Abbé Martin. To be sure, Dr. Littledale's task was the more difficult, it may be said; he was endeavoring to show good reasons "Why Ritualists do not become Roman Catholics." But the Evangelical accusation against Ritualism consists solely of asking this same question, and it is, after all, the essence of the controversy, whether it is conducted with Romanists or with Low-Churchmen or with the Puritan Nonconformists. Mr. Gladstone argues that the relation of the Evangelical movement to the Tractarian movement was one of parentage, which will shock even Dean Stanley, peradventure, but in refutation of which it is hard to see what the Low-Churchmen can find in the historical argument, if they appeal to the historical argument to show the Tractarian tendency towards Rome. And this they always do, since it is the chief weapon they have. Mr. Gladstone points out that if one was a case of *post hoc ergo propter hoc*, the other was, and he says it will not do to answer this by the just but irrelevant observation, "Tractarianism was a movement obviously in the direction of the Church of Rome; Evangelicalism was a movement not obviously in the direction of Tractarianism." Of all the Tractarian leaders who followed Dr. Newman, "it must be said that, as they proceeded from Oxford (so to speak) to Rome, so they had already marched from Clapham to Oxford." This he supports not only by various

distinguished examples, but by showing the spiritual nexus, and his *tu-quoque* retort seems complete. On the whole, however, he concludes that "the great preparatory agent in co-operation with the Roman Church is the war now so actively waged against belief." His article is likely to provoke discussion, especially as it appears in the *British Quarterly*, which has not entirely outlived the reproach of "existing as an organ for the political Dissenters" long ago brought against it.

—At all events, if it does not the reason may perhaps be found in the want of luminousness and pointedness in Mr. Gladstone's manner, which often affords a curious literary study in itself. He is always copious to extravagance, but here, for the very reason doubtless that he felt himself bound to write dispassionately, he loses the measure of directness and simplicity which, in writing of Bulgaria or in speaking of Lord Beaconsfield, his unchecked personal ardor attains for him. He seems to occupy very much the same position that he held when Macaulay controverted his youthful argument upon the Apostolic Succession, and, as we say, the pith of his article on "The Evangelical Movement," etc., seems to be a subtle defence of Ritualism. At the same time he cannot be accused of lacking the Evangelical spirit. In a dozen places in his paper he refers to the crying faults of the Establishment, past and present, he does full honor to the Evangelical return to the "preaching of Christ," and his passing tributes to Wesley and Whitefield are as evidently genuine as his mention of Hook and Keble. His sketch of the Evangelical movement's rise and progress is elaborate; he nowhere explicitly excuses what are termed "Ritualist vagaries," and, indeed, it may be said that what he urges in their defence is urged indirectly and in palliation. Furthermore, on every other page there is a paragraph of digression upon some strictly extraneous matter which compels him to observe constantly that it is foreign to his "present purpose"; so that what his "present purpose" even is, it is difficult to discover with thorough satisfaction. His essay has the air of beginning anywhere and tending any whither. There is a manifest introduction, but where it terminates there is no ready means of ascertaining. There seems in all the fourteen pages no proposition distinctly advanced—no distinct "statement in words about a thing." It presupposes great technical erudition, and of its style the following sentence is not an unfair illustration: "A far larger and deeper problem is, of course, presented to us when we enquire, in connection with these differences, what front the Christianity of the country, and especially the great Anglican community, is to present to the disintegrating movement, which, however premature in its songs of triumph over Christianity, has undoubtedly made a progress which some years ago would have seemed incredible, in the business of sapping the foundations of belief in individual minds." Demosthenes was fond of long sentences, but his differed from Mr. Gladstone's in having, as a distinguished Greek professor once observed, "a snapper on the end."

—M. Renan has written an explanation of that part of his Academy address which offended Germany, in the form of a "Lettre à un Ami d'Allemagne." This supposititious friend having informed him that what he had said had been regarded in Germany as the utterance of an enemy, he writes in reply that such a judgment is superficial, and proceeds in a pamphlet of a dozen pages to elaborate rather than extenuate his criticism. He explains, however, "J'ai pu aller à l'encontre de certaines opinions des militaires et des hommes d'état de Berlin; je n'ai pas dit un mot contre l'Allemagne et son génie." M. Renan does not, to speak familiarly, carry very heavy guns for use in conflicts other than those which belong to his particular province. Even in that he does not command the respect of wholly unimaginative rivals; one recalls the remark of the late M. Doudan: "I know of no theologian with so intimate a knowledge of Oriental flora." But, aside from the charm which his writings have—his books almost read themselves—what he says is always interesting because he always moves in the sphere of ideas, because he is always concerned with truths rather than with facts, and with truths of a spiritual order. The manifestations of the human spirit occupy him to the exclusion of systems and theories on the one hand and practice on the other. In this essay, with all his accustomed elegance and more than his accustomed precision, he examines what may be called the Berlin ideal—unless Prince Bismarck objects to the word "ideal" as in itself involving sentimentalism—and the flaws he finds in it are worth attention, notably at the present time. It disdains everything that is not force, he says, and its heroes are "hommes de fer"; and he draws a vivid contrast between the Germany of to-day and the Germany of fifty or sixty years ago—the Germany of Goethe. To that Germany, "noble, intelligent, and profound," France, in M. Renan's view, owed much. It learned idealism of Fichte, faith in humanity of Herder, the poetry of the moral sense of Schiller, abstract duty of Kant. It imagined—"voyez notre naïveté"—that the German nation would become united after the principles laid down by Fichte or Kant, and then would appear in the great European confederation a people philosophical, rational, a friend of every kind of liberty, the enemy of the old superstitions, and having for its symbol justice and the ideal. Instead of this, profound discontent reigns in united Germany; whereas ordinarily after victory repression is needless, the Government is constantly occupied with measures restricting liberty; it has made of the people a nation organized for war, and, like the knights of the sixteenth century, hampered by its armor; socialist agitation, at once a malady and a symptom, is rife; in constitutional government no progress has been made; its parliamentary life is no more brilliant, free, or fertile than that of other peoples; statesmen are rigorously preoccupied with restrictions, repressions, and coercive measures; there is no succession to Goethe and Schiller and Heine; the military service is designed to foster *Junkerism* to the destruction of the finest flower of literary genius, and the social condition tends to the same result; the campaign against Ultramontanism has not advanced the question of the separation of church and state a step; finally, the idea of ruling humanity by love of humanity, by lofty, liberal, and sympathetic sentiments, is laughed at and treated as a sentimental and pretentious notion by her new masters, men of a cold and arid school, who tend to destroy rather than to develop Germany. Such, at least, is the substance of M. Renan's indictment.

—On the other hand, his essay is worth reading for its exposition of M. Renan's own ideal, from which Anglo-Saxons may pardonably conclude that there is a *juste milieu* somewhere, not thought of by M. Renan. What is supposed to be the typical French ideal is easy to parody, and a good deal of not too discriminating ridicule has been poured upon that part of M. Renan's reception address which demanded "captains with sonorous battle-cries." Such ridicule is cheap, it may be said, but it would hardly be so common, perhaps, if it had not an element of justice in it. Our notion of what the French mean by "*gloire*" is not utterly removed from the contempt which the cockney felt for a nation that called bread "*pain*." "Well," said his friend, "we call it bread; what's the difference?" "Oh! but you know it *is* bread," was his reply. Still, it is very far from necessary to misunderstand M. Renan in order to recognize the inadequacy of his ideal, its moral weakness and its lack of seriousness. These things go without saying, he would no doubt rejoin, but that is very much the view that men who are religious only on Sundays maintain towards religion. "La grandeur oblige," "L'homme qui a obéi est à jamais perdu pour certaines délicatesses de la vie," "La littérature suppose une société gaie, brillante, facile, disposée à rire d'elle-même," "Nous ne comprenons pas qu'on règne sur le monde sans grandeur, sans éclat"—a dozen such sentences carry an implication which Prince Bismarck is quite right in disregarding, if not in disdaining. They undoubtedly contain a measure of truth which Teutonic races are not likely to overvalue, but one wonders in reading them if M. Renan would thoroughly appreciate a distinction very forcibly made once by Mr. Carlyle: "'These poor, persecuted Scotch Covenanters' said I to my enquiring Frenchman, in such stinted French as stood at command, 'ils s'en appelaient'—'A la postérité,' interrupted he, helping me out. 'Ah! monsieur, non, mille fois non! They appealed to the Eternal God, not to posterity at all. C'était différent!"

—The 'Key to Domesday, showing the Method and Exactitude of its Mensuration,' exemplified from the Dorset survey by the Cheshire historian, the Rev. R. W. Eyton, is a full source of painstaking and erudite information upon a puzzle-ground for scholars from the eleventh century itself. Has anybody satisfactorily defined a Domesday hide, which one of our latest archæologists with good reason maintains is "variable according to the arability or pasturability of the land"? The *Athenæum* is so well satisfied with Mr. Eyton's book as to wish that it were in his mind "to do for Domesday Book, taken as a whole, what he has done so thoroughly and so conscientiously for one only of the counties surveyed." Mr. Eyton is clear that the *pertica* or *virga* contains 16½ feet, and sets the *quarentena* at 40, and the *leuua*, *leuca*, or *leuga* at 7,920 feet. The lineal *acra*, quite distinct from the square acre, is fixed at 4 *perticæ*, while the square or areal acre equals 160 *perticæ* of 30¼ square yards each. Ten areal acres are put to one square *quarentena*, twelve of these latter making the areal league.

—It is a curious fact that Diez's 'Poesie der Troubadours' (Zwickau, 1826) and 'Leben und Werke der Troubadours' (1829) still constitute the best history of Provençal poetry. The *Nation* has called attention from time to time to the shortcomings of Diez's successors. The books, how-

ever, of Rutherford, Miss Preston, and Hueffer laid claim to a popular character only, and were entitled to some indulgence on this account. The latest work on this subject is so pretentious, and at the same time so much worse in many respects than those above mentioned, that it deserves the severest treatment. We allude to the 'Historia Política y Literaria de los Trovadores,' by Don Víctor Balaguer (Madrid, 1878–79). The first two volumes contain seven preliminary discourses, and the biographies of sixty-four troubadours. As Bartsch in his 'Grundriss' names four hundred and sixty, it will be seen that Señor Balaguer's work will probably extend to six or seven volumes. The plan of the work is precisely that of Millot's 'Histoire Littéraire des Troubadours' (Paris, 1802), which, it is within bounds to say, Balaguer has lifted bodily. So barefaced a piece of literary borrowing we have never seen. Page after page of biographical notices are transferred literally, while constant use is made of Millot's prose translations from the Provençal, which are copied down to italics, omissions, and punctuation—and all this without a word of acknowledgment. The character of the author's own studies may be seen from his statement in his *Prólogo* that he had collected materials for his work from the various libraries of France for two years before he knew of the existence of Raynouard's 'Choix des Poésies des Troubadours.' An utter lack of scientific method characterizes the whole work. In the entire six hundred and sixty pages there are *four* citations of works by volume and page. Of all the Provençal texts used not one is referred to its source, although most of them are taken from Raynouard, whose erroneous theory of the origin of the Romance languages Balaguer seems to share. He also accepts too readily Nostradamus's fabulous stories, among them that of William of Cabestaing, now thoroughly exploded. The preliminary discourses are superficial, especially those on the various classes of poetry and on the courts of love, the very existence of which Diez disproved fifty years ago. We trust Provençal scholars will not be led by its attractive appearance and pretentious character to purchase this worthless abstract of Millot.

JOHNSON'S RELIGION OF CHINA.*

THIS work, comprising 1,000 pages less one, is a marvel of labor and research. It is a further instalment in the execution of a great purpose undertaken by its author—viz., the investigation of the character of the Oriental religions and their relation to *that* religion which contains universal elements, or is governed by universal laws, such as historical continuity, reaction, ideal demand and supply. Such a universal religion, though it exists not in a concrete form, may be justly idealized and reasoned upon. It is, in other words, the religion of humanity. The design of the author, then, would be to detect these elements or laws in the religions he surveys, and so bring them within the common *nexus* that, so far, binds together the human race, and, we may add, proves its common origin and eventual destiny. The vast labor required for such enquiry, and the penetration necessary for carrying it out with any hope of success, must be evident to all. The religions of the East, except Christianity, are still, as far as our knowledge of them goes, wrapt in obscurity. As concerns India, its sacred books have yet to oe translated. What we know of the Vedas leaves us almost as ignorant of the genius of the Indian mind as we were before. They are grand in their simplicity, but uninstructive in the solution of the great questions which, if they did not grow out of them, followed after them, and perplexed the minds of thousands of subtle thinkers. We have only a fragmentary knowledge of the Upanishads, and the whole of the Indian theology is founded on these. With respect to the Vedânta, although we have excellent summaries of its doctrine, yet, until the formidable list of Upanishads named by Colebrooke at the beginning of section ix. of his work on the 'Philosophy of the Hindus' be translated, we cannot be said to have a thorough knowledge of its origin and development. Mr. Banerjea, indeed, seems to think that the Vedânta owes very much of its dogma, if not its origin, to the speculations of Buddhist controversialists ; and in this many others agree with him. But if the religions of India are yet only half known to us, what shall we say about China ? What do we know of the religious life of the three hundred and fifty million human beings who inhabit that mountain-girt empire ? Next to nothing. We have their books, some of them well translated ; but what do we know of their lives? And if we do not know the character of a nation's inner life, we cannot pretend to be acquainted with its religion; for book-religion is one thing, and the belief and life of a people, very often, another.

The only way to review such a work as that before us is to say something as to its object and method, and then to select some one point in the field of its research for illustration. We have said something about the object of the book. It is professedly intended to be a search after elements in the Chinese religious character the possession of which proves them, in this particular at least, to belong to the great religious federation of the world. We confess the object appears to us an illusory one. We may think we have found out some touches in the picture that harmonize with our conceptions of what must be universal, but unfortunately the field is so vast, and our actual knowledge of its true character so contracted, that what we take to belong to the whole may indeed be only exceptional, and therefore deceptive in its character in the search after the object named. And as we confess this to be our view of the case, we must add that, notwithstanding all the learning and the wonderful amount of detail contained in the book before us, we have closed it with something like disappointment, because we do not find ourselves satisfied that the object has been attained ; nor do we feel that we have any very distinct apprehension of what it is in the religions of China, so far as they *are Chinese*, which brings the people of that country into the federation we have named. In fact, the very startling question has to be answered first, Has China any religion at all ?—that is, any religion *of its own*. If we take the word religion to mean the act of remembering (the opposite, in fact, of *negligere*), then undoubtedly the Chinese are the most religious people in the world, for their whole life is built up on this basis of remembering the teaching of their ancestors, particularly Yaou and Shun. And, in fact, perhaps this is *the* element which connects them religiously with the rest of the world. But it is evident that "to remember" is only one factor in the definition of the word religion ; *what* we remember, and with *what view* we bring ourselves to remember, these are further elements in the question ; and if it be necessary, in order to entitle a people to be called religious, that they remember something more than their social duties, with a view to something beyond the present life, then we can hardly find out from their books, at least, that the Chinese as a distinct people have any religious life of their own.

But if the object of Mr. Johnson's work appears to us more or less an impossible one to reach, the method of the work both for its originality and wonderful completeness demands the highest commendation. What may be known of the Chinese can certainly be found out from the methodical arrangement of the materials in the work before us. The method is, first of all, to select certain leading divisions under which the enquiry may be exhaustively conducted—(these divisions are five in number, named as follows : (1) Elements, (2) Structures, (3) Sages, (4) Beliefs, (5) Philosophy)—and then in the several divisions to search out fundamental ideas, which in some way or other tend to illustrate the subject of enquiry. It need hardly be remarked that to follow the author through the field he has chosen would be impossible in a mere review of the work. Suffice it to say that no task could have been more conscientiously fulfilled than that which his own method exacted from him. Each division might, indeed, be the substance of a separate treatise. The only fear we have is that the very thoroughness of the author's research may tend rather to embarrass the reader, and burden his memory with facts and conclusions too numerous to be carried forward in the calculation in which he is engaged. In one of the subdivisions of the work, viz., that which treats upon "language" (the third subdivision under the heading "Structure"), we find many remarks of an interesting character. Nothing, we imagine, can throw more light on the genesis and growth of the religious idea in man than the words or symbols used in the earliest ages to represent the Divinity, or the highest object of worship. In this there is an absolute agreement in all the typical races of mankind. If we take the earliest Aryan symbol, it will be found in the figure which undoubtedly stood for the mystical syllable "OM." This symbol is merely the junction of three signs which respectively indicated the sun, the moon, and the stars. It is simply this : ☉. In cases too numerous to mention this symbol is found for the purpose of indicating "the Highest," or the object of divine worship. The curious reader may refer only to the Pâli inscription found in Burnouf's 'Lotus,' p. 438. But what we want to observe is that this idea of something "high" or "exalted" is also contained in the Chinese symbol 上, which by its very structure (and, we may add, its acknowledged significance) indicates that which is high or exalted above the earth ; and, therefore, amongst the Japanese is translated by "Kami"—*i.e.*, God—and in the Chinese itself is the principal factor in the composition of the term Shang-ti, which is regarded by the best-informed Sinologists as the only correct rendering of our word for the Divinity. And now compare with this the Semitic word for "heaven" (*shamaim*),

* 'Oriental Religions and their relation to Universal Religion. China. By Samuel Johnson.' Boston : Houghton, Osgood & Co.

which, as Goldziher remarks, is derived from the idea of "height," and even our own word "heaven"—*i.e.*, something "raised" or "heaved up"—and we shall see how in the earliest times there was an agreement amongst men that in worship there was an object *above* themselves deserving of loving adoration (kissing the hand), and that this object was as a father, a heavenly father, a father in heaven, the high and lofty one. This is a common element in the religious life of the race, but in China it was lost at a very early period, and can hardly be said to exist there as a distinct conception now, or at least only in a material and degraded sense. And yet the language of China bears testimony to truth of an original search after a supreme object of worship in other ways. There is one symbol, for instance, which has come now to mean "the heart," or "the mind," as appertaining to ourselves. In all the old Buddhist books this symbol is used to signify the same as the Sanskrit Âtman (nom. sing. Âtmâ), which, according to our dictionaries, is rendered by "breath," "soul," etc., but which is in fact equal to the "highest self" or the "supreme existence." Now, the character is described in the best Chinese books to be compounded of a curved stroke, which represents the crescent of the moon, and three dots, to denote the stars above the moon; in other words, this primitive symbol was designed to signify the "highest" or "Âtman," so that the worship of the "supreme self" must have been known in China at the time when this character was devised. And now, if we connect these three dots or stars with the three gods (,',) of Semitic origin, used for "Adonai," and with the *Cándra-vindu*, "the dot in the crescent" (☽), in Sanskrit, which dot in the crescent is now the symbol of the Moslem, adopted by them to signify their divine power; and, finally, if we go back to the primitive symbol alluded to above, viz., ☉ as the equivalent of "OM," being the sun, moon, and stars conjoined, we seem to arrive at this conclusion: that the symbols used in the three great families of man, viz., the Chinese or Mongolian, the Aryan, and the Semitic, to signify "the highest," or "the supreme object of worship," are identical, and that, therefore, there was a oneness of thought and an agreement of expression in the great human mind as to the object of worship, shared by East and West alike in their primitive home, and carried by the several branches of the divided race to their respective locations.

Mr. Johnson is particularly happy in his remarks on Buddhism (Division iv. sec. 2). It is indeed a subject of vast dimensions to handle thoroughly, but according to his plan our author exhausts it for all practical purposes. Under the heading, "The Coming of Buddhism," and the causes of its growth in China, he shows that Mr. Fergusson's theory of the origin of Buddhism in "serpent worship" is quite untenable; he accounts rather for its growth because it was a slow-sure movement, with secular aid, to which he might have added that it was introduced into the country under the immediate auspices of the reigning monarch, and at a period of reviving literary enquiry after the destruction of the books and the persecution of the literati. Mr. Johnson then refers to the ethical side of Buddhism, which was preached first, that is very true; but we must also connect with this the translation of "The Life of Buddha" into Chinese, which was made at the very introduction of the religion; and the simple, touching, and, we may say, truth-like biography of the sage had doubtless a wonderful effect in winning disciples to his doctrine. The industry of Buddhist preachers and scholars is another reason given, and a very just one, especially when joined with the wonder caused by their travels and adventures. The sympathies of Buddhism are a fourth reason; force of organization another; reaction against Confucian contempt or what, perhaps, we might call the supposed *finality* of Confucianism, this is another and a weighty reason; and, lastly, Mr. Johnson adds the power of its intrinsic virtues as a cause of success. This is all very true and to the point. It would be well if this section were more generally read and studied by those who are interested in the religious history of the Chinese. Mr. Johnson then goes on to consider the development of Buddhism through its four stages: 1. As a primitive system concerning itself chiefly with the great question of the cause of sorrow and the mode of its destruction. 2. The Hinâyana system, as it embraces the beginning of conventual life, and concerns itself more with philosophical speculations. 3. The Mahâyana system, which, in fact, marks the beginning of a supposed *gnosis* in reference to matters which the former systems had not mentioned, such as the character of Nirvâna, the supreme soul, the nature of Tathâgata, and so on; and, fourthly, Mysticism, which is the natural counterbalance of scholastic refinements. Under these headings Mr. Johnson surveys the development of Buddhism. Lastly, from p. 800 to p. 833, Mr. Johnson sketches out a history of Chinese Buddhism, or of Buddhism in China, as distinct from the Buddhism of India. This part of the subject is ably treated, but cannot be fully handled by any one until we have more of the native literature, faithfully and fully translated, especially the writings of the Tsung, or contemplative school, which has taken deep root in the south of China.

To go on with this book would be to distract rather than engage the attention of our readers. Suffice it to say that if any one wants to take up a study in a line out of the common way, and to master it as a problem is mastered by the mathematician, he has here, in Mr. Johnson's work, materials for a complete investigation of a subject which few have ever thought upon—viz., the relative position of the Chinese as a religious people with other nations in the West, and how far this relationship accounts for the differences in daily life and habits which separate this people so conspicuously from the rest of the world.

TURENNE'S 'NORTH AMERICA.'*

COUNT TURENNE, who spent fourteen months in the United States and in Canada, differs in many respects from the ordinary French traveller, and the difference is greatly to the advantage of his readers. As a rule, a Frenchman, particularly a Parisian, away from his beloved Paris, would not be charmed even with Utopia. He eats no dinners as good as those at the Café Anglais; sees no plays as enjoyable as those at the Français, and meets no people as witty as the Parisian, or as happy as the French peasant. Count Turenne, however, travels and examines in a candid, if not an enthusiastic, spirit. He came to this country in the fall of 1875, and visited the principal cities of the Union, making repeated and prolonged stays in New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, St. Louis, New Orleans, and San Francisco. His volumes abound in exact statistical and economical accounts, which, though of slight interest to the American reader, to whom they are familiar, cannot fail to diffuse a great deal of useful information among the French, who are not, as a nation, entirely free from a provincial ignorance of the social, political, and commercial life of foreign countries. Thanks to his own name and position, and to the circumstance that his travelling companion was Baron Edmond de Rothschild, of the Paris branch of the great banking-house, the author travelled under particularly favorable circumstances. His impression of New York society as well as that of the other large cities which he visited will best be understood if reproduced in his own language:

"In fine, after having spent more than three months in travelling in the United States, living a little in every kind of society, it is impossible for me to avoid observing that society does not exist there, excepting in very limited proportions. And by society I mean those *rapports*, those sympathetic communications, that one has with others. America is full of men who have succeeded marvellously, and who are themselves a failure; whose residences are splendid, but whose souls are vulgar; who have pictures and cannot appreciate them, books and do not read them, clothes and bad fashions, clients (*clientes* in the Roman sense) but no society, flatterers but no friends. They have acquired fortune by great effort, but they do not know how to enjoy it. To be sure, there are eminent minds, enlightened and cultivated in art, letters and science, but they associate with each other almost exclusively in a by no means numerous group, which in the wealthy or well-to-do class forms a sort of caste by itself, and constitutes what might be called 'the true society.' Its defects are, as palpably as in any country, those which are the result of early education, and access to it for the wealthy of the old world is difficult."

In Washington and Baltimore Count Turenne was struck by the ludicrous anxiety of many sensible and refined people to trace their origin to ancient and illustrious houses. The mania for titles he considers common to all classes of American society, and the prevalence of it in a democratic republic leads him to conclude that human nature has a horror of equality. He assures his French readers that the number of senators, governors, judges, generals, and colonels—particularly colonels—to whom he was introduced is something fabulous. When it had become known that he had served in the French army he was immediately called colonel, in spite of his repeated and earnest protestations that he had never held so high a rank.

The position of women in American society naturally occupies a great deal of Count Turenne's chivalric attention. The personal charms of American ladies he considers superior to those of any European nation, and the elegance of their manners seems to him to exercise a wholesome and refining influence upon the harsh and angular character and behavior of the men. American men, in return, show an amount of almost religious attention and devotion to women which the author

*'Quatorze mois dans l'Amérique du Nord. Par le Comte Louis de Turenne.' 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1879. New York: F. W. Christern.

thinks unparalleled in any other country. The general inferiority of the men as compared with the women is due, he suggests, to the very deficient schooling which most of the former get. At the age of fifteen or sixteen, when, among the better classes of European nations, the serious part of a boy's education really begins, the American boy is commonly taken from school and obliged to enter some business, where in the struggle for wealth, which alone secures position in American society, he soon entirely neglects and forgets the very slender rudiments of education which he carried away from the school-room. To this very deficiency, however, and by way of compensation, is due the fact that the character of the young American gains such an amount of self-reliance, independence, energy, and capacity of administration at an age when European boys are under the strictest surveillance of schoolmasters and parents.

In his long journey across the continent from New York to the Pacific, where he also visited the interior parts of Colorado, Nevada, Montana, Idaho, etc., the author gives elaborate statistical accounts of the commercial activity of the West, of which the general French public has probably never heard so much heretofore. Part of the account will doubtless prove discouraging—as, for example, when the average French farmer, burdened in his own eyes, at least, with taxes, compulsory military service, and material difficulties of various sorts, reads that owing to an unequalled system of canals, railways, river, lake, and ocean steam-navigation, the grains of the West and Northwest of the United States can be delivered in England and France at an average price of 16 francs per hectolitre, while he labors at a loss if the price of grain falls below 22 francs for the same quantity.

Count Turenne devotes an entire chapter to an account of his visit to Salt Lake City, and manifests a proper abhorrence of Mormonism. He spent three weeks in New Orleans, where the remains of the old Creole aristocracy naturally charmed him. He made two long visits in Canada, and was, of course, delighted with Lord Dufferin, whom he met and who appeared to him the English gentleman, *par excellence ;* and in an analysis of the Constitution of the Dominion he expresses similar admiration of that. As to the future of the political institutions of the United States, however, Count Turenne exhibits, in several places, gloom and despondence. From his interviews with some of the best-informed and most sober-minded men in this city, he feels inclined to arrive at the conclusion that few of them believe in the stability of the present state of affairs and in the existing form of Government. This, indeed, is perhaps the only shallow and superficial part of his entertaining work.

Count Turenne is a lively and interesting writer, his descriptions of natural scenery are vivid, often graphic, and where his patriotic sentiments come into play, as among the French element in Canada and Louisiana (where he evidently lost his heart to a beautiful girl of half French origin), he even grows pathetic, and occasionally "drops" into poetry. A certain dulness and monotony is excusable in consideration of statistical tables and figures which fill many pages of the two volumes. The book must be of great use to French readers, who wish to learn something of a country and a nation in whose welfare the French people have always expressed a lively sympathy, but of whose political, commercial, and social life the majority is singularly ignorant. Nor can it fail to interest American readers, who would like to see themselves and their institutions judged by an intelligent, high-bred gentleman.

Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. New edition, with Supplement. (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam. 1879.)—The time seems to have come when some close observer of words, some student of language who is at the same time a wide reader in many departments, might profitably issue an annual supplementary dictionary of the English language on the same plan as the annual supplements to popular encyclopædias. Such a work would have two functions : in the first place, of course, to register everything new which has made its appearance during the year in the English language—new and yet not wholly ephemeral ; and in the second place to put formally on record phrases and single words which have been in every one's mouth perhaps for years past, but are never seen in print outside of newspapers and light fiction, and least of all to be found in dictionaries. This latter class should be inserted not only for the sake of foreigners and speakers of English a century hence, but for the English and Americans of to-day. It is never safe for a lexicographer to leave anything out because every one knows it already. "What every one knows" resolves itself into "What I know," and this latter varies as the editor is interested in politics, athletics, bric-à-brac, or what not. The omission of such phrases, and of another class—namely, those which every native speaker of English understands, but many mere readers of the language do not—was a conspicuous deficiency in Webster's Dictionary, and is still a fault of the Supplement. The editors had ready at hand in Hoppe's (German) *Supplement-Lexikon* a valuable collection of idioms and allusions from the works of Dickens, Thackeray, Trollope, etc., to which Hoppe had been frank enough to add an appendix of phrases the meaning of which neither he nor his friends had been able to find out—*freshmen salmon*, for instance. Foreigners, and especially foreign lexicographers (like Hoppe among the Germans and Grimaux and Lagros among the French), have sharper eyes than we have for what is new (*i.e.*, unrecorded) and strange in English. Another important desideratum in any dictionary is words and phrases which Englishmen understand and Americans misunderstand, and *vice versâ*. Of this the Supplement takes cognizance in at least one instance, viz., in adding to the noun *record* the definition, "the list of known facts in a person's life, especially in that of a public man ; personal history ; as, a good or a bad *record*."

A general survey of the sources of the new Supplement discloses the insertion of a good many Shaksperian meanings, and pretty frequent reference to Matthew Arnold, Browning, Tennyson, Dickens, Macdonald, George Eliot, F. W. Newman, Marryat, Scott, Darwin, Lubbock, etc., for the later or still living English writers ; and to John Russell Bartlett's 'Dictionary,' Lowell, Emerson, Hawthorne, etc., for Americanisms or classic American usage. A few examples will illustrate the character of the additions, and incidentally afford a glimpse of the world's progress in the interval since 1864, the date of the last edition : After-glow, aggressively, albert-type, alcoholism, Algonkin ; banality, bicycle, Bohemian (literary and other), Brahmo Somaj, butter-fingered ; Calisaya bark, card-catalogue, carpet-bagger, chauvinism, cod-liver oil, Comtism, crédit-mobilier ; Darwinian and Darwinianism (why not the vastly more common Darwinism, and Darwinist ?) ; deacon, *v.t.*, "to line out the psalm" (but we miss the other New England meaning, *e.g.*, in connection with a box of berries which do *not* "grow bigger downwards"), deadbeat, derringer, Draconian, dynamite ; earth-closet, evolution ; Faradization, Fenian, fractional currency, Franklin-stove ; Gatling-gun, gang-plough, gouache, Granger, greaser, greenback ; health-lift, heliotype, herd-book, Hicksite, humanitarian (in the recent sense of a philanthropist, etc.) ; interview, *v.t.*, Irvingite ; kindergärtner, Krupp-gun ; lacrosse ; margin (on the Street), microphone, mitrailleuse, Molly Maguire; nihilist; object-teaching, one-horse; papyrograph, Paris-green, Pelasgic, phenomenal, phonograph, pool (on the Street), Portland cement, primary (political), Pullman-car ; repeater (at the polls), repoussé; shogunate (but not septennate), sorosis, stereogram ; tasimeter, ticket (for voters), totemism, trade-dollar, trapeze, type-writer ; underground-railroad ; walking-gentleman.

Criticism of a dictionary, even of a good one, and this Supplement possesses the merits which every one accords to the parent work—generally consists of good-natured or ill-natured fault-finding with particular articles ; and the first three letters of the alphabet certainly furnish not a few instances in which a person utterly ignorant and trustfully seeking information would not find it here. *Abdominal ring* is not, though the Supplement seems to say that it is, a sort of annular wound in the abdomen ; under *acupressure* we are left in doubt whether the ends of the artery or of the needle are left in sight ; there would be no *raison d'être* for the *alethoscope*, "an instrument for viewing pictures by means of a lens, so as to present them in their natural proportions and relations," for the human eye has this very function ; *acrotism* should be the absence rather than "a defect of pulsation"; *bench-show* is defined broadly enough to include cattle-fairs, and *bog-wood* to include all wood dug from peat-bogs. Under *ærose* (coppery), *alose* (shad), and *anserous* (silly), the seeker is not informed that these words are extremely rare and not to be recommended ; and the last, with *anatomism, armsweep,* and *daintify*, is probably one of those wilful, quite ephemeral, creations of individual writers which hardly deserve even cataloguing in an appendix. One phrase, which has become the *bête-noire* of those who have occasion to consult dictionaries frequently—namely, "a kind of"—still affronts us in the Supplement ; a *bag-wig* is "a kind of wig in use in the eighteenth century," and a *bertha* is "a kind of cape worn by ladies." So much every one could tell from the context of the book he was reading, and is righteously indignant at having asked his dictionary for bread and received a stone. Finally, the indefinite article is used more indefinitely than ever in such chemical definitions as those of *amine* and *carbid*. *Amine* is said to be "a substance derived from ammonia by replacement," etc. The learner will ask: Is *amine* a single specific compound with as definite a composi-

tion as acetic acid? or is any one of a single class of compounds derived from ammonia, etc., entitled to be called an amine? or, finally, is any compound whatever derived from ammonia, etc., an amine?

There is one improvement, affecting the whole scheme of the Dictionary, which we should have been glad to find uniformly carried out in the Supplement, but do not. To recur to the word *deacon*, we are told (and for the foreigner it is an indispensable piece of information) that it is usually associated with the word *off*. But there are thousands of words—verbs, substantives, and adjectives—whose meaning is completed, or relation to other words in the same sentence indicated, by adverbs or prepositions which are idiomatic to the English. Often enough the native has to hesitate which to choose; sometimes the usage is mixed; not seldom the English is opposed to the American. Now, neither in Webster nor in Worcester is help given invariably and systematically. As a rule it is left to the accident of an illustrative quotation; thus, in the Supplement, under *directive*, we find the Shaksperian "Directive by the limbs," certainly not cited by the lexicographer on account of the word *by*, but for the sake of the authority merely. No such chance aid is given under *despotize* (*over*); nor under *irresponsive*, which requires the preposition *to*, although *irrespective*, to the honest foreigner's confusion, requires *of;* nor under *original* (*with, in*). To be sure, in the main work, under *averse* we are assured that this adjective ought to be followed by *to* and not *from*, "as formerly"—rather say, as now, in England, and as in O. T., "men averse from war" (Mic. ii. 8); and under *different*, that it is proper to use *from* and not *to*, as in England. So under *differ*, we have the usage with *from* expressly noted, and the usage with *in* suggested rather than enforced by a quotation; and under *agree*, the various usages with *to*, *in*, and *with* are similarly declared or inferrible. But we repeat that there is nothing systematic about this, so that if, for a final example, under *dependence* we learn, directly or indirectly, that it is followed by *on* or *from*, under *independence* we find no mention of any relative word, whether *of* or *upon*.

We should not do justice to this edition if we failed to mention the new feature of a Biographical Dictionary—the latest step towards making "the Unabridged" a cyclopædia. Of this we will only say that it is compiled on the principle of allowing one line to a name, and that the pronunciation subjoined to each is creditably accurate, and appears to be based on the trustworthy example of the Condensed American Cyclopædia. We conclude with the remark that as the publishers do not sell the Supplement apart from the Dictionary, the former will not fall for a number of years into the hands of those persons most competent to offer corrections and additions.

Progressive Japan. A Study of the Political and Social Needs of the Empire. By General Le Gendre. (San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1878.)—This is an essay in the higher branch of politics, discussing the present condition of Japan and the opportunities and dangers that are showing themselves on the horizon of that empire. Before 1867 the people of Japan were the subjects of their feudal lords, who ruled through *karōs* (ministers). When these officials misgoverned, the popular discontent was pretty surely followed by the suicide of the offender or his removal by the daimio. No one ever thought of blaming either the paternal daimio or the sacred Mikado. At a word from the Mikado the Shogunate was abolished, and the daimios, relinquishing their feudal privileges—the inheritance of ages—became practically pensioned noblemen. The supreme control and the actual government again centred in the Mikado, as in the infancy of the nation. But it became immediately evident that the methods of ruling a simple people during the period when they were wresting the land from the aborigines, was not adapted to a large population and a highly differentiated state of society. Various experiments were tried, resulting in the formation of three great boards developed out of the high council of the Mikado. These boards, consisting of nobles, chiefs of the Fu and Ken, and of men distinguished by their services to the country or for eminence in politics, were really nothing more than advisory committees having no legislative powers, though from the manner of their construction it seems to have been intended to raise them at some time to the position of representative bodies.

The present government of Japan is, therefore, a typical autocracy, in which the paternal benevolence of the Mikado becomes perverted and polluted in passing through the channels of an intricate bureaucracy. There is nominally nothing interposed between the subject and the sovereign. The danger which General Le Gendre sees in this state of things is, that the remedy for evils which is provided in constitutional governments by reconstruction of cabinets, etc., does not now exist in Japan; that the Mikado will gradually lose his sacred character in the eyes of his people, and that then troubles which might otherwise end with a change of ministers will end in the downfall of the most ancient and most beloved of dynasties.

Among the many grave problems presented to the Government was the future of the soldier-class and nobles, who had been from time immemorial paid retainers. Within a few years past these have been pensioned, and later their pensions have been capitalized by issuing to the recipients, once for all, Government bonds of more or less brief duration. Fears were entertained that this least provident portion of the people would waste its small capitals in the speculation which arose under the new order of things, and that, once rendered desperate by impoverishment, it would form a dangerous element of society. The most interesting chapter of the book is that devoted to showing that this class can find a wide and profitable field for self-maintenance and usefulness in agricultural pursuits, and that the actual exploitation of the resources of the empire is far below the possibilities. An instance is given where four hundred and eighty retainers, including two *karōs*, forming themselves into a land company, took a tract of land valued at $240. They divided themselves into six sections of eighty men; each section, from the *karōs* down, working five days at a time. "Now, these gentlemen, unused to manual labor and unaided by any agricultural implements, have given a value, entirely by their labor, of $72,000" to the tract, and this after only five years.

The author's manner of presenting his subject is not very clear, and the essay itself is evidently intended for the Japanese and not the foreign reader. But it will be found a useful document by the student of that extremely instructive episode of modern history which is presented in the sudden fall of feudalism in Japan. A voluminous appendix contains among other things a valuable table of classified statistics of production for the empire, a glossary of names of products, etc. From one of these tables we take the following items: the average value of the cultivated land is about $200 per acre; the average taxation is nearly $2 36 per acre, and the average revenue to the owner is 6 per cent. on the value of the land. There were produced (presumably in 1876 or 1877) 5,265 ounces gold; 287,729 ounces silver; 4,216 tons copper; 34,600 tons iron, and 410,000 tons of coal; the total value of the products of mines and quarries was $4,750,000, and the total value of products from all sources—field, forest, mines, sea, and manufactures—was over $428,000,000.

Obituary Notices of Astronomers, Fellows and Associates of the Royal Astronomical Society; written chiefly for the Annual Reports of the Council by Edwin Dunkin, F.R.S., F.R.A.S., of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, Honorary Secretary of the Royal Astronomical Society, 1871–1877. (London: Williams & Norgate. 1879. 8vo, pp. 257.)—The title of this work indicates its contents in a tolerably accurate way. It consists of a series of short biographical sketches of twenty-three members of the Royal Astronomical Society of London, who died during the period between 1870 and 1878, and of a sketch of Sir William Herschel. These memoirs were originally inserted in the *Monthly Notices* of the Society or in magazines, and are now collected after having been revised, or in some cases re-written. The most important of these are the notices of Sir John Herschel (7 pages), Sir William Herschel (39 pages), Laugier of the Paris Observatory (30 pages), Le Verrier (8 pages), Littrow of Vienna (34 pages), and Main of Oxford (7 pages). The space devoted to the several notices shows that harmonious treatment is not attempted, as the importance of the work done by the subject of the memoir bears no relation to the extent of the notice.

The convenience of having sketches which were already in print bound up in one volume is the only excuse for the appearance of this book, which appeals to a very small public, in America at least. In a few cases the personal acquaintance of the author with the subjects of some of the memoirs has given a more lifelike tone to the notices; in general they are of but passing importance, and of no lasting value. They are more like the after-dinner talk of a good-natured colleague than serious memoirs of some of the greatest names this generation has had the misfortune to lose. In the one instance in which the author has risen to the pathetic (p. 84) his emotion appears to be caused as much by the fact that he was one of the "favored few" who followed the remains of Sir John Herschel to his tomb in Westminster Abbey as by the fact that that tomb was closing over the most restless and active astronomer of his generation; one who

had a double right to honor by his own work and as the inheritor of one of the greatest names in English science.

If in looking over the pages of this colorless book such strictures should seem severe, either because of the harmless good-nature of the author, or of the general and sluggish accuracy of the material, let it be remembered that some of these names are of those which should and will incite future generations to generous enthusiasms, and to years of toilful and scant-paid work, to labors like those of Delaunay and Le Verrier in analysis, like those of D'Arrest and the two Herschels in observation. Such work should not be, is not to be, spoken of as if it were common, ordinary, and of every day. It is to be comprehended or left untouched. And it seems at least a right, if indeed it is not a duty, to say to those into whose hands this work may fall that all has not been told, and that, in fact, there are now in print notices of some of these great men in which the true insight has been used, and the true meaning and perspective of their lives and labors exhibited. We need only to refer to Arago's memoir of the elder Herschel as an example. Models were not far to seek even in this country, where the memoirs of Gilliss, Walker and others by Gould are alive with quite a different spirit. If the work lacks perspective and insight, let it be said that it is not ambitious, and is, as far as we have examined it, strictly correct, although utterly inadequate.

Milton. By Rev. Stopford A. Brooke. Classical Writers. Edited by John Richard Green. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.)—This is the first of what we take to be a series of primers in some sort similar to Mr. John Morley's "English Men of Letters" series. It is more comprehensive, in that it is to include Greek and Latin as well as English classics, and Mr. Green is naturally a different kind of editor from Mr. Morley. Mr. Morley's aim—at least his accomplishment indicates such an aim—is to select some writer especially fond of and learned in the author he desires written of, and then to allow him to unburden his mind to the top of his bent, as the phrase is; whereas Mr. Green, in the several analogous series that he has edited, exhibits a distinct conservatism, and endeavors to secure that nothing so uncertain as to be liable to provoke controversy shall find its way into a "primer." At first thought Mr. Green's notion seems manifestly the more commendable, though it should be observed that very likely Mr. Morley does not assume his series to be "educational" in any degree, but only "popular." One cannot, it seems at first thought, be too careful to keep one's own or the ideas of others from appearing under the guise of accepted and undisputed truth. Mr. Carlyle's poetical rhapsody upon the French Revolution should not, for example, be permitted to be used as a primer, one reflects, even supposing such use of it possible. At the same time Mr. Green's system has its disadvantages. His primers run the risk of being colorless, it must be acknowledged. It may be that some of them are likely not to be read at all for this reason. Mere chronicle is apt to suffer in a contest with history vivified by speculation. In the second place, it is possible to doubt if mere chronicle is in the long run as trustworthy as vivid historical portraiture—notably if the latter be painted by a master-hand. It is so nearly impossible for any one possessed of parts to confine himself religiously to mere chronicle; and a writer of any individuality who attempts this very frequently falls either into the error of a disproportionate valuation of certain details, or the error of losing, in his concentration upon details, the general tendency and large truth of his subject.

The remedies for these defects are, however, not difficult to a candid temper and a lucid intelligence, and these qualities are eminent in Mr. Stopford Brooke. Mr. Matthew Arnold took occasion to write an essay in general commendation of his 'Primer of English Literature,' in which he said that it was "clear, short, interesting, observant of proportion, free from exaggeration, and free from arbitrariness"—a good deal for Mr. Arnold to say, but the characterization applies appositely to this little volume on Milton. It tells the reader ignorant of Milton's life and work just what he should desire to know, and it is in the main an impartial guide to the reader measurably and superficially familiar with Milton, but not accustomed to think much of Milton's rank in English poetry. The narrative part could not have been better done, perhaps; it is rapid enough to avoid wearisomeness, and it is thoroughly sympathetic. The critical portion is open to controversy here and there, it may be, but we do not think the reader will get a total impression that is wrong. For example, Mr. Stopford Brooke lays down sixteen propositions upon which he says the theology of 'Paradise Lost' is based, and says it is plain from many of them "that to call Milton Calvinistic is absurd"; and elsewhere, "the prose works as a whole are not readable." Now and then, in references to Johnson's 'Life,' one is disposed to differ with him, and he is so strong an admirer of Milton's stateliness that it seems as if he were occasionally blind to his sweetness. But all these things are quite matters of detail, and the essential lines of the portrait almost all persons will admit to be like. Aside from its verisimilitude, too, it is a vivid portrait—and that is a creation not too frequent in literary portraiture, even when the subject is as well understood of all men as Milton has come to be. Mr. Stopford Brooke is an enthusiastic admirer of Milton, but we notice that he has tempered here the expression of his enthusiasm in his 'Primer of English Literature,' and hence one follows him with the less reservation, not to say with—at the end—implicit confidence.

Stories from Herodotus, and the Seventh Book of the History. With English Notes by Robert P. Keep, Ph.D. (New York: Harper & Bros.)—This little volume, intended for beginners in Herodotus, contains the seventh book entire and about fifty pages of well-chosen stories, such as that of Crœsus, of Polycrates, and of Cypselus. It gives the student, therefore, important specimens of the continuous narrative of the historian, and of those charming digressions which equally characterize his manner. The stories, as the editor suggests, may be used for practice in reading at sight, and we speak from previous experience in commending the suggestion. The introductions and notes skilfully hit that condensed minimum of commentary which the ordinary school-boy is willing to assimilate, and seem to meet his difficulties judiciously. A few of the translations might be improved. In the story of Cleobis and Biton, the rendering "The men of Argos praised the strength of the youths; the women, their filial spirit towards their mother," as a paraphrase is superfluous, as a translation is too free to be serviceable to beginners. A note on the unusual combination of constructions with μακαρίξω would have been more useful. In another passage, the word ἐπιλεήνας is correctly explained (p. 231), and the student is directed to translate "Mardonius having spoken thus much *in endorsement* of the opinion of Xerxes, ceased." The italicized phrase misrepresents somewhat ludicrously the style of Herodotus and the relation of Mardonius to his master. We venture to doubt whether the expression "every one so ever" (p. 325) is possible in an affirmative English sentence, though it might be desirable as a representation of παντί τεῳ.

The value of the book is increased by three maps and an excellent table of Ionic forms; the text is admirably clear, but in these days of degenerating and degenerate eyesight a larger type would be welcome to the student.

Four Lectures on some Epochs of Early Church History, delivered in Ely Cathedral by Charles Merivale, D.D., Dean of Ely. (New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.)—Anything relating to the earlier portions of ecclesiastical history from the pen of the historian of Rome and of Latin Christianity may be expected to be instructive and interesting. The narrow limits of the course and the miscellaneous character of his audience, consisting, as Dean Merivale tells us, of the clergy and laity of the neighborhood, of divinity students, and of the upper classes of grammar-scholars, did not admit of the presentation of anything very novel or profound. Each lecture treats an "Epoch," and gives an outline of the man whom the dean considers the principal character in it. The four epochs are included in the period extending from about the middle of the third to the end of the sixth century. At the beginning of this period the Western Church had just ceased to be an association despised, hated, and persecuted; at the end it had become a great, powerful, and completely organized body, directed by a single head at Rome, claiming and in many ways exercising authority over kings, princes, and people. Necessarily only the most prominent features of the history of the time are presented, but the sketch is clear and interesting.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Arnold (E.), The Light of Asia: Poetry	(Trübner & Co.)	
Bellamy (C. J.), The Breton Mills: a Tale	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	$1 00
Brooke (Rev. S. A), Milton	(D. Appleton & Co.)	60
Brown (R.), Science for All, Parts 1-6, swd	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	50
Campbell (Sir G.), White and Black in the United States	(R. Worthington)	
Dale (R. W.), Impressions of America, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	25
De Amicis (E.), Studies of Paris	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Funeral Tributes to Wm. Lloyd Garrison	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	75
Granville (J. M.), Common Mind-Troubles	(S. E. Cassino)	50
Hartley (J. M.), Cora Lynn: a Tale	(Robert J. Hayward & Co.)	50
Jameson (H. W.), Rhetorical Method	(G. I. Jones & Co.)	75
Kip (L.), Under the Bells: a Tale	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
McCulloch (H.), Bi-Metallism, swd	" " "	25
Olney's Practical Arithmetic	(Sheldon & Co.)	
Potter (E. R.), French Settlements in the Colony of Rhode Island, swd	(S. S. Rider)	
Radcliffe (Dr. C. B.), Proteus; or, Unity in Nature, 2d ed	(Macmillan & Co.)	
Ruth Erskine's Crosses	(Thomas Kelly)	50
Savage (J.), Picturesque Ireland, Part 6, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	25
Tardieu (J.), Money: a Tale, swd	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 50
Up de Graff (Dr. J. S), Camping on the Lycoming		

SYMONDS'S RENAISSANCE IN ITALY: THE FINE ARTS. 8vo, $3 50.

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ROSCHER'S POLITICAL ECONOMY. 2 vols. 8vo, $7 50.

JAMES'S COMMUNISM IN AMERICA. 4to, large paper, $1; cloth, $1 50.

*CONWAY'S DEMONOLOGY and DEVIL-*Lore. 2 vols. 8vo, $7.

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Cash in Bank	381,210 92
Total Amount of Assets	$13,320,463 16

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Fourth of February, next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1875 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Fourth of February, next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of thirty per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending 31st December, 1878, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of May, next.

By order of the Board, J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 14, 1879.

The Week.

THE President's action in frustrating the attempt to form Republican political organizations in the departments, if correctly reported from Washington, cannot be too highly commended. The attempt is said, and with probability, to have grown out of the failure of the plan of getting political contributions out of the clerks in the shape of voluntary contributions, the old-fashioned compulsory assessments being forbidden. The importance of the matter to the party-managers may be conjectured from Mr. Gorham's confession before the Congressional Committee that over $90,000 of the $106,000 raised by him for the Republican canvass two years ago was extracted from office-holders. This apparently cannot be kept up by merely soliciting subscriptions, so it has been resolved to put each clerk into a club, where he could be got at by the officers thereof. The President doubtless sees, as all thinking men must see, that as long as the employés of the Government are systematically used to supply the party with the greater part of its electioneering expenses, it will be impossible to avoid a clean sweep whenever the Democrats get into power. We cannot ask them, and they would very properly laugh at us if we did, to leave in office men whose salaries have furnished their opponents with the sinews of war, and to refrain from using what the Republicans have found so potent a weapon. The Government clerks owe no more to the Republican party than anybody else, and they are paid at a rate which in any other walk of life would prevent men from thinking of contributing to campaign funds. The best way of bringing out the latent liberality of the party would be to ask each voter at the polls, say, for one dollar. This would make a magnificent fund, even if the application were only successful in one case in four; and, instead of being a scandal and abuse, would be a virtuous spectacle. A good many Republicans are waiting for the Democrats to set a good example in this matter; but what chance is there of these reprobates ever setting a good example in anything?

The Congressional Committee which has been investigating the conduct of the United States supervisors at the last election at Cincinnati finished its enquiry on Saturday. The results of its labors are not important, and afford small comfort, we should say, to the Democratic memorialists who are responsible for it and its expense. It was proved that money was spent by the Republican Campaign Committee, and by Messrs. Butterworth and Young, to secure the election of those gentlemen. But it also appeared that whereas the Republican committee had spent but $2,500, the Democratic committee had spent $8,891.68, a difference which, although it does not precisely warrant the Republican assumption that it represents the excess of Democratic corruption over the cost of legitimate effort, must have been harrowing to the Democrats. Moreover, the memorialists were taunted, as it were, with assertions that it cost Butterworth and Young less to get elected than Sayler and Goss to get defeated. Indeed, whatever was proved against the Republicans was quickly offset by counter testimony; if the character of certain supervisors was not good, that of the Cincinnati police was worse, and so on. General Banning, formerly a Congressman from the Second District, proved, perhaps, the most interesting witness. He testified that his three elections had cost him $500, $800, and $1,000, respectively, in assessments, besides the moneys he personally expended "at saloons and for bands, for public meetings, for men to work at the polls and to hold tickets." Among his "workers" were several Republicans whose expenses he had paid, and whose services he had recompensed. Of course there is nothing unusual in General Banning's testimony, and of course there are legitimate election expenses. The difficulty is to determine where "legitimacy" ends; it is enhanced rather than removed by a reference to the conscience of the candidate in most cases, we imagine; but about the morality of Republicans accepting pay to "work" for Democrats, or *vice versâ*, there can be small difference of opinion, whether the necessity for "machine politics" is admitted or not.

The defeat of the proposed compromise in Tennessee by which the State debt was to have been "scaled" fifty per cent., and the interest fixed at four per cent., is interpreted in two ways. One view is that the political leaders of both parties committed one of the blunders to which demagogy is liable, and were unable to lead the people whither they had mistakenly supposed the people anxious to be led. This is comforting both to the creditors of Tennessee and to American citizens generally, but it strikes us as optimistic. Much more reasonable is the view taken by Postmaster-General Key, who thinks the "compromise" was the best thing that could be hoped for, and that its defeat is due to the repudiationists themselves. Opinions contrary to this that we have seen seem to be groundless speculations endeavoring to make the best of a bad business. There can be no doubt of the wide prevalence of a desire to repudiate as much of the debt as possible, and the feeling is by no means confined to Tennessee; Louisiana is to vote in December upon a similar project. As good judges of the real temper of "the people" as any one can be are the creditors of a State, and it should be remembered that the compromise just defeated was proposed, or at any rate accepted, by the creditors of Tennessee. No one is likely to forget, moreover, the advocacy of repudiation by those Tennessee statesmen, Andrew Johnson and Emerson Etheridge, and the famous economic principle laid down by the former to the effect that a debt was to be considered discharged when the interest paid should amount to the principal. The case of Tennessee, indeed, seems to be particularly scandalous; her people cannot accuse a carpet-bag government of saddling them with an unjust indebtedness; they have no excuse, save poverty, for their action, and yet their demoralization in this matter seems greater than that of any of their neighbors. Meantime, the arrearages of interest, which amounted to $4,000,000 in January last, are accumulating at the rate of $1,200,000 a year; which means, of course, that there will be less and less likelihood all the time of the payment of even a part of the debt.

The Legislature of New Hampshire has passed an act for the protection of the rights of holders of the bonds of repudiating States which may have important results. It provides that whenever any citizen of the State "shall be the owner of any claim" against any other State, "arising upon a written obligation to pay money" which is overdue and unpaid, the holder may assign his claim to the State, and deposit the assignment with the attorney-general. Upon this deposit being made, it is to be the duty of the attorney-general to examine the claim and the evidence on which it rests, and if it is in his opinion good, to bring suit upon it in the name of the State in the Supreme Court of the United States. The expenses of the prosecution are to be paid by the owner of the claim. This is substantially the same act that was passed by the legislature of this State a year ago, and vetoed by the governor. The legal theory on which it rests is very simple. The Constitution forbids suits being brought against States by citizens of other States, but not by States themselves, and the courts, while bound to protect a State from a suit of the prohibited kind, have always recognized the binding character of contracts made by States. If there is any way of enforcing these they will always be enforced. The difficulty in the way of suing a State is merely technical, and if the technical difficulty can be removed there is no reason why a suit should not be maintained on a State bond as on any other form of obligation. All courts

recognize the duty of a State to protect its citizens, and, consequently, if a State assumes the prosecution of claims on the defaulted bonds of other States there is every probability that the Supreme Court will favor the suit. On the other hand, it may be said that if a State can assume any claim of its citizens, and sue upon it at Washington, the immunity of States from private suits is practically gone. Of one thing there can be no doubt, that the method is worth trying; if the Supreme Court can sustain such an act as the New Hampshire legislature has passed, its decision will do much to revive the credit of American States all over the world.

The war between Tammany and Anti-Tammany has within the past week reached a terrible pitch of excitement. The writ of prohibition served upon the Mayor in Mr. Wheeler's case was a serious blow to the Tilden-Robinson politicians, because the return-day of the writ was made so late that the hearing might, in the natural course of things, have come after the appointment of the inspectors of election. These inspectors are appointed by the Police Board, and are supposed to represent both political parties. With the Police Board in the condition in which it stood last week the two political parties would have been Tammany Hall and the Custom-house. It was, therefore, essential to get an advancement of the time of hearing argument as to the writ of prohibition, and in this move the Mayor was successful, Judge Van Brunt changing the date to the 12th. Meanwhile, the Governor having suddenly made up his mind in the long-deferred case of General Smith, approved his removal by the Mayor, an act which was followed almost immediately by the nomination of Mr. James E. Morrison, the Mayor's private secretary, in his place. This threw the control of the Police Board into the hands of Messrs. French, McLean, and Morrison, and as the last two gentlemen are well known to be Tilden Democrats that wing of the party seemed to have at last gained a decisive victory. At this stage of the proceedings, however, a new judge appeared upon the scene with a writ of *certiorari* in Mr. S. P. Nichols's case, granted to enable him to review the action of the Mayor in removing him. Judge Westbrook's opinion that such a writ is applicable to the case is based upon the fact that the Mayor cannot remove except "for cause" and after a hearing, which means, he thinks, that the party is entitled to a regular trial. The effect of this decision is that the proceedings of the Mayor must be certified to the Supreme Court, which will enquire into their regularity. Some Tammany lawyers maintain that it authorizes General Smith to resume his seat on the Board by force, but the calmer jurists of that party admit that this would be a strained interpretation of the decision.

We believe Mr. Morrison to be an unobjectionable appointment, for, though he is a comparatively obscure man, he is perfectly respectable, and among the city politicians has the reputation of possessing considerable literary ability, though, as most of them regard any one who can read without spelling his words and write without turning back his coat-sleeves as belonging to the literary class, this report needs confirmation from some other quarter. He was during the mayoralty campaign of last fall an active partisan of Mr. Cooper's, and became his private secretary soon after his election. As we go to press the hearing in the prohibition case has been again postponed to the 14th.

Butler has made overtures to the Conservative, or "Abbott," or Regular Massachusetts Democrats for a combination of forces with them, which have been rejected with scorn. For fear that he should repeat his last year's tactics and try to capture the Democratic convention by storm, they have determined to abandon Worcester, the traditional place for holding the convention, and to have their meeting again in Faneuil Hall. The Republicans, who are at length rid of the Butler bugbear, make very merry over the wretched plight to which the Democrats are reduced by his secession to their ranks, but they are themselves somewhat embarrassed by the reported refusal of Governor Talbot to be renominated. General Butler's canvass will doubtless be aided by the Fall River strike, striking mill operatives being natural supporters of a demagogue of his stripe. The Democrats have managed to place so little to their credit in the way of adherence to principle within the past few years that their refusal to enter into an alliance with Butler, particularly in the desperate straits to which their refusal brings them, may fairly be considered as a feather in their cap, to be put down, together with their hard-money platform in Pennsylvania and their bold stand for reform of all kinds in Maryland, as indications that they are tired of sin and are prepared to bring forth works meet for repentance. But we fear the change of heart comes too late. The Republicans are, as the politicians say, "way ahead" in matters of principle, and, for some reason, never labor under the suspicion which gives the Democrats so much trouble, of being moral solely for the purpose of carrying the election.

The Froudes and Macaulays of the daily papers are behaving in a very singular manner about a row which occurred a few days ago at the house of ex-Senator Sprague at Narragansett Pier. Sprague appears to have attacked somebody at his house with a double-barrelled gun, and to have driven him from the premises. The *World* Macaulay says it was Senator Conkling who was there; but the *Times* Froude says this is a mistake—that it was a German teacher named Linck, the tutor of Mr. Sprague's children, to whom the father had conceived a deadly antipathy, and that Senator Conkling, who was in the library reflecting upon the condition of the South, simply intervened to calm the ladies and put a bedridden man, who apparently thought it would be his turn next, into a carriage. The *Tribune* passes the incident over in silence, and so does the *Herald;* but the *World*, which displays splendid enterprise in the matter, says Linck is merely a man of straw put up to save the Republican State canvass, and that it was really the life of the Favorite Son of New York which the bloody-minded Sprague threatened, and that, far from being in the library reflecting on the condition of the South, he was on the piazza engaged in frivolous conversation. The whole family are said to have promptly left the house, Mr. Conkling preceding them, which is a singular result of an assault on Linck. Linck has "made a statement," and Mr. Conkling is said to be preparing one, and so is Mrs. Sprague, and the Republican managers are naturally a good deal troubled in mind. We would recommend the production of Linck on the stump to tell the story of his wrongs. But what does Mr. Reid say to the manner in which the Froudes and Macaulays discharge their duties?

At the Bankers' Convention held at Saratoga last week, Mr. Knox, the Comptroller of the Currency, made an excellent address, chiefly devoted to the National Bank system, but incidentally treating of resumption and of the Coinage Act of 1873. Mr. Knox confessed himself the virtual author of the act in question, a first draft of which accompanied a report of his to the Forty-first Congress, second session, in 1870. In this report a special paragraph called attention to the discontinuance of the coinage of the silver-dollar piece as provided in the bill, and the paragraph was itself distinguished by a precise descriptive heading, in capitals, as follows: "Silver Dollar. Its Discontinuance as a Standard." Mr. Knox showed that the report was published in full in the *Bankers' Magazine*, together with extracts from a subsequent report in which the section ordering the discontinuance was discussed by various mint experts; that this section was discussed also by the New York Board of Trade and Chamber of Commerce, and recommended in their reports; that the Committee on Coinage duly informed the House of the provision, and that the bill was printed thirteen times by order of Congress, and once by the commissioners revising the statutes, and was considered during five successive sessions. He added that probably no act "passed by any Congress received more care in its preparation, or was ever submitted to the criticism of so great a number of practical and scientific experts, as was this Coinage Act of 1873," and that any statement to the contrary "has no

foundation in fact." This is an old story, but it will not satisfy the supporters of the theory of surreptitious demonetization. Mr. Knox should have shown that Congressmen are in the habit of reading carefully and intelligently the reports submitted by his department, the reports of their own coinage committees, the bills they order printed and vote upon; that the subscribers to the *Bankers' Magazine* read every word of it; that members of boards of trade and chambers of commerce invariably attend the meetings and study the reports of those bodies; that the daily press have always had leading articles on acts of Congress which "simply registered in the form of statues what had been the unwritten law of the land for nearly forty years"; and that these articles are duly read, weighed, and discussed by every voter capable of appreciating the "debtor's option." Nothing else will convince the Hon. W. D. Kelley, or the editors of the Cincinnati *Commercial* and the Chicago *Tribune*.

During the week there was a further fall in the rates for sterling exchange, and somewhat more than two million dollars of gold were started from London and Paris for New York. The foreign markets appear to realize the fact that either gold or securities must be sent here within the next few months to pay for the breadstuffs, provisions, and cotton that will be needed from this country, and it is not strange that efforts are already making to send back securities, beginning, of course, with U. S. 4 per cent. bonds, which pay a lower rate of interest than any other American securities held abroad. In anticipation of an attempt to return these bonds, their price in this market has fallen ⅛ of 1 per cent. during the week. The New York money market was again disturbed by the transfers of large amounts of money from the national-bank depositaries to the Treasury, where it is wanted to pay out for bonds to be redeemed. The rates for loans have advanced 1 to 2 per cent., but this must be considered a slight disturbance for transactions of such magnitude. At the Stock Exchange it was a week of wild excitement in the share market; the Vanderbilt stocks having been the most prominent because of rumors that the Lake Shore Railroad is to be leased, or in some way permanently controlled, by the New York Central and Hudson, which is for ever to guaranty 6 per cent. to the stockholders of the former. As Lake Shore stock has long been a doubtful property—some years paying no dividends, and others from 2 to 4 per cent.—this reported prospect kindled speculation in the stock, and the price was run up from 82 to 83 to 93 with uncommon celerity. Silver bullion has ruled at about 51½*d.* per ounce in London. At the close of the week the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar here was $0.8643.

The debate in the English House of Commons on July 22 on the Turkish question, of which full reports have come out, was in many respects very important. It was opened by a masterly speech from Sir Charles Dilke, who drew attention to the various points on which Turkey had with the connivance, or, at all events, without the hindrance, of the British Government failed to carry out the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin, both in the matter of reform and in the matter of the rectification of the Greek frontier. But what was most remarkable in the discussion was the speeches of Sir Henry Drummond Wolff and Mr. Bourke. Sir Henry was an ardent Jingo who was sent out last year as the English member of the Rumelian Commission, but now confesses himself completely cured of his belief in the Turks. He thought an expression of opinion on the part of the House of Commons would be a good thing in order to bring pressure to bear on the Turks to make them fulfil their engagements; pronounced the corruption at Constantinople shocking, and declared that he saw no hope for Turkey except in decentralization, or, in other words, the virtual independence of the provinces. Mr. Bourke, following him, admitted on the part of the Government that Turkey had not kept her contract about reform in Asia Minor, in spite of the best efforts of England; that the state of things reported by the English consuls in that province was "revolting"; but that the Government was fully alive to the responsibility it had incurred with regard to it. It is difficult to see how the Ministry can go before the constituencies with confessions of this sort.

Dean Stanley has brought down a storm on his head by his ill-considered consent to the erection of a monument to the late Prince Imperial in Westminster Abbey, and has not improved his position by a defence which he has thought proper to publish in the newspapers, in which he says, among other things, that the Prince "gave his life" for England. There was already abundant reason for believing that the young man's only motive in going to Africa was to impress the French imagination, and so strengthen the hands of his followers at home. This has, however, been placed beyond doubt by the imprudent publication by one of his friends of a pamphlet containing letters of the Prince and reports of conversations with him about French politics and his own prospects. Some of the revelations thus made are, if authentic, of an extraordinary character, and calculated to ruin his memory in the estimation of all but the most reckless members of the party. He declares that his design was to found institutions which would last, but to this end he must first have a period of absolute power, the duration of which would be regulated by himself; that his mission was to extinguish the revolutionary spirit; that he would probably have to get possession of power by force, and that he would sustain the Church "always, everywhere, and to the full extent of his ability," without, however, submitting himself to the clergy, and that he would "permit unlimited liberty of education," or, in other words, give up all control of the clerical schools and colleges. He appears, in fact, to have been a mixture of the inflated Bonapartist and fanatical Spanish Catholic, and would probably, had he lived, have proved a constant source of disturbance to the French people.

Mr. W. D. Kelley is probably no more trustworthy as a reporter of his conversation with Bismarck as to the views of the latter on the German tariff and the silver question than as a witness as to the objects of the American Coinage Act of 1873, of which he was himself the principal promoter, but subsequently described on the stump, in the most unblushing manner, as a fraud perpetrated at the instigation of the European "money kings." But that he is correct in saying that Bismarck is disposed to consider the expediency of negotiating for universal bi-metallism there appears to be no doubt, as his story is confirmed from other quarters and has found credence on the London market. It appears to be equally certain, however, that Bismarck knows no more about this than about other financial questions, which he has always left hitherto to the colleagues whom he has lately dismissed, and the new ones have not as yet made up their minds what they will do. Consequently the German press contains very contradictory statements about the matter; but the chances still are that nothing will be done. Our correspondent, Mr. Horace White, we believe to have been substantially correct in his account of the state of public opinion on the subject, both in Germany and England.

There is equal uncertainty in Germany as to the future course of the Government with regard to the Ecclesiastical Laws. That a promise or agreement that they will be suspended or modified was given to the Ultramontanes to secure their support in the Chamber, there seems to be little question, but the difficulties of carrying it out are probably greater than were anticipated. These difficulties are not likely to be lessened by the election, at Breslau, of Herr Hasenclever, one of the leading Socialists in Germany, a writer of the Lassalle School, and for years the President of the Society of German Workingmen. On the first ballot he got 5,404 votes; Leonhard, the National Liberal, 5,674; and Hager, the Ultramontane, 2,933. On the second—a clear majority being necessary to election—the Socialist got 7,589 votes, and the National Liberal 6,390, the Ultramontane disappearing from the scene. There thus appears to be no doubt that the Socialist owed his election to Ultramontanes, and people are naturally asking if this is the way that the alliance of the Government with the latter is going to save the country from Communism?

STATE RIGHTS AND FEDERAL STRENGTH.

"HARPER'S WEEKLY," replying some weeks ago to some observations of ours on its position with regard to "State rights," argued that whatever be the definition of "State rights," as now maintained or defended by the Democratic party, all talk of State rights coming from a party so bad in composition and antecedents is to be distrusted. This may be true. It may be that the Democrats advocate State rights with sinister designs; that is, that they urge disputable views of State sovereignty with the view of robbing the national Government of rights about which there can be no dispute. But this renders it none the less necessary for Republicans who are opposing them to make clear their meaning when they talk of State rights. Most of the speakers on the Republican side in the late debates in Congress talked as if all exercise of power by the national Government was lawful, and that opposition to the exercise of any such power in Congress, by persons lately in rebellion, was little short of treason, and really indicated an intention to overthrow the Union. All this, and much that one hears in the various Republican conventions on the other hand, furnishes the Democrats with abundant materials for the charge which they are every day making, that the Republicans really aim, by their assertion of the national authority, to wipe out State lines altogether and convert the Union into a centralized republic, with one huge "helm" or crank at Washington ready for a "strong man" to take hold of whenever there is any sign of trouble. It is not over a year since the Iowa Republican Convention laid down in express terms the doctrine that the national sovereignty covered everything, and that each citizen might look to it alone for the protection of *all* his rights—which meant, if it meant anything, that the State courts and legislatures were now only sitting on sufferance. Other Republican platforms in their zeal against the "pestilent heresy" have uttered similar sentiments, though in more ambiguous language. Taken in connection with the Republican talk about the need of General Grant as President, and about the things he can and will do if he is elected, it makes it very easy for the Democrats to accuse the Stalwart Republicans at least of intending a change in the form of the Government under cover of anxiety about freedom of elections at the South. There ought to be an end to this, and the way to put an end to it is for every man who writes or talks about "State rights" to begin by explaining what he means by this term. A man who maintains that Congress has the right to regulate Federal elections is not necessarily hostile to the rights of the States, and a man who maintains that the practice hitherto pursued for one hundred years, of leaving the States to elect members of Congress in their own way, is not necessarily hostile to the proper powers of the Federal Government. While there is nothing in the character and antecedents of the Democrats to upset the presumption that they entertain unconstitutional designs in the direction of centralization, let us add, on the other hand, that there is nothing in the character and antecedents of many of the Republican leaders to upset the presumption that they would not care how much centralization there was, provided they had possession of the machine and had their "old man" in the Presidential chair.

In fact, many of the latter have of late been affecting, if they do not feel, a contempt for the division of powers created by the Constitution, and talk as if what the world has for a whole century been admiring as one of the happiest and most fortunate of political inventions was in reality a huge blunder, to be rectified as soon as possible. They apparently would have us believe that the slaveholders' attempt at secession, begun and carried out in the interest of slavery and for the defence of slavery wholly and solely, had demonstrated the futility of the division of sovereignty which the founders of the Government deliberately settled on and the people solemnly adopted a hundred years ago, and that our duty now is to provide against "a new rebellion" by putting as much power as possible into the hands of the pure and disinterested persons who every four years provide us with candidates for the Presidency. But the truth is—and the more the people reflect on it the more clearly they perceive it—that if it was State rights which facilitated and stimulated the slaveholders' rebellion, it was also State rights which supplied the means by which it was put down. The working of the Constitution since 1789 has to be judged by the condition and resources of the North, as well as by the fanaticism of the South. It was the habit of local self-government, the pride of the individual States, the efficiency, capacity, and self-reliance of the State governments, which placed at the command of the Federal Government the vast material resources, and the undaunted and patient courage, by which the secessionists were foiled. It was a common and sometimes amusing boast at the North during the war that the rebellion "was the greatest rebellion the world ever saw"; and so it was, and people who keep one eye shut have been disposed to conclude ever since that whatever produced so big a rebellion must be wholly bad. They forget the probability, which may be fairly deduced from the experience of mankind, that with such a rebellion the kind of government some of them would fain see in Washington, with "a strong man at the helm" and United States marshals protecting United States citizens everywhere in *all* their rights, could never have dealt. A community which has taken refuge in the breeches pocket of a dictator, or an omnipotent parliament, has never yet had much success in putting down great rebellions. In fact, the rebellion, so far from demonstrating the danger of State rights, was a triumphant vindication of the wisdom of the constitutional division of authority, and of the value of local sovereignty. All the world so regards it. The ravings of a dozen or a thousand "ex-rebels" at Washington or elsewhere, no matter how extravagant, or the unpunished perpetration of a dozen or a thousand electioneering frauds and outrages in the Southern States, cannot create the shadow of a doubt that the United States Constitution as it now stands was a wonderful contrivance for the government of an immense community, without lodging anywhere power enough to put liberty in peril or abate public spirit. It is not a step behind the highly-centralized governments of the Old World; it is a step beyond them. It does not need mending by "A No. 1 soldiers"; it enables the people to dismiss its soldiers when the war is over, and employ civilians. It would be ridiculous to change or modify seriously an arrangement intended for the government of 200,000,000 or may be 500,000,000 of people, and which in all human probability is the only arrangement by which 500,000,000 of people could be governed without the surrender of their freedom, because we are to-day troubled by election disorders in two or three Congressional districts at the South.

We do not say that anything the Republicans have as yet asked for or attempted is unreasonable; but the discussion which has arisen out of the proceedings in Congress is mischievous as well as unprofitable. It turns popular attention away from the really serious questions of the day, and leads even a man of Mr. Sherman's standing to talk of labor and property as of comparatively little moment. They are, on the contrary, of the highest moment. It is on popular morality with regard to them, and on the legislation of the States and of Congress about them, that it depends whether we shall have any elections fifty or a hundred years hence; and the sooner we address ourselves to them, the better will it be both for the friends of "the reserved rights" and of "the implied powers."

THE LAND CRISIS IN ENGLAND.

ALL the accounts from England represent the gloom there as to the financial future as growing deeper day by day. Its intensity is largely due to the fact that confidence in the land as an investment is shaken for the first time in English history, and the effect on the nerves of a very large class of loss of confidence in the land as an investment is very like that of an earthquake. With trade crises of all kinds the public has always been familiar. Manufacturers and merchants have been exposed to tremendous and frequent risks since manufactures and commerce first began; one of the great sources, indeed, of the contempt of the landed

gentry for "business" has been its liability to sudden ups and downs. Agriculture, it is true, had its drawbacks in the shape of bad seasons and short crops, but then there were hardly ever more than two bad seasons in succession; they did not entail ruin, and when the good seasons came the land remained.

As a consequence of this the land in England has been made to bear vast and complicated burdens in the shape of trusts for widows and children and unmarried women, who were supposed to be secured in this way, as they could be secured in no other, against the risks to which money is ordinarily exposed. In truth, one of the great difficulties of the land system in England lies in the fact that the nominal owner of an estate is generally far from being the real owner, owing to the number of charges on it created for the benefit of relatives by the will or marriage settlement under which he holds it. Consequently, whatever threatens the rent of land not only fills the squire who lives in the manor house with dismay, but threatens with want a very large and very helpless body of persons who have until now considered themselves, as far as security was concerned, better provided for than any similar class in the world. The squire, even if his rents were cut off altogether, could support his family as a farmer; but he could not out of a farm continue his mother's jointure, and the allowances of his sisters and brothers, and cousins and aunts, or of his sons, who are often only able to stay in the army or the church or the civil service by the aid they receive from home. Moreover, it is the rent of the land which enables the landlord to learn the art of politics, and follow it as a calling without making a living out of it. As a farmer, making at best but a moderate support by close and daily attention to farm-work, he could not afford either to serve in Parliament or even attend to such of the minor duties of local government as now fall upon him, and he would rapidly lose the prestige which now gives him so many advantages over other candidates for elective offices among rural constituencies, besides making him a great social force.

It will thus be easily seen that should the land of England prove unable, under American competition, to pay rent to the owner of the fee, the result would be a social and political revolution the like of which has not been witnessed in modern times. The nearest approach to such a catastrophe in the magnitude of its consequences is the overthrow of the French aristocracy in the Revolution, and that of the slaveholders at the South in the late war; but then neither the French nobles nor the Southern slaveholders had played such a part in history, or filled such an important place in the political fabric of their country, as the English landed gentry. We are so much impressed in these philanthropic and progressive days by the undoubted evils which the English social system has wrought in regard to the condition of the English poor, that we are apt to forget the immense, and we may indeed say priceless, contribution which the English landholders have made to modern politics. If they did not originate the representative system of government by free parliaments, it is safe to say that they saved it from extinction at the hands of military monarchs, fostered it into strength and maturity, and adapted it to the uses of modern society so that it is now found working, substantially as they shaped it, all over the continent of Europe, and over the continent of America, and among the remote islands of the Southern Pacific. The peculiar collection, too, of legal ideas and legal rules which is known as English liberty, of which the common law of England, of the United States, and of the British colonies is the embodiment, and which is probably the most precious political inheritance any people has ever received, has been substantially the work of the English landowners, from the day on which the barons won the Great Charter from John at Runnymede down to that on which Wilberforce carried the emancipation of the negroes. Every great instrument in the English Constitution is their composition. It is true that the great rebellion of 1640 found the bulk of them in arms on the side of the king; but the best leaders of the Parliamentary army were taken from their ranks, and it is worthy of note that the permanent changes in, or additions to, the British Constitution left behind by the war were really fashioned in Parliament before the war began. The preservation of England in 1688 from the curse of arbitrary government and established Catholicism was also their work, and they drew the famous Bill of Rights, which has since been incorporated in the constitution of every Anglo-Saxon state.

That they have appeared within the last fifty years in the somewhat odious light of enemies of social and political progress is not surprising. They never were a reading class. Their ideas of the fitness of things in church and state came to them, as they are apt to come to men who live on and by the land, by tradition and habit rather than by reflection. Theirs came down from a period when nobody but freeholders was allowed to have anything to say in politics in any country in Europe; when, indeed, the offering of a political opinion by anybody else was regarded as an impertinence. Manufacturers and traders, therefore, they long looked on as intruders on their domain. The huge crop of social questions which made its appearance in the political arena as the result of the growth of population, and of the awakening of the public conscience in the great cities on the return of peace in 1815, was long a puzzle and offence to them. Nine-tenths of them were as much bewildered by the Reform Bill as the Duke of Wellington, and "did not see how the king's government could be carried on under it." When he, who was not a bad illustration of the intellectual condition of the class, was half way through the Peninsular War, and had seen the campaign of Italy and the battles of Jena and Austerlitz, he sent home urgent requests that only young men of "good family"—or, in other words, the sons of squires—should be sent out to him as officers. Luckily in England, however, the class, although it has furnished the bulk of the army officers down to our own day, has never taken to soldiering as a profession. The English squire's son was never willing to sink the gentleman in the officer, and always plumed himself more on being a gentleman than on being an officer, while in France and Germany, and in all other parts of Europe except Hungary, the landholding class, as a general rule, felt itself elevated by wearing the uniform, and cultivated a barbaric disdain for civil affairs and for the machinery of civil government.

But the English landholders, though so much in advance of their Continental brethren, were with great difficulty reconciled to the idea that the machinery of civil government could be managed by people who "had no stake in the country," as their phrase was —or, in other words, did not own land. Even the Whigs, who were for a century and a half the best defenders of constitutional freedom, found it very hard to admit traders to a share in the administration. It is not over twenty-five years since Lord Palmerston administered, in the House of Commons, a severe rebuke to Richard Cobden for meddling in foreign affairs, using the "ne sutor" quotation against him with a naïveté of which no minister in our day, not even the bumptious Salisbury, would be guilty. The sympathy of nearly the whole landed gentry with the South in the late war was due to the same profound confidence in the exclusive ability of "the landed interest" to carry on good government. In all the country-houses the South was pictured as a region covered with the estates of gentlemen of the English type, who when they led their dependents to the field were contending for English political ideas against unmannerly and free-thinking mechanics and pedlars. In large numbers of them to this day a society in which there are no gentlemen to carry on the county government, and generally to keep the social fabric from being broken up by rowdies and levellers, is something which they cannot conceive and do not like to think about. Their employment of such a personage as Lord Beaconsfield, whose antecedents are all of a kind most likely to be odious to them, to defend and carry out their political and social ideas seems at first sight an illustration of their freedom from caste prejudice. But the truth is they have always shown themselves disposed to use and reward liberally the services of ready and devoted speakers or writers, without abating any of their contempt for them. The stories current in London society of the freedom with which the Prime Minister is spoken of

in private by some landed aristocrats who follow his lead, are interesting proofs of the inability of his titles and orders to make real atonement for his birth and his glibness and dexterity. But taking them for all in all, it is safe to say that our civilization is not likely to produce any other class to which it will owe so much. Should they now disappear, they will have left in English law and government a monument to which there is nothing but the Roman law which can for a moment be compared, and under the shadow of which hundreds of millions are likely to sit for a thousand years.

A PLEASANT MOUNTAIN RETREAT.

FOR that growing class of summer travellers who seek in a mountain journey something besides mountain air, and the opportunity to idle away a few days or weeks in one of those vast and uncomfortable caravansaries which the tide of mountain-travel has brought into existence, the conventional mountain resort has, it must be acknowledged, lost much of its early charm. The railroads, it is true, bring every year to the New England mountains thousands of persons who could afford neither the time nor the money to visit them in any other way, and who, were it not for such facilities of travel, would, for the most part, go to their graves without having formed a very accurate idea even of what a mountain really looks like. But for the trained lover of nature there is little satisfaction, after all, in being shoved up a mountain before a panting and groaning locomotive ; nor does such a traveller, inveterate smoker though he be, care to be informed at every turn of his journey that it is essential to his happiness to "Smoke Vanity Fair"; while he whose mind is, or ought to be, intent on the sunrise will not look with much enthusiasm on the persistent claims of even so estimable a compound as the ubiquitous "Rising-Sun Stove Polish."

The visitor to the Yosemite may now enter that valley by one of three excellent carriage-roads, and cross and recross the Merced on patent iron bridges of the latest and most approved model ; but the romance which only a few years ago invested this journey with a peculiar charm has departed for ever. The loss is a serious one ; but then the lover of nature may, if he times his visit so, find some amends by joining a monster national Sunday-school festival at the base of El Capitan ; or even (but this, we fear, is too much to hope for every year) hear from the lips of such an eminent biologist as the Rev. Joseph Cook himself the why and the wherefore of the "weaving organisms of structureless bioplasm." Even the grandeur of the Colorado mountains must seem belittled by the furious struggles for wealth already carried far up their sides. Where, then, can the lover of unhackneyed mountain scenery now find that unalloyed nature which he misses in the New England mountains, and which is too fast disappearing from California and Colorado ?

Fortunately for him, the most beautiful, although by no means the grandest, mountain region of the continent is still but little known, and rarely visited. We refer to that group of mountain ranges in which the Appalachian system culminates, near its extreme southern upheaval. These mountains, which occupy in short, parallel ranges a territory some two hundred miles long by nearly one hundred wide, lie principally within the State of North Carolina, but with their highest peaks on or just across the Tennessee line. This region boasts of 21 peaks higher than Mount Washington ; 39 which exceed 6,000 feet ; and no less than 48 which overtop Mount Adams, the second of the New England mountains. Its southern districts, especially near Cæsar's Head, in Transylvania County, was long before the war, even, a favorite resort of the low-country planters, who often established pleasant and healthy summer homes here, and found abundant enjoyment in the unrivalled scenery and excellent hunting and fishing of this whole region. Asheville, too, and the valley of the French Broad, the great highway between this part of Carolina and Tennessee, are not unknown to tourists. That portion, however, of this mountainous region north of the French Broad—which comprises the counties of McDowell, Yancey, Mitchell, and Wautauga, and contains within its limits the highest land east of the Mississippi, Mount Mitchell, a peak of Black Mountain—has, until lately, remained so inaccessible and so little known that few travellers from the outside world, except here and there some enthusiastic botanist or physical geographer, have ever penetrated far into its wilds. The Carolina mountains are of two sorts : "Balsam Mountains," wooded to their very summits with a thick growth of fir ; and "Bald Mountains," with open, grassy summits, from some not very apparent cause nearly destitute of trees. Of the latter class the largest and finest is Roan Mountain, in Mitchell County ; and here, midway in the great saddle which sweeps down between Roan High Bluff and Roan High Cliff, and at an elevation not far from that of the summit of Mount Washington, an excellent little hotel was opened two years ago. Here, in perfect peace and comfort, and in an almost perfect summer climate, the lover of nature can enjoy a view extending over the mountain peaks of five States, and of its kind probably without a rival. Here he may wander for miles on foot or in the saddle over the rolling, lawn-like summits ; and, if his visit is made in the month of June, may feast his eyes on the gorgeous bloom of the Southern rhododendron, parent of that race which graces our Northern gardens, and here extending almost uninterruptedly over hundreds of acres just above the forest line.

As the present writer can gratefully testify from personal experience, there is in all this mountain region complete immunity from hay-fever ; and the mosquito and the black fly, pests of the Northern woodsman, are everywhere conspicuous by their absence. The forests of the North Carolina mountains deserve more than a passing notice. No one should boast of having seen the full beauty of the forests of the north temperate zone until he has ridden through those which clothe the mighty flanks of these mountains. Here, nourished by a soil of unsurpassed fertility, copiously watered, unravished by fire, and still exempt from the inroads of the axe, are the richest and most beautiful forests of the continent. In order that their wealth in species may be better appreciated they should be contrasted with the forests of some less favored regions. On the whole continent of Europe there are, according to the best authorities, 33 genera and 85 species of indigenous trees ; in this little North Carolina district there are 39 genera and 86 species. In all New England there are 32 genera and 71 species ; in the White Mountain region proper but 22 genera and 40 species. As compared with the mountain regions of the West the difference is still more striking. In the Rocky Mountains of Colorado and Utah there are but 17 genera with 25 species of trees; and in all the central portion of the California sierras the number is only increased to 20 genera with 35 species. The forests of the Western mountains, and to a less degree also of the New England mountains, are for the most part composed of gloomy pines and spruces, while that of the Carolina mountains consists almost exclusively of broad-leaved deciduous trees, which give it the charm of unsurpassed summer verdure and unequalled autumn coloring. In this forest are found the noblest oaks, hickories, chestnuts, walnuts, and tulip-trees North America can boast. Here the magnolias of the South in great variety mingle with the birches, maples, and hemlocks of the North. Here the different gum-trees, the buckeye, the lovely silver-leaved linden, the sorrel-tree, the flowering dog-wood, and the silver-bell-tree reach their greatest development ; and here one may ride, in the valleys, for miles through continuous thickets of rhododendrons and laurels of such arborescent dimensions and luxurious growth as this forest alone can boast.

This region north of the French Broad may be entered from Marion in North Carolina, or from Johnson City in Tennessee, a station on the East Tennessee, Virginia, and Georgia Railroad, Roan Mountain lying about thirty miles from either point. The Tennessee route will perhaps be found the most convenient for travellers from the North, and the stage-road which leads from Johnson City to Bakersville, a town at the foot of the mountain, crosses the summit of the Unaka range, and affords the best view of the Roan easily attainable. A journey through the North Carolina mountains will best be made on horseback, for the roads in all this region are execrable; and the traveller, if he is wise, will restrict his baggage to the capacity of a pack-mule. Thus equipped, he may travel with great independence and perfect safety and comfort.

Among the many pleasant recollections one brings back from such a journey, by no means the least pleasant is that of the invariable kindness and hospitality of the western North-Carolinians ; and the traveller's preconceived notions of the cost of a mountain journey, if acquired in New England or California, will receive a rude though not unwelcome shock when the universally moderate demands made on his purse in these Carolina mountains are summed up.

ENGLISH POLITICIANS AND IRISH PRIESTS.

LONDON, July 29, 1879.

THE attitude of the two great parties on the Irish University question cannot be considered as politically creditable. Each is desirous to make the other its cat's-paw, and to avoid being turned to that base use itself. On both sides the necessity of settling the question is proclaimed ; on both sides the consciousness is strong that it cannot be settled without making concessions to Roman Catholics which will offend the narrowly Protestant feeling of England and Scotland. Each party

wishes the thing to be done, and each party wishes to make the other do it, and to be able to use the only means of doing it as a weapon against its rival. Powerful as is the Jingoism of foreign politics, the Jingoism of Protestantism is still more potent. The religious Jingo is, to use a phrase of the streets, "the living Jingo." Mr. Gladstone's success in the general election of 1868 was due in large part to the scheme of concurrent endowment, involving, of course, the endowment of Roman Catholicism in Ireland proposed by Lord Mayo on behalf of Mr. Disraeli's Government. The disestablishment of the Irish Church recommended itself to an awakened sense of justice in the English people ; but its cordial acceptance was owing, in a very large degree, to the fact that it was thought to make impossible for ever any such scheme as Lord Mayo's. To make assurance doubly sure, and expressly to exclude the endowment of Roman Catholic teaching in schools and universities, a clause in the Irish Church Act expressly reserved the surplus fund mainly for the relief of unavoidable calamity and suffering. Of course, the legislation of one Parliament does not bind its successor ; but one would have thought, except for the speeches of Mr. W. E. Forster, Mr. Lowe, Lord Kimberley, and Lord O'Hagan, that an understanding, to which Mr. Gladstone's Government was a party, binds for at least a few years the action of its surviving members. Yet these gentlemen gave their support in fact or in principle to the O'Conor Don's measure, which practically made over a large part of the Church surplus to Roman Catholic colleges and a virtually Roman Catholic university.

The O'Conor Don's scheme has, however, as I said it would do, disappeared from the order-book. Its place has been taken by a measure introduced by Lord Cairns into the House of Lords, and now awaiting consideration and amendment by the Commons in Committee. The bill will probably pass. It dissolves the Queen's University, to establish on its ruins a sort of London University in Ireland, with which the existing Queen's Colleges will be affiliated, together with such other colleges, chiefly in practice Roman Catholic, as may associate themselves with it. Members of these colleges and students unattached may present themselves for matriculation and degrees. By an amendment, to be moved in committee on behalf of the Government, money prizes of various sorts, exhibitions, scholarships and fellowships, will be instituted ; but they will be the reward of individual merit, and there will be no payment by results to the colleges from which the students may come. Thus the endowment of Roman Catholic teaching will be avoided. The bill, which in its present form is based mainly on suggestions made by Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice, may undergo changes of detail in committee. It may be possible to save the Queen's University, which has done a good work, and to make it the centre of the new arrangements. The measure in something like its present form will, however, be allowed to pass. But the Roman Catholic priesthood will never accept it as a settlement. They will take it as an acknowledgment of debt, and as payment in part, and will fairly enough sue for the rest of what is owing to them. If the Roman Catholics of Ireland have a grievance in the matter of education, if it is a wrong that they should be treated as members of every other church and sect are, the grievance is a great one, and demands a large and generous remedy. They are practically the Irish people, and exceptional legislation of a petty sort, such as might suit the scruples of a small and capricious clique, is out of the question. If, on the other hand, they have no grievance, other than not being the objects of favoritism, it was unnecessary to disturb the system of religious neutrality on the part of the state which was consummated in the disestablishment of the Irish Church, and the simultaneous disendowment of Maynooth and abolition of the Presbyterian Regium Donum.

The grievance is, I believe, entirely factitious. It has a history ; it is in a great degree the result of the rivalries of English statesmen and the exigencies of English parties. The failure of Mr. Gladstone's attempt to lead the House of Commons in 1866, and especially to carry the Reform Bill of that year to a successful issue, was keenly felt. Lord Russell's ministers resigned office, but by no means acquiesced in their exclusion from power. As one of them said, when they were kicked out they held many conferences to consider how they could get back again. The Irish vote was deemed indispensable, and the Irish vote was thought to depend upon the Irish bishops. The office of Chief Secretary for Ireland in Lord Russell's, and afterwards in Mr. Gladstone's, Government was filled by Mr. Chichester Fortescue, now Lord Carlingford, an able and upright man, but too prone to the belief that the secret of governing Ireland lay in "Castle understandings" and in secret bargains with the clergy. During the last days of Lord Russell's ministry a supplementary charter for the Queen's University was devised and issued on the sole authority of the Crown, and without the cognizance of Parliament. It affiliated Roman Catholic colleges to the University, and gave the Ultramontane party a large representation in the senate, or governing body. Fortunately, the trick did not succeed. There was a legal as well as a moral flaw in the proceedings of the Government, and, appeal being made to the courts of law, the supplementary charter was declared to be null and void. Lord Russell's Government fell upon another issue ; but through it the Liberal party had offered itself to the Irish bishops. The Conservative party, looking forward to a precarious majority, if to any majority at all, at the next dissolution, could not afford to be behind its rivals, and Lord Mayo's scheme of concurrent endowment was submitted to the House of Commons. There was hurried deliberation on the part of the Liberal chiefs, and, after some delays, due mainly, it is believed, to the reluctance and resistance of the eminent statesman who was afterwards most conspicuously associated with the measure, it was resolved to play the card of disendowment and disestablishment. The old Whig traditions of hostility to Protestant ascendency brought the moderate and aristocratic section of the Liberal party into union on this point with the Nonconformist hostility to state churches, and with the Roman Catholic eagerness to remove what was rhetorically called "the last badge of supremacy." The result was what all the world knows. Mr. Gladstone came into office at the head of a Liberal majority strong in numbers, and still stronger in union and devotion to its chief, and the Anglican Church in Ireland was disestablished and disendowed. Unfortunately, it was impossible to stop here. Mr. Chichester Fortescue's subterranean tactics conspired unhappily with Mr. Gladstone's ecclesiastical leanings. Mr. Gladstone has never been a liberal in academic politics. While he was formally leader of the Liberal party he opposed Mr. (now Lord) Coleridge's bills for the abolition of religious tests in the colleges and universities of Oxford and Cambridge ; and although he finally assented to these measures, it was under the irresistible pressure of his party, and as the logical consequence of his position. He has always been unpopular with the academic Liberals of his own university, but for whose distrust he might possibly before this have regained the seat the loss of which was probably the keenest mortification of his political life. The supporter at Oxford of Keble College, in which the system of religious tests has been renewed, all Mr. Gladstone's sympathies are with the demands of the Roman Catholic hierarchy. The absence of state provision for the maintenance of ecclesiastical ascendency in Irish university education was, therefore, in his view, a grievance and a scandal, and as such he denounced it. Mr. Gladstone's pamphlets on Vaticanism, and his assaults on the policy of Pius IX., have misled many people. His anger is not that of a Liberal or a Protestant, but of a schismatic Catholic. His sacerdotalism, combined with the Castle manœuvres and party exigencies, led to the introduction of the Irish University Bill, which really overthrew his Ministry, and, after an interval of six years, has dictated his support of the amendment in which Mr. Shaw, as the leader of the Irish Home-Rule party, covertly reaffirmed the propositions of the O'Conor Don's bill.

That the Irish Roman Catholic laity feel a grievance in the matter of university education does not appear from their conduct, though it does appear in the declarations in which the influence of the priests on the women of their households compels them to join. Though the population of Ireland has decreased since the establishment of the Queen's Colleges the attendance at those colleges has greatly increased. The Roman Catholics are a large majority of the whole population, but they are a small minority of the upper and middle ranks ; and what may be considered the naturally university-going class among them furnishes its full proportion to Trinity and the Queen's Colleges. It does this in spite of episcopal threats and censures, and the conspiracy of successive governments, Liberal and Conservative, with the priesthood. The aim of the Roman Catholic hierarchy is to make Ireland into two nations, Catholic and Protestant. A novel not long since published by a Roman Catholic lady, 'Hogan, M.P.,' shows clearly how every form and method of social intercourse between Roman Catholics and Protestants is discountenanced by the hierarchy, as likely to lead to religious laxity and indifference. Educational separation is only a part and means of a larger and more complete social separation. The Roman Catholic laity, influenced by family ambition or natural friendships and feelings of good neighborhood, resist this dictation with more spirit and success than might be expected. But they may be overpowered, and a state of things will be brought about which will give over Ireland anew to social and religious strife, verging on social and religious warfare, and which may compel either the forcible

interposition of England, or the severance of the connection between the two countries. These are tendencies which may be counteracted, but they exist and are powerfully abetted by Mr. Gladstone's hatred of unecclesiastical education, and by the bids of rival partisans for the electioneering influence of the priests. † † †

QUEEN ELIZABETH AND THE HUGUENOTS.

PARIS, July 24, 1879.

AT various epochs the French Government has sent persons to London in order to find in the State Paper Office documents concerning the history of France. The first mission of this kind was given in 1764 to a M. de Bréquigny, who remained nearly three years in London with six copyists whom he had brought with him. The collection of documents which he gathered still bears his name. These documents come down as far as the year 1515. In 1833 M. de Salvandy, Minister of Public Instruction, sent M. Francisque Michel to England, who chiefly occupied himself with old chronicles. I have now before me a volume just published by Count H. de la Ferrière, under the title of 'Le XVIe Siècle et les Valois,' from unpublished documents in the British Museum and the Record Office.

The collection of the "State Papers" was created by order of Queen Elizabeth, and its nucleus was first the collection of all the papers of the reign of Henry VIII.; it does not contain any paper of an older date than 1500. It is subdivided into Domestic, or what concerns the administration of England, and Foreign, or the papers which concern all other countries. In the foreign department France alone, for the period from 1500 to 1600, comes in for 134 volumes folio, of from 500 to 1,000 pages each. It is very interesting to study Elizabeth in this collection, and especially in her relations with France. It is a pity that M. de la Ferrière gives us only a dry compilation of documents, for with the elements which he had in hand he could have drawn a very interesting history. He follows the chronological order, passing from one subject to another: his book is therefore wanting in dramatic unity, but it is, of course, of the highest value to the historical student. M. de la Ferrière very rarely indulges in any generalization; he cannot, however, conceal his admiration for Elizabeth, and he judges her in these words:

"Elizabeth is in advance of all the contemporary statesmen of England; those who come after her will have nothing to do but to walk in her footsteps. Like Peter the Great, like Frederic the Second, she left her ideas as a legacy to her people. The policy which she instituted, and which England has only too well adopted, can be summed up in these two characteristic traits: (1) she appeals for the first time to the opinion of her people, to the opinion of Europe, by a manifesto directed against the policy of France [this was the Reformation's spirit of examination applied to the acts of government]; (2) the right of intervention is loudly invoked, first in Scotland, then in France, and takes the form of a political dogma. These two lines of conduct once admitted, we shall see Elizabeth maintain herself on them inflexibly. Her whole reign will only be the logical and invariable consequence of these principles."

Peace had been made between France and England in 1559; but the young husband of Mary Stuart signed thus a treaty which was made separately with Spain: "Francis, by the grace of God king of Scotland, of England and Ireland, Dauphin of France." Soon afterwards the death of Henry II. made Francis king of France. On the 5th of March, 1560, the Privy Council sends Queen Elizabeth a memorial touching the pretensions of France. Francis II., Mary Stuart, and the Guises are represented in this memorial as the mortal enemies of England. The Privy Council invites the Queen to intervene in Scotland, to assist the Scots and to turn the French out of that kingdom. The Privy Council was only following the dictates of Elizabeth, who had already made a treaty (the treaty of Berwick, of February 15, 1560) with the Lords of the Congregation. M. Teulat has written a book on the 'Relations of France with Scotland,' and we find in it long extracts from a declaration of the Lords of the Congregation, which was printed and spread all over England by order of Elizabeth. It was read in all public places, translated into French and sent to France. The ambassador of France, M. de Seurre, complained bitterly, saying that "the Queen of England had collected a powerful army on land and on sea, as if she dreaded an invasion. The King of France had proposed to her to be arbiter between herself and the Scotch rebels. She had made conditions which were not acceptable—the return of all the French from Scotland; she had sent an army to the frontier; she had violated the Scotch territory . . . . there was nothing left for the ambassador but to protest." The Queen answered the same day (April 20) "that the Dauphin and the Queen of Scotland had assumed in various writings the title of King and Queen of England, that in the house of the Queen of Scotland the arms of England were everywhere added to the arms of Scotland. . . ." To this were added complaints against the French administration in Scotland; but clearly Elizabeth had shown her inmost heart in the first complaint.

The French made an heroic defence at Leith, but the garrison was reduced by famine, and Elizabeth sent Cecil to Scotland and opened negotiations of peace. At her request Francis II. sent two plenipotentiaries. The instructions of Elizabeth to Cecil can be thus summed up: evacuation of Scotland by the English and the French; a very limited number of French authorized to remain in a few places in Scotland; Calais claimed, but without insistance; the renunciation by Mary Stuart of the English arms, and her formal renunciation of the crown of England; the recognition of the treaty passed between Elizabeth and the Lords of the Congregation. Mary of Lorraine died during the negotiations, the history of which will be found in full in the volume of M. de la Ferrière; they ended in the treaty of Lislebourg. Francis II. died, and on this occasion Elizabeth sent to France as ambassador extraordinary the Earl of Bedford, whose secret mission consisted in opening intimate relations with the Protestants, with the King of Navarre, the Prince of Condé, and with Coligny, to hinder in every possible way the reunion of a general council of the Church, which was asked for by those who flattered themselves with the hope of reconciling the Reformation and the Catholic Church, and not to allow the marriage of Mary Stuart with a foreign prince. Bedford bore an autograph letter from Elizabeth to Mary. He had also an official mission, which consisted in asking for the immediate ratification of the treaty of Lislebourg.

Throckmorton, who was ambassador at the Court of France, was working with Bedford; they both did their best to hinder Catherine de Médicis from sending French bishops to the Council of Trent, and they deputed an Italian Jew called Tremelius, who had made himself a Catholic and afterwards a Protestant, to the German princes. The instructions of Tremelius were against the meeting at Trent. Catherine de Médicis, who was of the Machiavellian school, showed at that time some inclination towards the Protestants, from fear of the house of Guise. Throckmorton encouraged her, as well as Elizabeth. The Queen of England, while she sent letters in her own hand to Catherine, negotiated secretly with the Protestant chiefs. She gave an open mission to Sidney; Sidney was instructed to "explain to the King of France and to the Queen, his mother, how the quarrels and controversies might be settled without any effusion of blood. Her first intention is the glory of God; the second the happiness of her good brother, the King of France, in his young age; thirdly, the good of the Prince of Condé and of his house" (Westminster, May 10, 1562). Sidney was sent as a sort of mediator, but he failed in all his attempts. Civil war was imminent in France, and on the 15th of April the *Vidame* of Chartres took possession of Havre; in the month of July he embarked at Dieppe, and left with a secret mission for England. Havre was to be the price paid by the French Huguenots for the alliance of Elizabeth. All the details of this painful negotiation are now known. Havre was to be occupied by English troops, while France and England were still at peace. Elizabeth wrote a declaration, the original of which is preserved in the Record Office; in this declaration she represents herself as the defender of the King of France and of his province of Normandy against the usurpations of the house of Guise: "We, with good intentions towards the King our good brother (whom we know to be, on account of his age, unable to hinder his subjects from ruining each other), have ordained and commanded to aid and defend said towns (Rouen, Dieppe, Havre de Grâce)." This proclamation is dated September 27, 1562, and soon afterwards Havre was delivered to the English troops. Elizabeth occupied a French city and had still two ambassadors in France, Throckmorton, who contrived rather willingly to become a prisoner of the Huguenot army, and Smith, his successor.

Rouen was taken by the royal troops and preserved from an English occupation. At that time the death of the King of Navarre gave to the Prince of Condé the highest rank in the Protestant party. Elizabeth wrote him a pressing letter; she was afraid that he would become reconciled with Catherine. Condé answered her two days before the bloody battle of Dreux. The Record Office is in possession of the very detailed account of this battle sent by Coligny to the Queen of England. It has also letters of the Princess of Condé to the Queen; she claimed money which Elizabeth had promised to Condé, and which was not forthcoming. Condé had been made a prisoner at Dreux, and Coligny wrote letter after letter to the Queen (these letters show that Elizabeth alleged that she had not treated with Condé but with the inhabitants of Normandy). Coligny

sent his son-in-law, Téligny, to England. The German *Reiter* could not be paid, the Huguenot army had no powder, no guns. The Protestant cause seemed almost lost; still Elizabeth, content with the possession of Havre, did not help it materially. The assassination of the Duke of Guise before Orléans changed suddenly the course of events. Coligny wrote from Caen to Elizabeth to inform her of this great event.

Condé found himself the arbiter of the kingdom; he concluded peace with great haste with Catherine; he informed Elizabeth *pro forma* of his negotiation, but it was well understood that Elizabeth could not keep Havre. In the short note in which Condé makes his conditions is the line: "L'on deschassera tous estrangers hors du royaume de France." Coligny announced the peace to Elizabeth; the Queen was dissatisfied with it, she wrote to Coligny and to Condé expressing fears for the future, and insisting upon the execution of the conventions made between the Huguenots and herself. "We do not doubt your respect for the conventions made between you and us, though we hope with the help of God to maintain ourselves against all events; we also wish to advise you, out of a true and sincere friendship, to fear that you may have to repent of a too great haste in the cause which you pretend to forward, and of thus forgetting yourselves as well as the friends and confederates who have helped you in your great necessities, and incurred great expenses and pains for your good." Condé was not much moved by these expostulations; he quite understood the game of Elizabeth; she had insisted upon the occupation of Havre, wishing to exchange Havre for Calais. Catherine de Médicis wished, naturally, to keep Calais and to retake Havre. When Condé put in the terms of the peace of Amboise the clause promising "the expulsion of all foreigners from France," it applied in his mind, though Coligny had doubts on the subject, to the English at Havre, as much as to the German auxiliary forces. Catherine showed herself at that moment a true queen of France; in the duel between her and Elizabeth Havre was the prize to be won, and the "Florentine" won it, with the help of the Huguenots as well as of the Catholics.

The siege of Havre became a national enterprise, and it was hoped for a moment that the religious differences would be lost in one common object. M. de la Ferrière says that the responsibility of the loss of Havre to England fell almost entirely on Elizabeth. "She acted in this war as she did in Ireland, and in all other wars. Her parsimony never allowed her to seize the favorable opportunities; she could never resign herself to a great sacrifice, to a vigorous and decisive effort. She had had time enough; she had been occupying Havre eight months. The correspondence shows that reinforcements, arms, everything was wanting in time. The despatches between Warwick, Elizabeth, and her councillors would fill a whole volume; but nothing was done in season, and when the fleet of Admiral Clinton left Portsmouth and came in view of Havre the town was already in possession of the French. Catherine de Médicis entered the city, though the plague had decimated the English garrison; she gave herself the satisfaction of looking on the great English fleet which was carrying six thousand useless soldiers, with guns and ammunition. The young king made his entry a few days afterwards into Rouen; Catherine proclaimed his majority, and by her order the Chancellor de l'Hôpital proclaimed the annulment of the pretended rights of the English crown in the city of Calais. Elizabeth was obliged, after a vain struggle, to accept terms of peace from France: the rights of the two countries were reserved; the French hostages detained by Elizabeth were set free for a ransom of 120,000 crowns; free-trade was established between the French and English subjects.

Correspondence.

THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion that has been going on in your columns in regard to the teaching of "non-sectarian" theology, and to the propriety of an increased endowment for the Divinity School of Harvard College, your correspondents, although of the clerical profession, seem to me to misunderstand the points at issue.

No one doubts that a so-called science of religions, or that the history of the development of theological doctrines and religious sects, may be taught according to a purely historic method—that is, in a non-sectarian manner. Instruction in these subjects may, as you have pointed out, very properly form part of a scheme of university teaching. But the function of a divinity school is to teach other things in addition to these, in order to prepare its students for the ministry. It must, if it fulfil its function, teach certain specific religious doctrines. Its teachers cannot help teaching sectarian theology. The most lax Unitarian minister is, and ought to be, sectarian, no less than the most rigid Orthodox. Both alike believe in God, but one has an essentially different conception of the nature of God from the other. Religious dogma is not, cannot be, ought not to be excluded from the most liberal pulpit. Men in all ages have been ready to die for sectarian doctrines of the most opposite descriptions. There has been sectarian persecution within the memory of man in the Unitarian sect itself. It is a curious symptom of the present condition of religious thought (and, I must add, of the mental training of the clergy) that there should be clerical advocates of a school *for the education of clergymen* on the basis of a non-sectarian theology. The blood of the martyrs, Protestant and Catholic alike, protests against the notion; and so does simple common sense. And, in fact, the Divinity School at Cambridge, though it may not insist on any doctrine as essential to salvation, has been a sectarian school, and can no more help being sectarian than the school at Yale or Princeton.

This being the case, that part of the community which regards Harvard College as a national institution, and as one of the most important of national institutions, cannot but feel a deep regret at what they esteem the grave error of its eminent president in his endeavor to strengthen a sectarian school which is connected with the College by no necessary bond. So far as Harvard College has, or is supposed to have, a sectarian character, or even a sectarian bias, so far is its growth impeded, its proper work hindered, and its national influence diminished. No one would object to the existence of a Unitarian Divinity School in the vicinity of the College, any more than they object to the existence of the excellent Episcopal Divinity School at Cambridge. And if President Eliot should succeed in his effort to increase the endowment of the Unitarian School it is to be hoped that he will see that his first duty to the College, for which he has heretofore done so much, is to take measures by which the Divinity School, because in the nature of things it is, and must be, a sectarian institution, is completely separated from it.

A Harvard Alumnus.

August 2, 1879.

Notes.

THE Miscellaneous Writings of the late Dr. Francis Lieber are in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co.——G. P. Putnam's Sons' fall publications include 'Studies in German Literature,' edited from the MS. of the late Bayard Taylor by Mrs. Taylor and Mr. Geo. H. Boker; 'The Science of Ethics,' by President John Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin; 'A Lady's Life in the Rocky Mountains,' by Isabella Bird; and two volumes of 'The New Plutarch,' viz., Abraham Lincoln, by Charles G. Leland, and Coligny, by Walter Besant.——D. Appleton & Co. have published in English Haeckel's 'Freedom in Science and Teaching,' of which we took notice at some length in No. 723 of the *Nation*. What adds to the interest at least of the volume is a preface contributed by Prof. Huxley. He appears on the scene neither as a partisan, he says, nor as a peacemaker; but while expressing agreement with Virchow's main propositions, he condemns him for proposing to exclude the doctrine of evolution from the schools, while consenting to the teaching of theological fables, and severely reproaches him with introducing politics into scientific discussion by connecting evolution and socialism as cause and effect.——Mr. F. W. Christern sends us a specimen, "The Tempest," of a Hamburg edition of Shakspere's plays issued separately, edited with critical notes and introductory notices by Prof. W. Wagner. Both notes and notices are brief and to the point; and the form is convenient for the hand.——From Cassell, Petter & Galpin we have received the first six parts of a serial publication called *Science for All*, to the frequency and duration of which no clew is given in the prospectus. Its aim, to deal in a proper manner with the elementary facts of science as observed in every-day phenomena and the commonest objects, is strictly carried out by the several contributors, among whom many well-known and authoritative names occur. Illustrations, as is always to be expected in the publications of this house, abound and are of good quality; not a few are derived from the scenery and natural productions of the United States.——Some recent issues from the Government Printing-Office, though dated 1878, are the reports of Prof. Eugene W. Hilgard and Dr. F. V. Hopkins on the specimens obtained from borings between the Mississippi and Lake Borgne in 1874, which prove the practicability of a ship

canal; Lieut. Ruffner's report on explorations and surveys in the Department of the Missouri, consisting of a five months' reconnoissance in southwestern Colorado, the great silver region of the State, and, perhaps, of the continent, by Lieut. C. A. H. McCauley; a paper on the use of the barometer on surveys and reconnoissances, by Lieut.-Col. R. S. Williamson; and vol. vi., Botany, of the Wheeler Survey. The last-named is a quarto volume, mainly a catalogue, and beautifully illustrated with figures of twenty-seven new species and ten rare ones. In the chapter on economic botany Dr. J. T. Rothrock states that the medicinal anti-periodic effects of the Eucalyptus globulus have always disappointed him.——A double number, July–August, of the *Library Journal*, contains the proceedings at the late convention of librarians in Boston, with some of the principal papers in full.——The general meeting of the American Social Science Association will be held at Saratoga, Sept. 9–12. Some of the more remarkable papers are on the voting of women in school elections (Prof. A. P. Peabody), Chinese immigration (Prof. S. Wells Williams), the causation of yellow fever (Dr. C. A. White), the place of the practical man in American public affairs (Hamilton A. Hill), the colored exodus (Frederick Douglass and others), co-operative stores in England and America (Wm. A. Hovey), etc.——The *Athenæum* states that Major Serba Pinto's account of his journey across Africa will be brought out simultaneously in several languages before Christmas; in English, by Sampson Low & Co., who will also publish more immediately 'Kaffirland: a Ten Months' Campaign,' by Frank N. Streatfield, commandant of native levies during the Kaffir War of 1878.——On July 17 the court gave judgment in the Seinguerlet case, described in the *Nation* of July 3. The decision was in favor of the defendant, and the plaintiff was condemned to pay all the costs. It was found that no original descriptions and remarks of Busch were reproduced in Seinguerlet's volume, and that as Busch could have no copyright in Bismarck's utterances, especially as he was not the only hearer of them, the defendant had not infringed the copyright treaty in copying these remarks.——It would seem that writers for periodicals fare better in Germany than elsewhere, for Mr. Paul Lindau, editor of *Die Gegenwart* and *Nord und Süd*, is trying to bring about a convention of editors of magazines and weekly journals in order to establish a tariff for the payment of contributors. *Mehr Licht* says of the scheme that it is highly desirable to carry it into effect, for "bounds must be put to the impudence with which certain German authors take advantage of their at best doubtful reputation."

—To "guide rather than to manufacture a migratory movement" from the crowded cities and populous centres of the country to parts of the United States where land and air are abundant and cheap, is the object of the Co-operative Colony Aid Association of this city, which some of our readers may now hear of for the first time. "Through the liberality of the publisher," Mrs. Elizabeth Thompson, it has just begun the publication of a monthly paper called the *Worker*, of which we have received the first number. This devotes its space to a history of the association and a prospectus of its aims, an address "To the Capitalists" by Felix Adler, articles on "Co-operative Farming" and subjects germane to the object of the society, various items of news, and even a number of what might be called colonization jokes. The advocacy of co-operative colonization appears to be sensibly conducted, and the circulation of the paper among the more reflective of our artisan class should certainly do much towards the transformation of some of them into members of the "peasantry," for which this country is so much better adapted, and every extraneous addition to which helps to remedy the evil of overcrowding that so afflicts the tenement districts of our large cities. It can, however, do no good to the cause to copy from the Chicago *Socialist* misleading and unfair extracts (denuded of their contexts) from the utterances of the press and of individuals upon socialism. The editor is the Rev. R. Heber Newton and the business manager E. E. Barnum. Upon the Association's Executive Committee are Rev. Dr. Rylance, Rev. Dr. Deems, Joseph Seligman, F. B. Thurber, John Wheeler, and other well-known gentlemen.

—In the notice of Captain George E. Belknap's article on the soundings made by the *Tuscarora* in 1874, we (*Nation*, No. 736, p. 95) did not mention that Sir William Thomson's wire sounding-machine had been condemned by the English Admiralty, and that to Captain Belknap belongs the credit of proving the utility of the Thomson machine. It has found its way gradually on the telegraph-cable steamers, and bids fair to become an important adjunct in determining the position of ocean steamers when approaching the land. To those who are familiar with the use of the wire sounding-machines of Thomson as modified by Lieut.-Commander C. D. Sigsbee, of the Coast Survey steamer *Blake*, it seems the height of presumption to question, as has been done by Mr. Wild in 'Thalassa,' soundings made by wire, and to think for a moment of controlling their accuracy by comparison with the soundings of the *Challenger*, which were all made by the old method with hemp rope, and which from the nature of the case are subject to a very considerable error in soundings over 1,500 fathoms in depth.

—From the time of the publication of 'The Descent of Man,' if we remember aright, to the present day Dr. McCosh has been instant in season combating with ceaseless activity the more advanced doctrines of the Evolutionists. His point of view is not perhaps so nearly that of exact science as the scientific infidelity of the day could wish; but until Dr. Tyndall confines himself to his natural philosophy and Professor Huxley to his biology, we do not see that the criticism of Dr. McCosh can be blamed for following them into the domain of abstract speculation. They are, indeed, looked upon in professional circles as more or less poachers in these preserves and justly open to the discharges of the Princeton philosopher's spring-guns. Mr. Huxley certainly felt the edge of Dr. McCosh's weapons, and when he lectured here was not allowed to depart with his dangerous doctrines uncontroverted. And now that he has written an exposition of Hume's philosophy, nothing is less surprising than that Dr. McCosh should have come forward in the current *Popular Science Monthly* with an appropriate antidote. The latter says: "I venture not to urge objections to his [Huxley's] biology, of which he is a master, and to be reviewed only by a master in his department. But he is not so formidable as a metaphysician, and one with but a sling and stone may cast him down." It is not to be doubted that Dr. McCosh has erudition and ability sufficient to swing his sling to good purpose, and even, if it be not presumptuous to say so, to the discomfiture of Professor Huxley. His article is entitled "Agnosticism in Huxley's 'Hume,'" and what he has to say of the way in which the negative positions of both Hume and Huxley are to be met is discriminating, in the main large-tempered, and on the whole so satisfactory that in Princeton, at least, it will be taken as almost axiomatic. He is not, however, content with this, and proceeds to "estimate the influence upon young men likely to be drawn into its vortex"—the vortex of agnosticism. And it is for this element of his argument, always inseparable from his arguments of this kind, that we have alluded to his paper. He always leaves a discussion which has to do with truth to dwell on the moral consequences of certain views of truth; his moral tag is as inevitable as Æsop's *hæc fabula docet*. He does, indeed, say: "I am not to be charged with the fallacy of arguing that because a system is charged with bad results it must therefore be false." But a disclaimer is seldom very effective, and never answers a charge of unconscious self-deception. At best, Dr. McCosh, dwelling upon the "tendencies" of agnosticism, is aside from the point. Most people get their idea of a man from the general impression he makes rather than from any specific utterance, and, after reading this "sermon to young men," they will be apt to infer that Dr. McCosh fears possible resultant evil more than actual fundamental error; that he does not differ essentially from Mr. W. R. Greg, who dreads truth that affords him "no help" and brings him "no comfort." This is a "tendency" of Dr. McCosh which "orthodoxy"—generally pretty confident of its rationality—will lament far more than agnosticism.

—Mr. Leslie Stephen, in his 'Hours in a Library,' recently said some very severe things of the old *Edinburgh Review*. "It is generally dull," he says, "and when not dull flimsy," and "few of the articles would have a chance of acceptance by the editor of a first-rate periodical to-day." And in spite of Mr. Stephen's proverbial iconoclasm, and in spite, too, of the recent revival of respect for the original staff of the *Review*, due to Mr. Trevelyan's biography of his uncle and to the correspondence of Mr. Napier, most of us, probably, have a secret but sincere sympathy with his view; especially if we recall the difficulty of certain persistent attempts to find in the essays of Brougham, of Jeffrey on Scott, or of Sydney Smith on Methodism, say, the "brilliancy" which dazzled the last generation. But some of the reviewers have always seemed in certain respects safe, and though the present generation by no means think of Macaulay as his own did, most people, we venture to say, will be unprepared to find a wayside criticism upon him in the current *Macmillan* quite as severe as Mr. Leslie Stephen's upon his associates. Certain of Macaulay's faults are obvious enough—"What critic can't point them out?" as Thackeray enquired in his "Roundabout" notice of Macaulay's death—and even his enthusiastic admirers must see by this time that, if

the charge of unscrupulousness so frequently brought against him is unjust, the charge of inability to "penetrate beyond the apparent rhetorical truth of things" is just, and that it is quite as grave. But what he did for history, to make it "familiar rather than heroic," to popularize its erudition, to rid it of its old pompous stateliness and endue it with vivid picturesqueness, cannot be forgotten and must remain Macaulay's monument for all time, one would say. His own history may be, as it has been called, a Whig brief in five volumes; all the same it has illustrated the value of his method as perfectly as his own inability to apply it faultlessly; if it were not for Hume, indeed—and we suppose many people would not except Hume—it might be said of him that he did for English history what the invention of printing did for literature. Instead of mentioning this, or at any rate more than hinting at it, Professor Seeley in his article on "History and Politics" deliberately depreciates it. He says, speaking of "the old, primitive, half-poetic sort of history," and very likely meaning Herodotus, whom Macaulay called "infantine," that "it had given place to another kind, dissimilar both in object and style, when Macaulay, taking a step backward rather than forward, reintroduced it among us." Of this other kind of history, he adds that it is "not poetic but scientific," that "its aim is not to give pleasure or confer fame, but to throw light on the course of human affairs"; and he seems to associate Macaulay's history with such works as 'Ivanhoe.' For what he calls romantic history, poetic history, he exercises the contempt not unnatural, perhaps, to a scientific mind contemplating romance. "To make history interesting and exciting you have only to follow a few simple rules. All that is necessary is systematic exaggeration and occasional falsification," he observes. To this one is irresistibly inclined to answer as the theological professor did to the bumptious student who thought making such proverbs as Solomon's was a simple matter—"Make a few." Whatever he may have done to deserve it, Macaulay himself would certainly be confounded at such misappreciation of what he sought to do. What he sought to do is sufficiently suggested in his wish that Clarendon had "condescended to be the Boswell of the Long Parliament"; "Would not his work, in that case, have been more interesting? Would it not have been more accurate?" he asks; and justly adds: "A history in which every particular incident may be true, may on the whole be false."

—This undervaluation of the method Macaulay introduced—or, if Prof. Seeley prefers, "reintroduced"—does not, however, prevent Prof. Seeley's essay from being in the main an admirable one. "Let writers deal with what they understand," he wisely advises, and when he leaves the consideration of "romantic history" and comes to discuss the importance of "scientific history," he speaks not only with understanding but with authority. He is no longer annoyed with what is "interesting," he is not warped by "the magic pen of Macaulay," or inflamed by "gorgeous illusions"; for these are replaced in the domain of scientific history by what he aptly styles "the prosaic truth in all its tiresome dryness and intricacy where poetry had reigned before." At Cambridge, where Prof. Seeley has been teaching it for ten years, history is studied "as a department of science rather than as a branch of poetry," and it is quite true that "only in this shape can history be included among the studies of a university." Scientific history, however, is divided into two branches by Prof. Seeley, which he insists shall be kept distinct—political history or the history of states, namely, and anthropology, sociology, etc. "Manners and customs," instead of occupying more space in our histories, "should have histories to themselves"; it is impossible for the political historian, "with the political history on his hands," to treat them seriously, and they deserve to be treated seriously. Political history is defined as "the biography of states," and it is the biography of states that Prof. Seeley would have studied in universities, so that one may thus be forced to study history and politics at the same time. This he thinks very important for a nation like England, where, as he finely says, "the study of politics answers to liberty as the duty to the right." Certain obstacles in the way of such historical study and how to remove them will be considered in future papers, to which this is but an introduction explanatory. Nothing can be better than this; Prof. Seeley's readers only need to preserve carefully the distinction which he pointedly neglects to make for them, the distinction between "text-books for advanced students," in the construction of which he is an acknowledged authority, and literature, which is "the thought of thinking souls" or "a criticism of life," or whatever one chooses, but certainly not a text-book.

—The news of Charles Fechter's death cannot have been heard by any theatre-goer without a pang of regret, though the stage can hardly be said to have suffered in the loss of an actor whose withdrawal from professional life had become complete some years since. No foreign actor ever had a more immediate and telling success in this country (the paradise of foreign actors) than Fechter, and to a great extent the success was deserved. He was probably the best melodramatic actor that ever appeared on our boards, and he elevated melodrama by his acting to a level as high as it is possible to imagine it elevated. In such a part as *Monte Cristo* Fechter revealed all that capacity for sudden changes and surprises, and for complete mastery of "situations," which are the chief secrets of melodramatic success; while the studied "points" introduced in the inflection of his voice, in posture and gesticulation, all of which were out of place in his Shaksperian parts, were here perfectly appropriate. The same thing might be said of such a play as "The Duke's Motto," though of all his melodramas "Monte Cristo" was, to our mind, by far the best. In Shakspere's plays it cannot be denied that Fechter was almost equally successful with the public; but it should be remembered that "Hamlet" was the play in which this success was earned, and though it is customary to think of "Hamlet" only as the most poetical of English dramas, it is also true that it is of all Shakspere's plays the one in which the effects and situations are most striking. The mad scene, the ghost scene, the players' scene, the fencing scene, and the graveyard scene, though of course not in any proper sense melodramatic, are scenes out of which a good melodramatic actor can in his own way make almost as much as a good tragedian; and it was as a great melodramatic actor that Fechter played *Hamlet*. It is not the way to play the part for any one who discriminates in such matters; but, in his time, each one of us sees many *Hamlets*, and, on looking back at them all, we generally have to confess at the end that none represents the character as it is admitted it should be represented. That Fechter, with his imperfect command of English, and his manner of elocution, which violated all the traditions of our stage, should have created the furore he did on his first arrival was, of course, partly due to the introduction given him to the public here by Dickens, whose extravagant eulogy had momentarily its desired effect. But Fechter was not a great tragedian; he was less a man of genius than a man highly trained in a particular branch of art for which he had a natural aptitude, and his success could hardly be expected to maintain the high level at which it started. His failure as a manager was complete from the outset, and after the attempt to set up the Lyceum Theatre under his direction broke down he gradually withdrew from active life; and when at length he died last week, at a retired village in Pennsylvania, his connection with the American stage was already a thing of the past, although ten years ago he was the most important figure on it.

THE CHINESE IN CENTRAL ASIA.*

MR. BOULGER'S book is in form the biography of one of the most successful—the most successful, the author says, since Nadir Shah—of the many military adventurers who year after year rise and fall in the confused and confusing political arena of Central Asia. Its main importance, however remarkable Yakub Beg's career may have been, lies in the light it throws on the capacity of the Chinese as conquerors and administrators in the same field, and in this respect the volume has proved a veritable revelation to the public of Western Europe. To be sure, nobody who writes about Central Asiatic politics can pretend to produce a narrative of much authenticity or accuracy. Mr. Boulger's materials are nearly all what may be called second-hand—that is, the reports of one or two British diplomatic agents and travellers, the official Russian and Chinese Gazettes, and detached newspaper articles by writers of greater or less familiarity with Central Asiatic affairs. He is, consequently, obliged to leave a great deal to conjecture, and to fill many gaps with explanations for which he claims nothing more than probability. But this is as well as any writer on Central Asiatic politics can do. The immense area which passes under that name is occupied by small states, separated frequently by deserts. The population is barbarous and fanatical, and largely nomad, speaks a great variety of little-known dialects, and has only been accessible to travellers within twenty years. In addition to these difficulties in the way of getting information there is the fact that the whole region, vast as it is, has become within the last forty years a kind of debatable land between Russia and England, in which the former has sought to veil her unmistakable progress by a cloud of misrepresentation of one sort or another, which British agents only penetrate partially. It has to be taken into account, too, that

* 'The Life of Yakoob Beg, Ameer of Kashgar. By Demetrius Charles Boulger, Member of the Royal Asiatic Society.' London: Wm. H. Allen & Co. 1878.

Central Asia has been for eight centuries a kind of wonder-land, which more than any other region has impressed the imagination of the modern world, owing to the prodigious conquering hosts which began to issue from it in the eleventh century, and which, after setting up the immense empires of Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, and conquering India, continued to vex Europe, even at the very gates of Vienna, down to the end of the seventeenth century.

Those who visit it now and witness its desolation are at first puzzled to know where the men for those vast armies were found, but the traces of abounding fertility and of very dense population in former days are easily discoverable. The whole region has now been suffering for centuries the usual fate which follows the overthrow of a great Asiatic monarchy. Its rulers have been military adventurers, each seizing as much territory as his following would enable him, and holding it until some competitor had mustered force enough to oust him. Yakub Beg was one of these adventurers, who displayed more than usual ability, but his career would have excited little attention in the Western world if he had not succeeded in wresting Kashgar from the Chinese and keeping them out of it for over a dozen years, and had not excited hopes in British India that he was about to prove a power strong enough, even without foreign assistance, to resist the advance of Russia.

It will be a surprise to most readers of Mr. Boulger's book to learn that from 1760 to 1862 China occupied towards the states of Central Asia very much the position which Russia has occupied during the last twenty years ; that is, China was the advancing, absorbing, and overbearing neighbor whom they all feared, and whose slow but invincible progress they sought, now by force and now by submission, to retard. As early as 1760 her onward movement had spread a panic through the whole of Western Asia, and Afghanistan seemed the only Mussulman power left in that region capable of resisting her. She was then in full possession of the whole region known as Eastern Turkestan, including Yarkand and Kashgar, which she governed by viceroys sent from Pekin, and played with the adjacent potentates very much in the style with which the history of Russian aggression of late years has made us familiar, governing on the whole with much wisdom and moderation, and through machinery not unlike that with which the East India Company governed India, but repressing insurrections with horrible severity—in fact, by the massacre of the whole male population of the districts in which they occurred. But for some time previous to 1859 there had been a gradual decline in the force of the Empire, which culminated in the Taeping rebellion and other convulsions, and was taken by most external observers to be a sign of fatal disease. The officers in Central Asia were no longer able to resist the attacks of the military adventurers who pressed them on their borders, or to repress even the desultory risings of their own subjects, and between 1863 and 1865 Yakub Beg was able to gather force enough to drive them out of Kashgar and set himself up in their stead. The Chinese overthrow was signalized by one incident which puts the Chinese character in a light that will be new to most people. The amban or governor of Yarkand, finding the defence of the fort hopeless, summoned all his officers to his chamber, and there sat in state surrounded by his wives and children and servants, until he heard that the enemy was entering, when he dropped his lighted pipe into a charged mine beneath the floor, and the whole company disappeared in dust and smoke.

Since that date a change has come over the Chinese Empire which has received but little attention from foreign observers, so deeply rooted is the Western world in the belief that immobility is the law of Chinese civilization. Not only have its internal troubles disappeared, but its military and naval forces have been reorganized on the European plan. The infantry have received the latest arms of precision, the artillery has been supplied with rifled cannon, and strategists have appeared in high command who are no mean rivals for anything Russia or England has to show; and they have an unlimited population, possessing almost matchless powers of endurance and adaptability to all climates and modes of life, to draw on for recruits. The experience of the last twenty years in war and peace, in fact, seems, without touching their manners or institutions, to have launched the Chinese on a career of extraordinary military progress, and they have suddenly appeared as perhaps the most formidable of the three great competitors for dominating influence in Central Asia.

In 1876 Yakub Beg was astonished to hear that they were nearing his frontier with a large force for the purpose of reconquering their old dominions. The expedition, it now appears, was one of the most remarkable military enterprises on record. Preparations for it first began about 1873. The advance of the force first organized began its march in 1874, through a desolate country devoid of supplies, and had 1,200 miles to cover before it reached its objective point. It established stores and encampments for the main body along the whole line with a deadly pertinacity which reminds one rather of Rome than of any modern state—inasmuch as it actually planted the corn on which the army which was to follow was to live. Early in 1875 50,000 men, armed with the latest weapons, had arrived on the frontier of Turkestan, and began to carry everything before them. Towns were captured, and the garrisons massacred, and in some cases the adult males of the surrounding districts—not with ferocity, but with a cold, business-like calm. In the spring of the following year Yakub Khan had collected his forces and prepared to meet the storm which had already burst over the Tungani Confederation and entered Kashgar. He was caught at Turfan in April, 1877, between two converging corps, and badly beaten. A second defeat at Toksun, forty miles west of Turfan, utterly crushed him, with the loss in all of 20,000 men. He then appealed to the Russians for aid or intercession, which they refused. While making vain efforts to reorganize his forces he died suddenly, or was assassinated, in May. The Chinese continued their advance with the same ponderous caution and solidity which had characterized their movement from the beginning, making roads and bridges and forts, and establishing depots of supplies, crushing all resistance, and occasionally massacring the inhabitants. In December of the same year they carried the capital by a *coup de main*, and are now in full possession.

All that is known of their strategy shows it to be fully equal to that which any European power could under like circumstances have displayed, and they have shown a capacity for moving great bodies of men which no European government has certainly yet equalled. The story is a very strange one, and seems to introduce an entirely new factor into the politics of the East. But it has aspects the interest of which is by no means confined to the East. Should China appear on the scene as an aggressive, militant power, with all the appliances of modern military art, and with a population of 300,000,000 endued with a vitality and persistence which puzzles both ethnologists and physiologists, there is no doubt that many of the problems by which modern politicians are vexed would undergo some very startling modifications. An aggressive, propagandist China in the Southern Seas, for instance, would be a phenomenon for which the wildest political speculator is still unprepared.

RECENT NOVELS.*

WHILE, in a neighboring city, librarians meet chiefly to deplore the attractions and the facile supply of "fiction," novels pour from the press—novels like 'A Star and a Heart,' by Florence Marryat, in which no reference is had to the facts of life ; novels like 'The Ghost at Redbrook,' in which two gentlemen at once appear under feigned names at an English gentleman's house, enjoy his hospitality for months, and, although suspected by their host, are treated one as the heir to the estate, and the other as an honored guest ; novels of all shades and degrees of folly. 'A Mere Adventurer' is an American novel, and has such degree of value as inheres in descriptions of things actually seen and known, and the story seems quite harmless, though not particularly interesting. 'The Puritan and the Quaker' is a story with a purpose—*i.e.*, to rehabilitate the Quakers of colonial times, or, if it does not vaunt the discretion of the Quakers, to make clear the ferocious tyranny of the Puritans. If there is any one left who still believes that the Puritans came to New England solely or chiefly to find "freedom to worship God," this book may give them a truer vision of the stern men who proposed to have all things and people ordered as they saw fit, and undoubtingly called on the sword of the Lord and of Gideon to enforce their convictions.

We heartily wish certain subjects were prohibited to novel-writers. Can it be thought an appropriate or pleasing topic to make the strife between technical Christianity and fixed disbelief in God or a future existence the woof and warp of a novel ? The form of composition takes off the necessity for precise statement or definite argument, while such weighty and abstract topics cumber the movement of the story, and are in perpetual discord with its lighter parts. We believe we have given our opinion of 'The Felmeres' in the preceding sentence. The book has some picturesque descriptions, but it is difficult to say whether the atheist or the Christian characters are most un-

* 'A Star and a Heart. By Florence Marryat.' Boston : Loring. 1879.
'The Ghost at Redbrook : A Novel. By the author of 'The Odd Trump,' 'The Lacy Diamonds,' etc.' Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.
'A Mere Adventurer : A Novel. By Elzey Hay, author of 'A Family Secret.'' Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.
'The Felmeres : A Novel. By S. B. Elliott.' New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1879.
'Elsa : A Romance. By Rev. Alfred C. Hogbin.' Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.

pleasant. 'Elsa' has a profusion of personages, German and American; an unknown *débutante* at the opera received as an inmate of a rich and well-situated family, with no questions asked. A wicked American army officer, an estimable American farmer's son, serve for heroes, and are both lovers of Elsa, who finally proves to be an American also. The scene is laid and the action chiefly takes place in Munich. The language is careless—*e. g.*, "Is he dangerous?" meaning, Is he dangerously ill? and when a young lady is warned of her admirer's doubtful character, "she told her brother she should go with him all she pleased." A German surgeon remarks of a bullet in his patient's shoulder that "it is a pesky thing to get at"; and so on, and so on. The plot is not wholly uninteresting, and, if one must at all risks read a novel and does not mind slip-slop, one might hit worse than on 'Elsa.' 'Under the Willows' is such a pathetic book from the depth of its *naïveté*, only equalled by its profound ignorance of life and human nature illustrated from a Southern point of view, that one is inclined to say no more about it—to hush it up among one's friends, and give its fixed delusions, its fantastic romance, the benefit of silence. 'Tangled Paths' and 'Lorenzo, the Conscript' are two Roman Catholic stories. Mariolatry seems the end and aim of both stories, but this is mixed up with much point-lace, gorgeous furniture, and magnificent jewelry in one book, and in the other with Genoese nobles, terraced gardens, caves, and a system of deception, including direct falsehood and forged letters, practised by one of the saintly characters and highly approved by the author.

'In the Toils' is a story of the tyranny and cruelty of Mormonism. The writer knows whereof she affirms, and writes with directness and that unmistakable note of truth which overbalances the carelessness or crudity of style that might be fastidiously noted. Her preface speaks of "a band of workers as determined to root out the unclean thing" as ever were Abolitionists of the early type, and her story renews one's amazement that such conditions have existed, have been tolerated, and thereby countenanced, by the Government of this country. The book opens with the visit of a Mormon apostle, Harwood, to the happy home of Charles and Esther Wallace. Mr. Wallace is represented as imperfectly recovered from illness and in an overwrought condition of nerves, and he gradually yields to the secret persuasions of Harwood until he tells his wife that he has become a Mormon and that they must leave all for Utah. She decides to go with him, taking their only child, and she gives him through all that follows an unfailing wifely affection. The dreary journey with a great company, the recklessness and brutality of the Mormon managers, are recounted in a straightforward fashion; but while the various motives of the other converts work up to the surface in undisguised lust and oppression, Mr. Wallace remains devoted to his wife, and, as they have a comfortable property, they suffer less than most of the caravan. The arrival at Salt Lake City, and the gradual unfolding of the reckless, lawless system of government, come next. We do not see Brigham Young or any of the more notable leaders, but step by step, year by year, Mr. Wallace's freewill is absolutely overridden, and the facts which come to his wife's knowledge confirm all her worst forebodings. Still, she lives on, near her husband, until outrage does its worst, in her daughter, now seventeen years old, being carried off for the harem of a Mormon elder. The girl is saved, and with her mother takes refuge in a neighboring camp of United States soldiers. They come to the East, and establish themselves in a town on the Hudson River, whither at last Mr. Wallace, broken in hope and health, comes home to his wife to die. Shocking as are the facts of this story, it is told in unexaggerated fashion, and we commend it, not to boys and girls, but to their fathers and mothers.

'The O'Mahony, Chief of the Comeraghs,' and the 'Yellow Mask,' by Wilkie Collins, are so well "ticketed" by their titles that it is unnecessary to say anything more about them; whoever likes that vintage will order it. 'Poor Papa,' on the other hand, hardly announces itself fairly; one supposes it to belong to the order of 'His Dear Little Wife' and other unutterable trash, whereas it is a history of two rampant and insufferable children, very amusingly told by a lady. One shudders at the idea of living with such indefatigably mischievous and selfish little creatures, but the book is undeniably diverting, and Miss Porter is an excellent *raconteuse*. 'Hetty's Boarder' is one of the books that make one wish that Fust and Gutenberg had died when they were babies, or else that Caliph Omar were alive. It is factitious from beginning to end, and of that moral and rural factitiousness which is worst; there never were such people, and if there were they would not behave as they do in this book.

'Delicia' is charming, low in tone, careful in construction; it describes a little corner of the world and a few people with uncommon freshness and originality. The dull London square where the action passes is a piece of reality, and the lives led there, with their blunders, retrievable and irretrievable, their weakness and strength, their hopes and failures, are genuine. Miss Butt is a keen but gentle observer of human nature, and the pauses and levels in her plot are true to life. Betty Stevens is a very attractive and very original creature, whose future rather weighs on the reader, and Delicia, with her gentle weakness, rectitude, and ingrain refinement, is delightful.

'Moondyne' is a story founded apparently on Mr. John Boyle O'Reilly's Australian experience. The word itself has, we are told, a mysterious significance, and apparently belongs to a gentleman who, being an escaped convict, is chosen by an Australian tribe as depositary of their secrets, including the locality of a hidden gold-mine, and who subsequently appears in London hand-in-glove with cabinet ministers and "fashionable noblemen." He returns to Australia armed with absolute power over the whole penal system of the country, and apparently dies in a forest fire. We suppose that any one familiar with Australia could pick out in this book such portions as give correct accounts of scenery or customs, but the untravelled critic is unequal to such discrimination, being lost in a general haze of improbability.

A Manual of English Literature. By Henry Morley and Moses Coit Tyler. (New York: Sheldon & Co. 1879.)—Professor Tyler has used Professor Morley's 'First Sketch of English Literature,' published in 1873, as the material for what is essentially a text-book of his own. His 'Manual' will, therefore, enjoy the prestige of Professor Morley's name, and probably it contains few statements of opinion or of disputed facts for which Professor Morley is not responsible; but for its arrangement, proportion, and general style the American scholar should have the credit. It is a large volume of six hundred and sixty-five octavo pages, and its qualities are various. The publishers specify twelve "chief peculiarities," among which are its "ring of noble Christian sentiment," its "robust and thorough English scholarship, abounding in plain speech, racy, idiomatic, sympathetic and attractive," and its freedom from "mere literary tattle and scandal-mongering." Its distinguishing characteristic, however, seems to be the unusually large space it devotes to the origin of the English language and the literature prior to the Elizabethan period. In this it is far more full and satisfactory than Shaw's 'Manual,' commonly used in this country, and approaches the dimensions of an encyclopædia. The space devoted to the nineteenth century, on the other hand, shrinks to the proportions of a catalogue; between these two limits the ordinary text-book form is pretty nearly followed. The arrangement is broadly according to half-centuries rather than literary epochs, and then there are, of course, subdivisions relating to poetry, the drama, history, theology, and so on. The criticism of the various authors mentioned respects text-book requirements and is studiously unoriginal. We have been unable to discover any "raciness" in its style, unless the whimsicality of the first sentence be termed "racy": "Once Europe was peopled here and there by men who beat at the doors of nature, and upon the heads of one another, with sharp flints"; but in the main the sentences are short and straightforward, which excuses the absence of "raciness." There is a copious index, and the usual distinguishing devices of different types and paragraphing are of course employed.

From this it will readily appear that with its excuse for existence Professor Tyler is better acquainted than any one can be who has only examined the book; he is professor of the subject in the University of Michigan, and his experience has been great; he has felt the need of such a book and has accordingly produced it. So far as one can judge from examination and without the necessary class-room experience, however, it seems to repeat the merits and defects of Shaw's 'Manual' except

'The Puritan and the Quaker: A Story of Colonial Times.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.
'Under the Willows; or, The Three Countesses. By Mrs. Elisabeth Van Loon, author of 'A Heart Twice Won, etc'.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 1879.
'Tangled Paths. By Mrs. Anna Hanson Dorsey, author of 'The Flemings,' etc., etc.' New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co. 1879.
'Lorenzo; or, The Conscript. Translated from the Italian of Rev. Antonio Bresciani, S J.' New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co. 1879.
'In the Toils; or, Martyrs of the Latter Days. By Mrs. A. G. Paddock.' Chicago: Dixon & Shepherd. 1879.
'The O'Mahony, Chief of the Comeraghs: A Tale of the Rebellion of '98. By D. P. Conyngham, LL.D., author of 'The O'Donnells of Glen Cottage,' etc., etc.' New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co. 1879.
'The Yellow Mask. By Wilkie Collins.' Handy-Volume Series. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.
'Poor Papa. By Mary W. Porter.' Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 1879.
'Hetty's Boarder.' Boston: Loring. 1879.
'Delicia. By Beatrice May Butt, author of 'Miss Molly,' 'Eugénie,' etc.' Leisure-Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1879.
'Moondyne: A Story from the Under-World. By John Boyle O'Reilly.' Boston: The Pilot Publishing Co. 1879.

in the points above noted, and these, estimated from the text-book standpoint, do not appear to warrant the infinite and patient labor Professor Tyler must have expended upon them. No task within the sphere of literary journeyman-work is so difficult, we imagine, as the writing of text-books. There is commonly a prodigious initial difficulty, indeed—that of having a distinct notion of what is required. It is not apparent that Prof. Tyler in this instance had any such notion. His book is designed, he says, for advanced students ; but evidently this only means that it is too elaborate for primary instruction. Beyond elaborateness it seems to have no distinct, certainly no consistent, scheme. Its essays on early English literature are worth reading, and its catalogue of nineteenth century authors and books is convenient. But we fail to find anything between these which is a substantial improvement upon Shaw's book. In 'Shaw' there is, to be sure, a vast amount of pure twaddle that waggish students sometimes repeat by rote to raise a class-room laugh. And yet the English language is so arbitrary and its literature so unacademic that beyond a certain commonplace characterization of its writers it is not safe to go. Most professors, it is probable, use a text-book of English literature simply for dates and titles and biographical outlines, and supplement it by lectures. Professor Tyler teaches in this way, he says, and it is hardly likely that he will wholly abandon it even now that he has his own book to use. As a book of reference it certainly has a value, and a great deal of pains has been taken to secure accuracy, as in giving the full titles of such books as 'Pilgrim's Progress,' say. But a book that is part encyclopædia, part compendium, part catalogue, part criticism, can hardly be an efficient text-book. Perhaps we shall have no better, however, until the somewhat impracticable ideal of having eminent scholars write each a chapter, with the authority which special study gives, is attained.

Even then one could ask for an editor of a nicer literary sense than Professor Tyler possesses. When he swings completely clear of Professor Morley and launches into the nineteenth century he inspires distrust. He catalogues almost all of Landor's works, but omits 'Pericles and Aspasia,' Carlyle's and omits 'Cromwell,' Thackeray's "most notable novels" and omits 'Esmond,' mentions Keats's "Ode to a Nightingale" and omits the "Ode on a Grecian Urn," and calls Lord Stanhope's work a 'History of England' simply. Of his characterizations the following may serve as examples : "Mrs. Browning, the best English poetess" ; Sydney Smith "was distinguished for wit, good sense, good feeling, logic, and eloquence" ; De Quincey's essays were "remarkable for erudition and for wealth of thought, fancy, humor, and style." His conclusion is a sort of peroration as sound as it is trite. The 'Idyls of the King,' he says, "is one great allegory of a divine voice in each man's soul that should be king over his passions and desires" ; "Charles Dickens sought to undo wrong and quicken good-will among men" ; Thackeray did some good work too ; George Eliot is a true evangelist ; and finally, "If Thomas Carlyle involves more in his condemnation of the times than may deserve his censure, his war is the true war of his century, with the host of false conventionalities that yet remain, with all that stands in the way of the work now chiefly left for us to do." On the whole, we and our century should think no small beer of ourselves. It is difficult to imagine a college student "reciting" this part of Professor Tyler's text-book.

Souvenirs of Madame Vigée Le Brun. With a steel portrait from an original painting by the author. (New York: R. Worthington. 1879.)—The original of this artist's autobiography forms two volumes of the Bibliothèque Charpentier, and begins with a dozen long letters to the Princess Kourakin. There are then thirty-two chapters of "Souvenirs," bringing the record down to the year 1808 and the age of 53 ; then nine letters to the Countess Potocka, describing a two years' residence in Switzerland ; then three chapters more of the author's "Souvenirs," which relate her experiences under the Restoration, and terminate with a brief note of the publisher, having reference to her last days and her death. There follow a number of "pen-portraits" of such persons as Madame de Genlis, the Abbé Delille, the Prince de Ligne, and Madame de Verdun, with a few pages of hints on oil-painting; and the volumes close with a long list of the portraits and other works of this most successful and famous of female artists. We have described the contents of the French work in order to protest once more against the too common fashion of translating half or two-thirds of a book and sending it out as the work itself. This American edition contains the first twelve letters, and all the thirty-five chapters of "Souvenirs," apparently; but not the Swiss letters, interesting as they are, with their accounts of famous people met with, of the great land-slide of Goldau, then a recent event, and of Madame Le Brun's landscape-impressions ; nor the "Portraits à la Plume" ; nor, finally, the list of paintings. Who is responsible for the selection is not stated. There is no preface or advertisements. No name of translator appears. As for the version itself, it runs along smoothly enough, now and then dropping a whole sentence, and not always retaining the notes of the original, until a difficult phrase or passage stops the way, and then its course is stopped with a jerk ! For instance, in letter vii. the authoress is denying and disproving, calmly enough, the calumnious assertion that Calonne, the famous minister of finance of the early days of the Revolution, had been her lover; she mentions her simplicity of life and costume, and says of herself : "Certes, ce n'était pas une telle femme que pouvait séduire le titre de receveur-général des finances, et, sous tout autre rapport, M. de Calonne m'a toujours semblé peu séduisant." This has been too much for the translator, who gets over the first clause in this fashion (p. 67) : "Certes, it was not a woman of this kind who could gain the title of receiver-general of finances." It would be easy to give many such instances, but it is useless to do so ; it seems to be an admitted truth that it will not pay to have a proper translation made. Almost always in examining the English version of a newly published French or other foreign work we have the same remark to make. The necessary outfit for a translator includes a good knowledge of two languages and a familiarity with the subject in hand ; but this is not possessed by the writers who, generally for a pittance, turn a new book into such an English shape as comes easy, *currente calamo.*

In spite of all this the book is readable, and the very *naïf* statements of the experiences of a lady who seems always to have been sure that she understood everything at first glance, join with her account of her meetings with and knowledge of famous people, her sitters, to make her memoirs as amusing as is the rule for even "summer reading." Moreover, Madame Le Brun really was of some importance as a painter; and in this respect her life is interesting, because of the great rarity of artistic eminence and celebrity in a woman, and because of the singularly simple and quiet life lived by her, in spite of the queens and princesses, emperors, and notables who employed her talent and sought her company. We commend the book to everybody who does not read French with ease. A far better idea of the beauty of Madame Le Brun is conveyed by her own charming portrait of herself and daughter in the Louvre than by the steel plate made to do duty in this edition.

Catalogue of the Spanish Library and of the Portuguese Books bequeathed by George Ticknor to the Boston Public Library; together with the Collection of Spanish and Portuguese Literature in the General Library. By James Lyman Whitney. (Boston : Printed by order of the Trustees. 1879. 4to, pp. xv. 476.)—The usefulness of the Ticknor library has been greatly enhanced by this ample catalogue, which is much more than an alphabetical list of books. Not only are the names of the works entered under the author, subject, and title (in one alphabet), with cross-references, but an immense amount of bibliographical information is given in the shape of notes and references. Some of this is derived from Mr. Ticknor's MS. notes and history, and a great deal is due to the compiler, to Don Pascual de Gayangos, to Professor William I. Knapp, and to Mr. Justin Winsor. By these notes a great deal of light has been thrown on that most intricate subject, Spanish bibliography. The catalogue, as the title shows, contains all the Spanish and Portuguese works in the library; those belonging to the Ticknor collection are distinguishable by the shelf-mark, and originally numbered 3,907 volumes; to these have been added from the income of the Ticknor fund 1,452 volumes. The general library contains 2,619 volumes and 597 bound pamphlets. These figures, while giving some measure of the size of the catalogue and the labor involved in its preparation, convey but little idea of the value of the collection itself. The rarity of Spanish books of the early and classical periods has become proverbial. Too much emphasis has been laid, we think, upon the Inquisition, and not enough on the wars in the Low Countries and the French invasion at the beginning of this century. However, the fact remains, and may be illustrated by one example from the catalogue before us. All readers of 'Don Quijote' know the immense popularity and great number of the romances of chivalry. These have disappeared so completely that the Ticknor library contains but one of the original editions of 'Amadis de Gaula,' and that the most easily procured (Venice, 1533), yet wanting two leaves. A copy of this edition, so a MS. note by Mr. Ticknor tells us, was sold for £30, another for £50. Other rare classes, as the *Cancioneros Romanceros*, and drama, are better represented. The great value of the library, however, consists in its completeness in the department of general literature, in which respect it is undoubtedly one of the best in existence. Here again we must call

numbers to our aid : Calderon, Cervantes, Lope de Vega, and miscellaneous embrace 767 works, drama and miscellaneous 816, and miscellaneous prose and poetry 2,297. The number of historical works is also very large. It is an eminently practical library; it was collected for use, and those who have seen the collection must have been struck by the enormous number of notes in Mr. Ticknor's hand scattered through most of the books.

Admirable in its plan and arrangement, and so full in its notes as really to leave nothing to be desired ; revised throughout by one of the most accomplished scholars of Spain, himself an old friend of Mr. Ticknor and the elegant translator into Spanish of his 'History of Spanish Literature,' this catalogue must be regarded as a monument of unwearied patience and industry, highly creditable to the liberality of the trustees of the institution which sends it forth, an honor to Boston, and in some measure a tribute to Mr. Ticknor, to whom American scholarship is so deeply indebted.

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Continued from page iii.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 21, 1879.

The Week.

THE proceedings of the Democratic State Committee at Niagara Falls, last week, resulted in a call for a Democratic State Convention at Syracuse on the 10th of September. This call is addressed not only to Democrats but to all "friends of administrative reform and economical government as practised and enforced by Democratic State administrations," a formula which, harmless as it may sound to the innocent and simple-minded, is as battle-shout in the ears of the Tildenite, and as anathema in those of the followers of Kelly. When the committee came together at Niagara it was found that the Tildenites outnumbered their opponents by three votes, and that they therefore would be able to control the "preliminary organization" of the convention. The Kellyites desired to have the convention called at Syracuse or Rochester, the Tildenites at Saratoga or Albany; and the choice of Syracuse has therefore been pointed to by the former party as evidence of a readiness on the part of their opponents to compromise. According to an apparently well-informed correspondent of the *Tribune*, however, Syracuse, heretofore, during the mayoralty of Mr. James J. Belden, supposed to be a "canal-thief" headquarters, is now somewhat reformed. A new mayor is in office, who has promised to see that the convention is protected by the police, and therefore the Tilden party were not unwilling, in the interest of harmony, to yield to the suggestion that Syracuse might be chosen as a place for the convention. The whole proceeding, taken together, looks as if the Tilden-Robinson politicians did not yet feel quite sure of their ground; and this may account for the rumor that at the last moment Robinson is to be dropped and a new candidate put forward in his place. According to the *Tribune*, it is not impossible that this new candidate may be Mr. Tilden himself.

The Wallace and Butler Committees, appointed one to investigate "Northern bull-dozing" and the other to enquire into alleged abuses in the Rhode Island civil service, have taken a good deal of testimony during the week at Providence, Newport, and Boston. Naturally much of it is contradictory. Similar testimony in Louisiana, it will be remembered, was contradictory. The Wallace Committee found witnesses both in Rhode Island and Massachusetts who asserted in some instances that they were compelled to vote the Republican ticket under pain of discharge from employment, and in others that they had been discharged for disregarding hints given them in advance of the election. A sample circular of employers "most earnestly advising" their employees to vote against Tilden was produced in Providence, and one witness, a Republican ex-alderman, gave it as his opinion that "the present system of buying votes" was bad. In Boston the Committee have examined Messrs. Thayer and Crocker, of the Republican State Committee, who knew nothing of any intimidation; ex-Congressman Eli Thayer, who had a good deal of information on the subject; and, among various other witnesses, a discharged employée of the Manchaug Manufacturing Corporation, who was confident he and his family had lost their positions because he voted for Butler.

Altogether there seems to have been a good deal of moral suasion used by the Republicans of both States; and doubtless in Massachusetts they were frightened by Butler into extreme measures. They would, it is probable, make much more objection than they do to Congressional investigation of their local elections under the guise of a "supervisor's enquiry" if they had not in past years made light of such objections when the Democratic ox was gored. There is, however, nothing very consistent in a Democratic committee's enquiry into the suffrage laws of Rhode Island, in which, at all events, there is small likelihood of an immediate change, the voting class being apparently abundantly satisfied with things as they are. An ignorant man's vote there, it is said, brings him from $5 to $20, while a "cultured person" gets as much as $100 for his. The Butler Committee finds plenty of evidence that "favoritism" and other abuses are not uncommon in the Rhode Island branch of the civil service; it also finds quite as much which goes to show the utter absence of such blemishes, and to establish the punctilious political character of the civil servants.

We are sorry to have to correct what we said two weeks ago about Colonel Dixon, the Independent candidate in Yazoo County, Miss. It now appears that he was in 1875 himself a very notorious bull-dozer, and won much popularity by his brutality in that capacity among the ruffianly Bourbons who have recently been intimidating him. He turned "independent" and became the champion of the blacks probably for the sake of a new excitement and in the hope of getting office. The Attorney-General, Morris, deplored his fate in being driven out of his candidacy, and reprobated in strong terms the means employed for the purpose, but held out no hope of legal protection; in spite of which Dixon picked up courage and meant to run, when he was killed in a "difficulty" by a private enemy. He would have had plenty of white support. That the white disapproval of bull-dozing gains strength is shown by what has happened in Rankin County, where a similar attempt was made to compel Major Sutton, a highly respectable man, to withdraw from the canvass as candidate for sheriff, but the better men of the county came to the rescue and put down the mob, and Major Sutton does not retire. It is worthy of note, too, that the Yazoo regulators think it necessary to defend themselves before the public. They deny that they went to Dixon armed, and that they asked him to withdraw for any other reason than that he was "a man of violent and desperate character, whose career has been marked by strife and turbulence, and who has been reckless of human life and of law," and who, having "raised a race issue" and put himself at the head of the negroes, would have been a dangerous character. This is a flimsy defence enough, but it is better than none. It indicates growing sensitiveness, and shows that there are white men, even in Mississippi, who are increasing in numbers and influence, who condemn this sort of thing and are gaining courage to resist it.

Casanave, the mulatto member of the New Orleans Returning Board, has been in Washington for some time on an errand of which he has given a *World* correspondent a curious account. After the decision of the Board in favor of the Republican electors in 1876 criminal proceedings were begun in Louisiana against its members, and counsel were employed to defend these at a stipulated fee of $5,000. This money, according to Casanave, Anderson assured him would be paid "out of funds sent from Washington." However this may have been, the counsel-fee was not paid, and the lawyers obtained a judgment for it against the members of the Board. In some way, however, a partial payment had been made of $1,875, but to satisfy the judgment for the balance the sheriff could find no property belonging to Anderson, Wells, or Kenner. A sale of Casanave's property was therefore threatened, and he came to Washington to see what could be done. On the 7th of this month he wrote a long letter to the President stating the facts, suggesting that "it would be more becoming the beneficiaries of our acts (*i. e.*, the Administration) to discharge this debt" than to let his property be sold; adding that he had been assured by Assistant-Secretary of the Treasury Hawley that as soon as Mr. Sherman returned the money would be raised, and that he had subsequently been offered $100 by Mr. Sherman, which he was "compelled to decline out of respect for the great Finance Minister of our Government." This letter, a copy of which is given in full, was, according

to Casanave's story, written to the President after a consultation with Mr. Shellabarger (counsel for Mr. Sherman before the Potter Committee), and was followed by negotiations which resulted in a remittance to New Orleans of $1,750 in cash, and a stoppage of the sheriff's proceedings till January. Of course no reliance is to be placed on Casanave's unsupported word, but his "statement" is fortified by what purport to be copies of all the correspondence.

In the course of Casanave's story there are several amusing incidents. He appears to be a clever rascal—"active and intelligent," the Visiting Statesmen called him—with a Southern fondness for proverbs. He based his application to the Administration, he says, on the "ancient Spanish saying" that "it is not much to give a leg to him who gave you the fowl." Judge Shellabarger, however, it appears, is good at proverbs too, and on learning from Casanave that if he did not get his money he was prepared to "expose the whole matter," kindly advised him "not to throw the handle after the pot," but to write a letter and "await results." Among other things Casanave gives an account of the Returning-Board Custom-house appointments in New Orleans, with a list of the more important names and salaries, from which it appears that Anderson, Wells, and Kenner have "placed" about fifty men there; the Returning-Board connection must draw about $100,000 annually in salaries. There is nothing remarkable in this; but it is important to remember what sort of a stake the faithful men who refused to be debauched by Democratic corruptionists were playing for in 1876. The most disgusting thing about the whole business is the uniform consideration and courtesy with which those Returning-Board adventurers, probably the most depraved politicians this country has ever produced, are invariably treated in Washington. The Louisiana Returning Board is "a damned spot," that will not "out."

Nothing could better illustrate the reputation of Boston as the philanthropic centre of the country than the resort to it of Mr. Tibbles, an editor of the Omaha *Herald*, on behalf of the Ponca Indians now settled in the Indian Territory. It will be remembered that Standing Bear and some thirty others deserted the reservation and sought refuge in the Omaha Agency, were arrested, and subsequently released on a writ of habeas corpus sued out before Judge Dundy in May, the first of its kind. Mr. Tibbles is now endeavoring to raise money to effect the return North of the whole tribe, by a suit in the Supreme Court for the recovery of the lands of which they were wrongfully, indeed atrociously, dispossessed. He has, under the auspices of the mayor and the clergy, held large and sympathetic meetings in Boston, and received entire credence and great attention from the press. There is no doubt that the removal of the Poncas from Dakota, in consequence of a most unfortunate error in the Sioux treaty of 1868, was a grievance of the first magnitude. Except that the Poncas were the weaker and an entirely peaceful tribe, well advanced in agriculture, no reason has been produced for not repairing the error—if that is the proper name to give it—as soon as discovered. In fact, Congress in 1876 made the removal conditional on the consent of the Poncas. Mr. Tibbles alleges that this consent was fraudulently obtained before the return of chiefs sent to the Indian Territory to report, and who, by the way, having incautiously expressed their unfavorable impressions, were allowed to walk back the entire distance, some twelve hundred miles. On their arrival they found the tribe already persuaded or coerced into going. The first locality assigned them proved unhealthy, and one-fifth of their number perished. At present they are variously represented as very comfortable and happy, and as wretchedly housed and homesick.

The *Herald* has laid down the rule, and the *Tribune* has adopted it, apropos of the Sprague row, that "it is not freedom of the press, in its true sense, . . . to invade the domestic circle, and drag into publicity dissensions which concern nobody but the immediate parties"; and that "even if the public had any title to be informed of the facts of the recent distressing case, it would be the clear duty of the press to verify the rumors before giving them currency." This is very sound doctrine, but unfortunately it is one on which the press does not generally act. The principle on which the reporting of most of our esteemed contemporaries is conducted is, that the public is entitled to know all that it desires to know; and the reporter usually, and with the editor's sanction, provides against the mere possibility of the public not hearing all it might like to hear by gathering up and publishing every rumor bearing not only on the actor or actors in every "distressing case," but on his or her relations or connections and their affairs. There was no reason in the world that will bear examination for departing from this system in the Sprague case. There is no doubt that an "outrage" of the Southern type was committed on Mr. Conkling by Mr. Sprague with a double-barrelled gun. Under the newspaper practice now in vogue there ought to have been in all the papers a biography of Mr. and Mrs. Sprague, a biography of Mr. Conkling, and one of Mr. Linck, and a full history containing all the flying rumors and "society gossip" that could be collected of Mr. Conkling's relations with Mrs. Sprague, with a plan of the piazza at Canonchet, a drawing of the gun, and an appendix containing reminiscences of other scrimmages of like character between prominent politicians. The consideration with which Conkling has been treated in the affair at the hands of a portion of the press is due to his being a Favorite Son; he never could have secured it as an Immediate Party.

Anything more depraved in the way of "journalism" than the behavior of the press during the past few days on the subject of the Stewart grave-robbery it would be difficult to conceive. The facts which have been published do not concern the public in any way. The thieves, having made away with the body, appear to have opened negotiations, as everybody knew they would do, with the Stewart family, through "counsel," and, the family having refused their terms, the matter was dropped. Is this any reason why we should now have column after column of the body-snatchers' letters, the replies of their "counsel" through the *Herald* "Personal" column, accompanied by details as to the condition of the corpse, followed by an acrimonious controversy as to whether Judge Hilton did or did not deceive Mrs. Stewart about the return of her husband's body, and persuade her that it had been returned while it had not? Some of the newspapers, while publishing all the details of the negotiations, dwell feelingly on the agony that the whole affair must have caused Mrs. Stewart, and the consequent heartless brutality of the thieves. What sort of work is this for Froudes and Macaulays?

The illness of the Democratic Mayor of Brooklyn has seemed to the Republican Aldermen of that city an opportunity which it would be the height of folly not to improve. Accordingly, at the meeting of the Common Council, last Thursday, acting-Mayor Ray, who is a Republican, ordered the clerk to read a communication from him making some forty or fifty nominations to local offices. These nominations of course differed totally from those which Mayor Howell would have made, and the Republicans of the Board, confident in their majority, are said to have chuckled over the unhappy position in which Democratic place-hunters were thus providentially placed. It seems, however, that they reckoned without their host in two particulars—viz.: Mayor Howell's sudden and temporary recovery, during which he had just time enough to make a nomination of his own, and the defection of several of their own number, the "claims" of sundry relatives of whom had been recognized in the nick of time by a bribe-dispensing administration. The communication from Ray was not read, though Ray appears to have made every effort to secure its reading—even to deciding that a tie vote on appeal sustained the chair. On the other hand, Alderman Kenna succeeded in reading a counter communication fresh from the Mayor's sick-room, and was proceeding to read an affidavit to the effect that notice had been served on Ray that he was relieved from his temporary services, when a small riot occurred. During the disturbance, which was marked by cheers, profanity, calls

for the sergeant-at-arms, etc., and which, as was justly observed by one of the most active of the belligerents, "looked like old times," Ray made his escape, and his allies followed him, leaving no quorum. Mayor Howell is said to have had a relapse, and curiously enough his original illness is attributed by the *Eagle* to "his prolonged battle against the combined political thieves who had plundered and were bent on plundering still more the municipality." If this diagnosis is correct, all lovers of good government will desire Mr. Howell's speedy recovery; though it must be admitted that he is a formidable adversary even while sick, and keeps his head much better than the *Eagle*, which advises the Democratic Aldermen that they would have been "amply justified, as representatives of the city," had they "thrown every one of the conspirators headlong from the windows."

The Wall Street markets were very much disturbed during the week. Money lent as high as $\frac{1}{16}$ of 1 per cent. per day. Government bonds declined $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{5}{8}$ and recovered $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{5}{8}$, and railroad stocks fell $\frac{1}{2}$ to 10$\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. and recovered $\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 per cent. There were several causes for this commotion, among which were (1) the transfers of money from the banks to the Treasury, but these resulted in a loss to the banks of less than $2,000,000; (2) the shipment of currency to the West to facilitate the early movement of the crops and to Canada to put the banks there in a strong position; and (3) the breakdown of the "bull speculation" in Lake Shore stock, on the discovery that the report that the road was to be leased to the New York Central on a guaranty of 6 per cent. to Lake Shore shareholders was a speculative invention, although for a time apparently countenanced by the president of both companies. The weekly statement of the banks published on Saturday showed that the reserve had been reduced to within $1,400,000 of the amount required by law; and this was followed on Monday by Washington despatches saying that the banks still owed the Treasury $45,000,000 on account of 4 per cent. bonds, and that they had successfully appealed to the Secretary of the Treasury to have payment deferred until October 1. Later, the fact came out that while the Treasury books showed debts by the banks to the Treasury of over $45,000,000, the Treasury had possession in the form of collateral of enough of the called 5 per cent. bonds belonging to the banks to reduce this sum to less than $20,000,000, and that if the books were fully posted they also would show this; moreover, that this $20,000,000 was in steady process of settlement. During the whole week foreign exchange ruled so that gold could be imported profitably; the actual importations being about $1,300,000. It is estimated that fully $3,000,000 more—either in the form of double-eagles or bar gold—is on the way here now. Most of these importations are to pay for breadstuffs, cotton exports not yet having begun. Silver ruled in London at 51$\frac{3}{4}$*d.* to 51$\frac{7}{8}$*d.* per ounce. Here the bullion value of the 412$\frac{1}{2}$-grain silver dollar was $0.8681.

Parliament in England has been prorogued, and there is a general cessation of political discussion. The last contribution to it is Mr. Gladstone's attack on the Ministry in the *Nineteenth Century*, which is a most formidable indictment, and would be more so if Mr. Gladstone had with his pen the art of being terse and incisive. When he writes he comes too near the style of an address to the party voters by a Congressional Committee to be thoroughly effective. There appears to be a general recovery on the part of the public from the very discreditable attack of gushing flunkyism which marked the death of the Prince Imperial, and which was so well calculated to be offensive to the French people, but which they bore with good taste and good sense. The clamor against Lieutenant Carey has died out. The best military judges begin to acknowledge that he was in no way to blame. The proceedings of the court-martial against him have been quashed, and he returns to his regiment. If Dean Stanley could now drop his hasty and ill-advised monument project—but we presume he cannot—it would be well, too, for the monument will simply commemorate a very unpleasant episode in English history, of which the excitement about Sarah Bernhardt may fairly be called a part, and which has set people all over the world wondering whether a very unfortunate change has not taken place in British manners as well as in British morals.

The Jewish difficulty in Rumania is being pushed to a crisis. The Berlin Treaty refused recognition to Rumania as an independent Power until the disabilities of the Jews were removed and proper legal protection afforded them. The Rumanian Chambers refused to legislate in execution of the Treaty, and the Ministry thereupon resigned, and Prince Charles, it is said, even threatened to abdicate. His Government, however, by way of palliating the conduct of the Chambers, sent a circular note to the Powers, the full text of which has just reached us, in which the difficulties of the case are explained. After pleading all that Rumania has had to do in the way of internal reform within the last twenty years, and the heavy sacrifices demanded of her by the late war, the note goes on to say that only very few Rumanian Jews are natives of the country, and these mainly Wallachian and of Spanish origin, regarding whose rights there never has been any difficulty; that the existing trouble has mainly arisen from the fact that when Wallachia and Moldavia were united in 1866 it was found that one-quarter of the population of the latter province was composed of Jews of Polish and Russian origin, who had been furnished with passports to leave Russia but not to return, and who lived in Moldavia in the condition of aliens, and yet with no nationality behind them, and were almost wholly engaged in usurious lending and had mortgages on a large part of the farming lands. If they had been allowed by law in 1864, in common with other foreigners, to purchase land, a large part of the soil of the country would have passed into their hands, and as they pay no allegiance to the Government in fact or feeling, and evade military service, and are governed in their collective action by the foreign organization called the Universal Israelite Alliance, they would have constituted a dangerous *imperium in imperio*. The note maintains, therefore, that the question is not simply one of religious toleration but has important social and political bearings, and begs that the Government may be allowed time and elbow-room in dealing with it.

A very important change, and one likely to damage the Turks badly with the European Powers, has occurred at Constantinople. Khaireddin Pasha, who has for the last year been vizir, and has tried to be a genuine reformer, has been dismissed, and the vizirate for the second time abolished. The dismissal would be of little moment by itself, but the cause of it is grave. Khaireddin's chief reform, and one absolutely necessary to convert Turkey into a European state, was the establishment of a constitutional ministry. The Sultan submitted it to the Sheikh-ul-Islam and the Ulemas at Constantinople for their opinion as to whether it was permissible under the Koran, and these doctors of divinity have answered unanimously no. They hold that the Padishah's authority cannot, under the law, be in any way abridged or delegated to one minister.

Khaireddin was not a good man to reform any how, being an Arab, and therefore distrusted by the Turks; the Arabs, who are the only Mussulmans who have shown real political genius, are to the Turks "dam literary fellers." He is even credited with a bold scheme for withdrawing the Sultan from Europe altogether and seeking to revive the glories of the old Caliphate at Bagdad. He has been succeeded by Aarifi Pasha, who is noted for his slothfulness in business. Caratheodori Pasha, the Christian Minister of Foreign Affairs who represented Turkey at the Berlin Conference, has also been dismissed. Much persistence has, however, at last procured the appointment of commissioners with full power to treat with Greece, and the insertion in the firman putting Tewfik Pasha in place of his father in Egypt of the full power and privileges of his father, and notably that of making treaties with foreign Powers, which were at first denied. France and England found this essential.

THE INDEPENDENTS AND THE PRESIDENCY.

THE preparations which are going on on all sides for the fall elections are generally acknowledged to be, and are in reality, preparations for the Presidential election, or, more properly, for the Presidential nominations of next year. The contest in New York, for instance, owes all its heat not to difference of opinion over questions of State policy, or even over questions of national policy, but to the fact that the party that carries New York will probably win the Presidency, and, secondarily, to the fact that if Tilden can show that he controls New York he will probably get the Democratic nomination. The only question on which there is any pretence on either side of going to the country is the question whether Congress has a right to regulate Federal elections, which has come up and become important not simply through the frauds and abuses by which the late elections at the South were marked—though these have been most effective in fixing public attention on it—but also through its bearing on the Presidential conflict of next year. If the machinery which the Democrats have been trying to get rid of could be made effective in securing for the Republicans even one Southern State, the party horror of "State rights" would be more than justified. But if, on the other hand, the Democrats should by any chance secure the Presidency next year, besides having a majority in both houses, we fear the power of Congress to regulate elections would very rapidly cease to be an object of interest in Republican eyes, if, indeed, it did not become an object of positive hostility. It is a weapon the value of which, of course, depends altogether on who wields it. With a Democratic President in power it might be made as potent a means of disfranchising the blacks as bulldozing ever was. Even in Republican hands it has been shown to be of but little practical value. The intimidation and fraud have been carried on in spite of it, and in spite of every other direct legal preventive. Such signs of improvement as show themselves at the South—for example, the local opposition to the Yazoo County, Miss., outrage, expressed in ex-Governor Brown's manly letter—all come from the growth of the public conscience among Southerners themselves, and the growing sensitiveness to public opinion which is the result of increasing commercial dependence on other communities. The notion that there is any effective substitute for this as a guaranty of fair elections in the United States must be set down as one of the traditions of the war.

That this tradition is still strong among the Republican masses, however, there is no denying; and it was probably not bad rhetoric, whatever it may have been in other ways, for Secretary Sherman to pretend before his audiences in Maine that "questions of money, labor, and property sank into insignificance" before the question whether the Federal Government could keep supervisors at the polls on election day. Some such idea, wild as it really is, was probably running through the heads of nine-tenths of his audience. The districts in which Federal supervision of elections is needed now are very few, and, even in these, agencies are at work, such as the growth of local party divisions, which must in a very few years make it unnecessary. To assume that it is now or would ever become generally necessary throughout the Union, is to expect such a spread of corruption and disorder in the several States as would soon put an end to free government. The notion that there would remain in Washington an Administration pure enough to see that fair elections were held in the several States, after the State governments had generally become too debauched and enfeebled to perform the duty themselves, is a chimera, of course. As the several States are, so will the Government at Washington be. The power for which the Republicans have been fighting at Washington, and are putting in the forefront of their canvass, is a power which is to be thought of only for rare and temporary use by those who have any faith in the future of American institutions, and therefore cannot have the vast and overwhelming importance which Secretary Sherman ascribed to it. The great questions of the day are questions of "money, labor, and property." The thing the voter most needs to know about the two great parties which are soon to be pitted against each other in the Presidential arena once more is, where each stands on these questions.

Unquestionably on these points the Republicans are by far the best entitled to the confidence of the country. Even if their course be not wholly satisfactory on financial questions, it is apparently to them only that the friends of sound finance can look for any improvement. They have among them a great many men who are completely at sea about the currency, but the party momentum is unquestionably in the direction of sound currency and an honest fulfilment of the party obligations. One may say this and yet believe, as we do believe, that there was not in the party enough consensus on any financial theory or plan to have brought us back to specie payments on the day named. A Secretary of less skill and determination than Mr. Sherman need not have resumed on the 1st of January if he had been so disposed, and the party would probably never have blamed him or called him to account for it, and, in fact, would have acquiesced in his neglect or refusal. Had the Democrats been in power, however, or could they have had their way, they would undoubtedly have prevented his resuming, and this difference probably illustrates fairly enough the relation of each party to public finance. It must not be overlooked, too, that, although he has been able to "resume," he has not been able to "redeem." This undoubtedly the party would not permit him to do. He has only been able to resume by making resumption take the form of inflation of the currency, and by refraining from taking any steps to provide against the consequences of an unexpected drain of gold. In fact, in so far as there is any strong interest in financial questions to be found in the Republican party, it shows itself in the form of a passionate desire for an abundant coinage of silver, without regard to consequences; and in so far as there is any strong interest in financial questions to be found in the Democratic party, it shows itself in a passionate desire for the issue of large quantities of paper money in addition to silver, and in the destruction of bank paper in order to have more room for Government paper. Of any interest in civil-service reform—meaning thereby not simply the proper performance of the administrative work of the Government, but the destruction of the idea that places in the public service can properly and honestly be used by the President or any one else as the reward of party services—there is very little sign to be found in either party; just as little among the Republicans as the Democrats.

That there has been a great improvement in the condition of the service under Mr. Hayes there is no denying, but this improvement is due to him and his Cabinet solely. It has received no support or countenance from the Republican party through its recognized leaders and managers; on the contrary, it has been one of the agencies which have made him unpopular with the party, and caused so many Republican conventions to give him the cold shoulder. There is as yet no sign that his course has made any of the politicians of his own party a whit better affected to him than they were before, although a growing consciousness that he has gained in the popular mind makes them more careful about denouncing him. There is, therefore, no good reason for believing that his ideas about the civil service or anything else will receive any special recognition in the Convention, unless there is between now and the time of its meeting some formal indication that his methods have supporters among the voters. One hears every day that there are persons known as "Hayes men," and that there are friends of civil-service reform, and all other kinds of reform, but they manage to seclude themselves completely from public notice. It was popularly believed in 1876 that Mr. Hayes owed his nomination to the strength in the Convention of the "independent" or "reform" element in the party, and he acknowledged this himself in a formal manner both by his emphatic adoption of civil-service reform in his letter of acceptance, and by his putting Mr. Schurz in the Cabinet. Having accomplished these results, however, the "Independents" disappeared from the scene as completely as if they thought the millennium had come and the wicked had ceased from troubling. They witnessed without murmur the most shocking violation of their principles by the use of the

Federal offices to reward the Southern adventurers who took part in the electoral count. They gave Mr. Hayes no open support in his efforts to remove the machine from the New York Custom-house, and they have never raised their voices in any way to encourage him in the execution of his civil-service order. What has become of them we do not pretend to know. But, wherever they are, it is proper to ask them whether they are so satisfied with the situation that they mean to give no sign of their existence at the next Presidential election, and to allow all that Mr. Hayes has done to carry out their ideas, even if it be not all he might have done, to be treated by the Convention as a mistake and quietly ignored?

THE NATIONAL BOARD OF HEALTH.

THERE seems to be a general misunderstanding of the origin, character, and purposes of the National Board of Health. Judging from the occasional observations of Washington reporters, it might be inferred that the Board had entirely failed of its original intention in not coming immediately to the front to take charge of the whole question of the treatment of the yellow-fever epidemic. The organization is one of such importance, and the real purpose in view is of such consequence, that it should receive the cordial sympathy and support of all who are interested in the public welfare. Its field is, in one sense, a limited one, and the powers given it were necessarily restricted far more than they would have been had the independence of State governments not stood in the way of a complete extension of its functions. It was organized by Act of Congress approved March 3, 1879. Its members are seven civilians, all physicians, one medical officer of the Army, one of the Navy, and one of the Marine Hospital service, and one officer from the Department of Justice. This act prescribes for the Board two separate duties: one, to obtain information on all matters affecting the public health, and to advise the Government and the executives of States on questions submitted by them, "or whenever in the opinion of the Board such advice may tend to the preservation or improvement of the public health"; the other, to confer with a special committee of the National Academy of Sciences, and the principal sanitary organizations and sanitarians of the country, concerning a plan for a permanent national health organization, to be reported to Congress at its next session, and to give special attention to the subject of maritime and inland quarantine.

Fifty thousand dollars were appropriated to carry out the purposes of the Act. The Board was duly organized, and has since done much work. There was stricken out from this Act a section which should have remained, appropriating $500,000 to pay one-half of the expenses of State boards of health organized in accordance with such plan as should be established by the National Board. This would have secured the very great advantage of uniformity of procedure in all sanitary matters, and in the reporting of all information relating to health and to vital statistics. It would, too, have prevented the enormous waste of effort which necessarily results from the present tentative methods for managing these organizations by inexperienced men, according to somewhat vaguely comprehended opinions, and by newly-invented and inadequate processes. If the result sought is worth achieving, there would have been great economy in carrying out the proposed plan.

Rightly or wrongly, the idea prevails that the best means of meeting yellow fever is to be sought by preventing the importation and spread of the disease through an efficient system of quarantine; and on the 2d of June there was approved a second act, authorizing the expenditure of $500,000 to carry out its various provisions for preventing the importation of the disease from abroad and its spread from one State into another. This act is somewhat vague and cumbersome, and it imposes upon the executive departments and upon the National Board of Health some duties which seem more onerous than effective. The only *authority* that it gives the National Board is an authority to report to the President facts indicating any inefficiency of the present maritime or internal systems of quarantine. It rests with the President in his judgment to order the Board to make such additional rules and regulations as are necessary, and to submit them for his approval. When approved, the Board is to promulgate them, and they are to be enforced by the sanitary authorities of the States if they will undertake the job. If they fail or refuse to enforce the rules, the President "may detail an officer or appoint a proper person for that purpose." Under certain circumstances the Board can pay from its appropriation for work done by State authorities to prevent the transmission of the infection *from State to State*. It can pay nothing for the protection of one part of a State against another part of the same State, nor for the suppression of a localized epidemic.

In criticising the action and efficiency of the National Board of Health the foregoing limitations must be borne in mind. Practically, the case may be narrowed down to this: The Board is to obtain and disseminate information which may exert a great influence upon the organization of a permanent national organization; and it may in certain cases expend money to prevent the spread of the disease from State to State. Beyond that its powers are too vague for it to be materially more effective than would be a voluntary organization of doctors and medical officers. Its limitations are not its own fault. Fortunately, the leading men of the Board are competent, intelligent, thorough, and active. They show a proper determination to make the very best use of the limited power vested in them, and to exert the influence of their official position to secure the best immediate and permanent results. So far as the present outbreak of the yellow fever is concerned, they will undoubtedly accomplish a great deal; more, however, through moral support than by active measures.

There is every reason to believe that the members of the Board appreciate to the fullest extent their power to accomplish good results in two very important directions: 1. They have sent a commission of scientific experts to Havana, with a view to studying in the most thorough manner the character and means of causation of yellow fever. This is entirely virgin soil. It is fair to say that there now exists absolutely no knowledge on the subject. We have a little theory and a little formulated experience which may point in certain directions with some degree of probability, but we are as far as possible from scientific certainty concerning any single element of the question. It is by no means certain that the Havana commission will effect any very material advance, but it is work in the right field, in the right direction, and undertaken in the proper spirit. However small its results, it will probably become the starting point of investigations which will, sooner or later, forewarn and forearm us against repetitions of such disaster as befell us last year. 2. The question of a plan for the permanent organization of a National Board of Health is a vastly more important matter to the whole country than is any question connected with yellow fever—which is after all, even in the worst years, by no means our greatest scourge. Phthisis, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and other diseases which are always at work among us, and which attract very little general attention, are, any one of them, of much more consequence than is any sudden epidemic of yellow fever or cholera. They are all of them probably, and nearly all of them certainly, absolutely preventable diseases—diseases which, under the influence of improved sanitary conditions, are destined to become extinct. They can be overcome only under the influence of sanitary knowledge, which can best be collected and formulated by public health organizations, and which these alone are competent adequately to promulgate. However great the field of utility of the National Board of Health, or of any State Board, in combating disease and in putting down occasional epidemics, their best work will be the instruction of the public in matters which are of most vital interest to it, but concerning which it is now as indifferent as it is ignorant.

Much has been said about the "rules and regulations" of the National Board of Health. The Board has made and can make no rules and regulations whatever. It can only recommend such, and when these shall have been adopted by State authorities, they can be enforced only by State officials. The power of the Board is con-

fined to the work of *inspection*. If it learns that its recommendations have not been enforced, it can apply to the President, and he can delegate executive power in the matter; but so far as any temporary epidemic is concerned, the machinery leading to this result could not be set in operation until the occasion for it would have passed. Thus far, however, no obstructive disposition has been shown. On the contrary, State authorities have been eager to avail themselves of whatever aid the National Board has been able to offer. The trouble in the case is that the State authorities rely too much upon the Board, and wait for it to take the initiative. This it cannot do. It can only suggest, and, as above stated, it can pay for work done by the State only when this has for its object the prevention of transmission from State to State. The Board appropriated $10,000 after the outbreak of the yellow fever at Memphis this year, but it was not all used, and what was used was not used efficiently.

The danger is that the public—which always looks too much for brilliant immediate results—will not sufficiently appreciate the scientific work now in hand. The Havana commission, and its colleagues at home, can be depended on only to determine the probabilities as to the value of future experimental investigation, undertaken with a view to deciding what it is worth while to do in the way of permanent study. Such work as this can be done only at the cost of the general Government, and surely it can make no appropriation of public money so directly leading to great public benefit. Even now the weekly Bulletin, which the law requires the Board to issue, is taking a leading position as a source of sanitary information.

Correspondence.

A VIA MEDIA IN THE HARVARD QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In so far as I understand the issue between the *Nation* and Dr. Clarke it is wholly concerned with the question of practicability. Both parties admit the *desirability* of teaching a non-sectarian theology, if there be any such. Dr. Clarke urges that, as a matter of fact, such a theology is already largely taught at Cambridge, and that to make it uniformly so it is only necessary "to establish professorships endowed by different denominations," to be filled by "able," and "therefore liberal," men (probably Unitarians, since they are not to be "bound by creed nor subject to the criticism of any sect," etc.) In reply, the *Nation* denies that Cambridge theology, either as it is now or as it is proposed to make it, can properly be termed "non-sectarian," since its peculiar "eclectic" method of teaching Christian dogma will not commend itself at all to those who consider dogma a really vital concern of religion.

The *Nation* admits, however, that there are certain subjects (such as ecclesiastical history, New Testament Greek, and so on) now usually relegated to divinity schools, which are legitimate matters for university instruction. Why not, then, establish at Cambridge a course designed "to prepare men to study theology"? It could embrace not only Hebrew and New Testament Greek, but also the historical and textual criticism of the Scriptures, the history of Judaism and of Christianity, including the development of Christian dogma—Catholic and Protestant—theories of Church polity, methods of administration, etc., etc. It should aim to throw out, not astute theologians with wits sharpened by "essays" and "discussions" to combat the heresies of dissenting sects, but simply well-trained students of the history of Christianity. It would surely accomplish the best objects of President Eliot's new movement by giving to the coming generation of American clergymen a scientific equipment and a breadth of view which they cannot obtain from the denominational schools. Undoubtedly there are practical difficulties in the way of any such plan, but they are not, I think, very formidable. For the professorships, the very best specialists in America should be selected, with no more regard for their religious beliefs than as if they were to teach law or medicine. The establishment of different denominational faculties, on the German plan, which at present would be extravagant and unnecessary, might become eventually perhaps a desirable step.

But the whole matter rests upon the accomplishment of a reform which the *Nation* has already so admirably shown to be necessary for the best interests of the University itself. If Harvard is ever to become to America what Oxford and Cambridge are to England, or what the University of Berlin is to Germany, it will be only after the disestablishment of Unitarianism. A national university cannot afford to propagate the doctrines of a religious sect which the great majority of religious people have learned to regard with distrust.

A. K. W.

Cincinnati, Ohio, August 10, 1879.

Notes.

LEE & SHEPARD will shortly publish 'Some Practical Hints on Wood Engraving, for the Instruction of Reviewers and the Public,' from the pen, of course, of Mr. W. J. Linton.——'Up and Down the Merrimac,' by the Rev. Pliny Steele Boyd; 'More Ways than One,' a story by Alice Perry; 'Once upon a Time,' a collection of story plays, by E. E. Brown; and 'Breakfast for Two,' by Joanna H. Matthews, are among the announcements of D. Lothrop & Co.——We have received from Mr. John Springer, of Iowa City, sundry prospectuses and prefaces of the forthcoming 'List of the Reproductions, both Imitation and in Facsimile, of the Productions of the Press of William Caxton,' compiled by Mr. B. H. Beedham, of Kimbolton, England, put in type and printed by Mr. Springer, and to be published September 10, in a limited edition, by Jonathan S. Green, 5 Murray Street, New York. Mr. Springer also announces for the winter a second and revised edition of his 'Expanded Catalogue of a Few Books, etc., on the History and Mystery of Printing.' Of this, too, Mr. Green will be the publisher.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin issue a new and cheap edition of Professor Morley's 'First Sketch of English Literature,' upon which Professor Tyler's 'Manual,' which we noticed last week, is based. A comparison of the two shows that Professor Tyler's work was principally arrangement according to text-book requirements, and excision of various portions more useful to the scholar than the student, and less well adapted for the recitation-room even than we conceived the 'Manual' to be. However, the "advanced student" who devotes himself thoroughly to English literature will, perhaps, prefer for his personal use the original work.——Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. (Cincinnati and New York) publish a revised edition of 'McGuffey's Eclectic Readers,' five in number, the most marked distinguishing feature of which is the successful attempt to provide illustrations that in design and execution equal much of the wood-engraving now furnished by the best illustrated magazines.——Dr. B. Joy Jeffries, whose work on 'Color-blindness' we lately reviewed, has made an official examination of ninety-four engineers, firemen, and switchmen of the Boston and Lowell Railroad, with the result of proving two of these employés to be color-blind (red-blind) and seventeen to be "below the visual standard," whether as regards acuteness of vision or perception of color.——Portraits of the artists L. Alma-Tadema and Seymour Haden—the latter a remarkably saintlike profile—are given in the last number of Cassell's *Magazine of Art* (vol. ii., No. 7), together with a sketch of the life of the one and a résumé of the other's second lecture on etching.——Part II. of Horn's 'History of Northern Scandinavian Literature' (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) takes up in due course Denmark and Norway.——The *Times* announces for the Messrs. Lippincott that they have in press, for publication during the present year, a much-needed new edition of their 'Gazetteer,' last revised in 1866.——Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce as in preparation 'Figs and Thistles,' a Western story, by Albion W. Tourgee; 'A Fool's Errand,' or a Northern settler's experience at the South "since the 'Late Unpleasantness'"; 'The Gospel History,' by James R. Gilmore and Lyman Abbott; and one or two juvenile books.——The August number of the *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) leads off with an article on Watts, asserting that he has mastered the qualities of Titian, Tintoretto, and Giorgione, and altogether so perspectiveless and blind to what is going on in the world as to give the review a provincial fatuity we have not before observed. The article on Oxford by Mr. Lang is becoming readable, but its French illustrations continue to lack the peculiar color of Oxford, and completely clean away from her towers the "lingering enchantments of the Middle Ages"—enchantments hopefully attributed to them by Mr. Matthew Arnold at a moment when enthusiasm caused him to forget the date of their construction. Mr. Hamerton in his running notes on Æsthetics shows, as many a time before, a peculiar air of taking up Mr. Ruskin and dealing with him without hurting him, which is in its way the perfection of breeding and coolness. The etchings, some before letters and others after, are by Richeton (from Watts), and by Thomas and Ferrier.

—A summer lightness and unsubstantiality characterizes the post-dated September *Harper's*. The merit of the illustrations is generally well in advance of that of the accompanying text, and sometimes leaves it clean out of sight, as in the case of the second paper on "Fifty Years of American Art." Rather slight, too, are "Newport Society in the Last Century" and "The Navesink Highlands"; but Mr. Ernest Ingersoll's "Gold-mining in Georgia" is good narrative, and really has something to tell of the scenery of mountainous northern Georgia, the inhabitants, and the mining operations which have made so little noise in the world. This paper would have gained considerably in interest by the addition of a few statistics in regard to the value of the gold product. Mr. Howard Pyle, who still lingers in the neighborhood of the Peninsular Canaan, makes out of rather ancient properties a humorous ghost story, which he illustrates cleverly with his own pencil. Some of the gems of the King Collection are admirably figured in an article on gems in general as well as in particular. The Mülhausen remedy for the inequalities of human condition, with a view to preventing the advent of socialism in that great manufacturing centre, is instructively described in "An Industrial Society and its Work," which we commend to political students, philanthropists, and public-spirited capitalists everywhere. All these Alsatian forms of co-operative charity, education, and culture preceded the Franco-Prussian war, save only the museums of painting and industrial design, history, and natural history, and the Society of Arts.

—The new chapters of Mr. Henry James, Jr.'s, "Confidence," in the September *Scribner's*, show a decided gain in movement, and afford some clew to the novelist's choice of title. Mrs. Vivian emerges from the shadowy indications of the previous chapters as a carefully studied personage new to fiction—"a Puritan grown worldly, a Bostonian relaxed," or, in a still better combined phrase, "a Bostonian perverted." In this rôle she promises great enjoyment to the reader. The most important of the serious articles is Professor Lounsbury's "English Spelling and Spelling Reform," a first paper, in which the magnitude of the job is fully admitted, the causes of the divorce between orthography and orthoëpy clearly traced, the resulting atrophy of the English phonetic sense forcibly pointed out, and some instructive illustrations given of the way in which the tyranny of the printing-office has favored the eye at the expense of the ear. Among the illustrated articles that on the "Art Schools of Philadelphia" attracts attention, as raising the question why the Quaker City has maintained its lead in art-training, and as giving evidence in its illustrations—all from the hands of pupils—of the solid quality of the instruction, especially in dealing with the human figure. The view of the women's life-class is as cleverly engraved as it is designed by Miss Alice Barber. Professor Boyesen, apropos of the University of Rome, marks some of the recent changes in Italian educational methods and ideas, but conveys a rather discouraging impression of the progress made. Portraits of Father Secchi, Count Mamiani, and Professor Bonghi are appropriately introduced. Mr. George Houghton agreeably tells the history of Sandy Hook, its light, fort, and other belongings, and his paper will be profitably read in conjunction with that in *Harper's* on the adjacent Highlands. The fourth instalment of "Brazil" treats of an American home on the Amazons, but rather too picturesquely for the practical thesis that this estate is a shining example of what American skill and capital rightly directed might achieve on the great river. The Fairfaxes of Virginia furnish the subject of an article not so well ordered as the interest of the subject calls for.

—The September *Atlantic* contains an article upon "Cæsar's Art of War and of Writing," and a review of Mr. Froude's recently-published "Sketch," apparently by the same anonymous hand, both of which are interesting and authoritative. The essay notes a number of points in Cæsar's career that will be new to many, and in great measure fresh to most, people. The writer's judgments are not less instructive than his exposition is entertaining; two circumstances that he points out are worth special mention, namely: Cæsar's want of a characteristic method in war, and his invariable success in set battles. "Cæsar had no fixed system; he had the unforeseen," he says, and compares him to Fabius Maximus and Pyrrhus in one person. For the uniformity of his success in set battles he offers various reasons, but candidly admits that it may have been partly chance. The review of Mr. Froude is excellent; it is obviously fair in temper, and Mr. Froude himself would find it difficult to deny its conclusiveness, we should think. The chief fault found with Mr. Froude is his misconception of Cæsar's military transactions. This is vital, for, as the critic says, "As a writer, Cæsar was admirable; as a statesman, he was very eminent; as a general, he was amazing." And it is blameworthy because it was avoidable. "Thiers, Carlyle, and Kinglake are distinguished proofs that a civilian can throw light on warfare, instead of darkness, if he will only bring to the task conscientious study." It seems, however, as if Mr. Froude often found an inherent difficulty in doing just this; as if his test of a theory or a notion in which he delights were not whether it is true but whether it is tenable. The number of details in which he is here tripped up would gladden the heart of Mr. Freeman, to whom, by the way, the urbanity with which they are enumerated may be warmly commended. All the reviews in the *Atlantic* this month are good and indicate a marked advance in the character of its department of "Recent Literature." For the running commentary on "Recent Novels" the same can by no means be said. "The Use of Numbers in Society" is a suggestive article by Prof. Shaler, the scope of which is sufficiently indicated by its title if one understands that "numbers" refers to population. A paper on birds, by Wilson Flagg, is interesting, and would be far more so if to its nicety of observation it added a literary flavor; and we may mention also "A Tennysonian Retrospect," by Julius H. Ward, which is pleasant reading, and contains nothing to dissent from sharply except a statement that Swinburne's "fame is at a standstill" because he has divided his force between poetry and prose.

—If the viceroy of Tientsin, who took occasion recently to compliment General Grant on his youth and retiring disposition, had been a portraitist by trade, he might have produced a likeness different from that just engraved by Mr. W. E. Marshall, and one decked with all the engaging graces of a preconceived perfection. Grant viewed with the sober eyes of candor looks neither young nor bashful now, and his face does not lend itself to heroic portraiture, while it is his most realistic and prosaic presentment, as revealed in the late photograph of M. Théodore Humblot of Paris, which the present engraver undertakes to give. Mr. Marshall's plate is in fact a rather curious contemporary document. We have all occasion to observe sometimes the changes made in the characteristics of our travelling friends by certain awakenings of curiosity and dormant faculties of observation; alert, ambitious, and often a little *poseurs*, they look like translated intelligences exercised in novel spheres, in the smart miniatures they send us from Paris and Vienna. Grant, still non-committal and mastiff-like, shows nevertheless a curious growth of the traits of a man of the world over his old traits. He appears like a man who has learned how to live, to manage a capacious digestion, and to maintain a comfortable self-respect amid the shock of many new impressions. The engraver has used the felicities of deportment as external signs to clothe a grave and tranquil ideal. His previous studies of his subject in oil-color have assisted him to express the individualities of complexion, texture, and flesh quality more happily than would have been possible without such aid. Mr. Marshall remains as one of the few well-educated engravers left of an older school, who can paint and model and design as well as cut, and who deploy originalities of method in the effort to collect into their plates the power at once of design, modelling, and color. It is understood that he is the inventor of a method for shortening the preliminary labor on a plate by photographic aids which, while leaving the work still as copperplate engraving in the strictest sense, greatly diminish the time required for production; this method, it seems, depends so completely on his own manual skill and trained expertness that it does not fear competition and will never need the protection of a patent.

—At the late Librarians' Convention some rather uncomplimentary remarks were made on the architects who have built our present library buildings, and it was intimated that the best method hereafter would be to forget what had been done and start afresh. The *American Architect* protests against this, "as if ideas of beauty and style, which seemed to be considered the whole stock in trade of architecture, could only be expressed at the cost of some practical requirement of convenience or necessity." No librarian probably would maintain this, but many can point to instances where convenience has been sacrificed to appearance, or where convenience evidently was not taken into consideration at all. And this is the librarians' complaint—that architects and building-committees do not inform themselves of the needs of a library. We have seen a design for a galleried book-room sixty feet long where the only means of getting into the gallery was a staircase in one corner, an arrangement which might compel a reader in search of two books—one in the gallery and one below—to walk four times the length of the room. We have seen a tower of working rooms left without any ventilating flues or chimneys, or any other means of getting fresh air except by a draught through the windows, near which the writers had to sit for light. In the

very number of the *Library Journal* that reports the convention is a library plan—a very symmetrical plan—by an architect, in which the "catalogue-room" (meaning, no doubt, the room in which the card-catalogue is to be kept) is put in front, the waiting and delivery-room in the centre, and in the rear the "administration and bibliography." In this last the catalogue would be prepared by persons who must make a constant reference to the catalogue-drawers, separated from them by a crowded delivery-room twenty-eight feet wide—much as if one should put his parlor between his dining-room and his kitchen. No doubt, when architects understand all the wants of such a building they will be able to provide for them and yet satisfy æsthetic requirements, but they will not find the problem an easy one. The necessities are few, but hard to get in combination: heat, but not too much heat; great book-capacity in small space, and yet plenty of light and air; the juxtaposition of certain working parts of the book-room; opportunity for the inevitable enlargement; and, finally, adaptation to the character and the size of the library.

—The last point has not been sufficiently insisted upon. In libraries, as in other things, evolution proceeds by differentiation. A room with shelves on the wall suits a gentleman's library; a room with alcoves (first rudimentary division) suits a small society library, where the public have access to the shelves. In a public library of over five thousand volumes the separation becomes complete, and we find a delivery-room and a stack-room. The larger society library will also need its stack-room, but will run it along by the side of its reading-room, the alleys opening directly into that; whereas in the larger public libraries the stack-house will project longitudinally from the delivery-room as a train-house projects from the head-house of a railway station. For college libraries especially, in which it is desirable that the students should be admitted to the shelves, and that they should not do much harm there, the radiating plan has advantages in the facility which it offers for supervision. Again, a library of small circulation can afford to despise space; so can one whose means will allow and whose circulation will justify the use of mechanical means of overcoming space—telephones, electric annunciators, hydraulic elevators or book-railways. But most of our town and city libraries need to economize room to the last degree, for every unnecessary foot means more pay of attendants. No one plan, then, can suit all; but certain elementary truths may be regarded as settled for all—that some form of the book-stack is to be generally used, that no book-shelf is to be above the reach of the hand, that no book-room should be over two tiers (fourteen feet) high, that every library should have the chance of easy enlargement.

—A correspondent writes us from Texas:

"Perhaps General Dick Taylor saw some Federal soldiers mounted on bucking Southern horses, and adopting a not uncommon Southern way of staying on them. Any one who has seen a real buck-jumper will understand that tying the feet of the rider under him is an excellent way of counteracting his heaven-propelling powers. It seems rather funny at first, but it is often done in the South and in Mexico. The impulse given is directly upwards, and experienced rough-riders are sometimes killed or severely injured by long-continued shocks."

—It is certainly time that there should be made some such 'Plea for the more Thorough Study of the Semitic Languages in America' as is presented by the Rev. Samuel Ives Curtiss, Jr., Ph.D., in his inaugural address as Professor of Biblical Literature in the Chicago Theological Seminary. While it is true that the time is past when a Hebrew teacher in a Pennsylvania German institution could speak of that language as one which he had *siebenmal gelernt und siebenmal vergessen*, it is also true that the standard of Hebrew scholarship in America has been deplorably low. No other country provides so many professorships of Hebrew as does our own. Every religious denomination of respectable size supports as many as half a dozen; but since the incumbents are selected not for their special scholarship, and by men who could not judge of their scholarship, it is not to be wondered at that the general standard of attainment is so low. Within a comparatively few years there have appeared signs of improvement. Several younger men trained in German universities—of whom Professor Toy, lately removed from the Louisville Baptist Theological Seminary for thinking otherwise on Inspiration than the trustees thought, and the late Mr. Murray, of Johns Hopkins University, are examples—give promise of taking the first step in advance in Semitic scholarship which we have seen since Moses Stuart. In the two or three institutions in which there are professors capable of undertaking the task there are flourishing classes in Arabic or Syriac; but, as Professor Curtiss shows in his address, it is almost impossible to give any thorough or extensive instruction in this important family of languages so long as the students come to the Theological Seminary utterly ignorant of Hebrew, and are obliged in the allotted three years also to go through a full course in theology, exegesis, and homiletics. The spirit of this address, taken together with the scholarship of the author's essays in Latin and English on the Pentateuch, augurs well for his helpfulness to the cause which he has at heart, although there are occasional oblique references to unbelievers which an older and wiser man might have omitted. Thus, in speaking of Kuenen's critical doctrine of the Old Testament, he says:

"It is easy to see that such a theory as this, presented with clearness and force, has a certain fascination, not only for the Teutonic but also for the Anglo-Saxon mind, so far as men have not felt the power of Christ in their hearts."

And he mentions Professor W. Robertson Smith as one "who contends for the substantial accuracy of the new school of criticism, but still professes to maintain the inspiration of the Scriptures." Why the insinuation that one scholar is insincere in his profession and that others have not felt the power of Christ in their hearts, should be made when dealing with mere matters of scholarship, is not clear.

—It will greatly interest all Americanists to hear of the publication of a new and comprehensive Spanish dictionary of the Maya language of Yucatan, which is the ripe fruit of original and diligent research. Students of this harmonious idiom have heretofore been restricted to the use of a few short and unsatisfactory grammars and lexical compilations, the most important of the vocabularies being that of Abbé Brasseur de Bourbourg, who had given about 9,000 Maya words in his facsimile edition of the Codex Tró or Troano, one of the few *analté* or sacred books which have come down to our time. To this vocabulary the learned abbé had added so many impossible Celtic, Greek, and Sanskrit etymologies of Maya words, and, what is far worse, given false meanings to some of the terms to rest upon them his "cosmogonic and geological" explanation of the Codex above mentioned, that students are easily led into error by the use of this book. But before Brasseur had even thought of composing his work, Judge Don Juan Pio Perez, an instructed Yucatecan, had formed the plan of giving to the world of science a full dictionary of the language, led by the desire to assist archæologists in clearing up the obscure points of ancient Maya civilization. Perez was born, 1798, at Merida, a short distance only from Uxmal and other ruined cities, the grandeur and magnificence of which must have profoundly exercised his imagination from his early youth. A long sojourn in the interior of the peninsula enabled him to study the inland dialects. The words taken from these form an important portion of his dictionary and are quite new to us; the coast dialects, mostly of the northern part of Yucatan, form the groundwork of the compilation, and additions were made to it from several ancient manuscript lexicons. The illustrious author had just terminated the letter U while preparing the dictionary for the press, when in 1859 death put an end to his painstaking and patriotic labors. The merits of Judge Perez as a man of letters were duly remembered by his friends Norman and Stephens in their respective works, 'Rambles in Yucatan' and 'Incidents of Travel in Yucatan.' Subsequently, in 1870, D. Carlos Peon by his entreaties prevailed upon the Maya scholar, Dr. C. H. Berendt, to digest from the materials on hand the remaining four letters of the alphabet.

—The work, as it lies before us, is a good-sized quarto of 437 pages, with two prefaces, and bears the title, 'Diccionario de la lengua Maya, por D. Juan Pio Perez' (Merida de Yucatan, 1866–1877). Its publication was superintended by Eligio Ancona, a friend of the deceased author, and Dr. Fabian Carrillo Suaste has added a biographical notice of Perez in twenty pages. The number of vocables explained amounts to about 22,000; their meanings are given in short, concise items, worded with great precision, and precision in linguistics is attainable only through a perfect knowledge of the objects described. Syntactic examples are not often added as illustrations of words, though terms of archæologic import are provided with longer explanations than other terms. Maya possesses considerable facilities for word composition, and we often find words counting from five to seven syllables; this is partly due to the circumstance that this idiom is simultaneously a prefix and a suffix language, partly also to the frequent use of syllabic reduplication. The accented syllable is not marked as such in Perez's book, because the emphasis skips from syllable to syllable in Indian languages, but special care is given to describing the pronunciation of the sounds of the alphabet. We do not find any indication whether a second or Spanish-Maya volume is contemplated or not, though this would be as important

for archæologists as the volume just issued. A fruitful and complete study of the Maya tongue might now be instituted by the publication of readable historical and ethnological Maya texts, with the necessary comments added in notes, and for the thorough understanding of such texts Perez's 'Diccionario' would no doubt prove to be the best help at present accessible.

TROLLOPE'S THACKERAY.*

THIS volume forms one of the series of "English Men of Letters," now issuing from the English press under the supervision of Mr. John Morley. It is designed chiefly to popularize the lives of the men with whom it deals, through the use of existing materials. In the case of Thackeray no life, properly speaking, has ever been written, and the materials for the biographical part of Mr. Trollope's were, as he tells us, lamentably slender. Not long before his death Thackeray had his taste offended by some fulsome "biography." The eulogy of this seemed to him to be "the produce (*sic*) rather of personal love than of enquiry or judgment," and so disgusted him that he asked his daughters that nothing of the sort should be done with his name. This explanation, we fancy, is, like many others which occur in this volume, somewhat inadequate. The reason why Thackeray shrank from putting it in the power of the world to become familiar with the details of his life, is probably to be found in a far deeper cause than an accidental burst of indignation at some fulsome eulogy of a contemporary. One of the deepest traits of Thackeray's character, underlying his humor, his sentiment, his cynicism, and his love of moralizing, was a profound reserve and modesty which always caused him to shrink not only from notoriety but from undue public praise. Indeed, this quality was connected in him with his abounding sense of humor. No one can very well be a humorist of the sort that Thackeray was without being continually impressed with the grotesque contrasts between the public judgments of distinguished men and their merits. A large part of his essays on the Georges and on the English Humorists was a protest against such judgments. Was it to be expected that the author of the Book of Snobs, the discoverer of the great truth that there is in each one of us the germ of a snob, should have looked forward to his own death without a dreadful anticipation of falling into the hands of the Biographical Snob? If Thackeray had, as many another distinguished man has done, left behind carefully compiled memoirs, memoranda docketed and filed with year and date, for the hands of his literary executors, the act would need all the explanation that Mr. Trollope could give. That he should have wished to be spared a biographer seems to us a natural and necessary consequence of the fact that he was himself and no one else.

To any one who reads Mr. Trollope's volume it cannot but be amusing to remember that it was "fulsome eulogy" which Thackeray dreaded. The want of a biography Mr. Trollope undertakes to supply in the first sixty pages of his volume, and in so far as giving an outline of the main facts of his subject's life goes he has done all that was necessary. But we cannot, on the whole, regard the Life as a successful one. It may be difficult to lay down abstract rules for the guidance of biographers, but one thing is absolutely essential: that they should sympathize with and appreciate their subject. If a biographer does not do this, he may produce a very effective criticism or exposure; he may analyze the accidental causes of a factitious reputation and influence, and may lay bare their hollowness; but he cannot write a life, properly so-called. Now, Mr. Trollope, whether from a lack of intellectual power of sympathy, or from some other cause, wholly fails to appreciate Thackeray, though he does undoubtedly make a floundering attempt to do so; and the result is that throughout his book he appears to be in a constant state of puzzled surprise over Thackeray's success. He did succeed, of course; he wrote some wonderfully successful books, and the publishers paid him large sums of money for them; but how it should have been so Mr. Trollope never seems to be quite able to make out. There was certainly nothing in his youth to justify great expectations. He attempted to become an artist; but "he never learned to draw—perhaps never could have learned"; besides this "he was always idle." When he inherited a fortune it passed through his hands in a year or two, principal and interest—some of it in a newspaper, some at cards, and some in an Indian bank; so it is pretty clear that he was improvident. Then he began over again as a newspaper and magazine contributor, and Mr. Trollope has some very wise and just observations on the folly, in most cases, of such an attempt. Even Thackeray was not very fortunate at it at first, and when he was writing the "Great Hoggarty Diamond" for *Fraser's* was called upon to shorten it. This was a more serious blow to him than it would have been to most men, for "he was not a man capable of feeling at any time quite assured in his position." This want of assurance Mr. Trollope dwells upon at some length in a passage which, had it been written by an enemy, might be said to show a considerable amount of malicious ingenuity:

"He doubted the appreciation of the world; he doubted his fitness for turning his intellect to valuable account; he doubted his physical capacity—dreading his own lack of industry; he doubted his luck; he doubted the continual absence of some of those misfortunes on which the works of literary men are shipwrecked. Though he was aware of his own power, he always, to the last, was afraid that his own deficiencies should be too strong against him. It was his nature to be idle—to put off his work, and then to be angry with himself for putting it off. Ginger was hot in the mouth with him, and all the allurements of the world were strong upon him. To find on Monday morning an excuse why he should not on Monday do Monday's work was, at the time, an inexpressible relief to him, but had become a deep regret—almost a remorse—before the Monday was over. To such an one it was not given to believe in himself with that sturdy, rock-bound foundation which we see to have belonged to some men from the earliest struggle of their career."

At this period of his life it is, of course, impossible to avoid a comparison of his literary position with that of Dickens, who attained the summit of his popularity while Thackeray was comparatively unknown. Most people would trace this to the different character of their work, and the relative size of the public appealed to by the two novelists. Mr. Trollope finds the explanation in the inferiority of Thackeray to Dickens in firmness of purpose and self-confidence. In 1837 Thackeray married, and here, too, he was unfortunate, for his wife's mind failed. At length, in 1846, *Vanity Fair* appeared. Thackeray's life after this period would, by most persons, be called fairly successful. He was always in the possession of a sufficient income, and as a man of letters occupied a position which forbade rivalry. But Mr. Trollope is too discriminating a critic to be satisfied with such a success as this. In 1848 he was offered a position as assistant-secretary at the General Post-Office by Lord Clanricarde; but he did not receive it. As he never became assistant-secretary the incident would, probably, be passed over by an ordinary biographer as of little importance; but Mr. Trollope, bent on a thorough-going analysis of his friend's character, cannot leave such an opportunity unnoticed. "Had Thackeray succeeded in that attempt," he quietly declares, "he would surely have ruined himself. No man can be fit for the management and performance of special work who has learned nothing of it before his thirty-seventh year; and no man would have been less so than Thackeray." In 1857 he stood for Parliament and was defeated by Mr. Cardwell. This gives Mr. Trollope another chance to show how fully he shares his friend's dislike of "fulsome eulogy." Thackeray, he says, would have failed in Parliament just as he would have failed in the post-office. "From such an one as Thackeray something would have been expected which would not have been forthcoming. He was too desultory for regular work—full of thought, but too vague for practical questions."

Feeling that the materials at hand for a life of Thackeray were meagre, Mr. Trollope has thoughtfully filled in the outline here and there with some interesting details from his own career, which further serve to bring out in a strong light the vices of Thackeray's nature. For instance, about two months before the first number of the *Cornhill* appeared, Mr. Trollope received a letter from Thackeray suggesting that the former should let him have the first instalment of a novel for the first number. It was required that the first portion of the book should be in the printer's hands within a month. Mr. Trollope's theory about writing novels, it seems, has always been to have a complete scheme of a story in his mind before publishing any of it. He hesitated on account of the shortness of the time, but finally allowed himself to be persuaded; and while he is unwilling to say that the story he sent to the magazine was good, it was certainly received with greater favor than any he had written before or has written since. It would be strange indeed if a biographer with Mr. Trollope's analytical turn of mind had not determined to ascertain the reason why this application had been made to him, and why Thackeray had not published a novel of his own.

"I was astonished," he says, "that work should be required in such haste, knowing that much preparation had been made, and that the service of almost any English novelist might have been obtained if asked for in due time. It was my readiness that was needed rather than any other gift. The riddle was read to me after a time. Thackeray had himself intended to begin with one of his own great novels, but had put it off till it was too late. 'Lovel the Widower' was commenced at the same time with my own story, but 'Lovel the Widower' was not substantial enough to appear as the principal joint at the banquet."

* 'Thackeray. By Anthony Trollope.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1879.

It is perhaps hardly necessary to say that Thackeray, in Mr. Trollope's opinion, made no better an editor than he would have made a civil servant or a member of Parliament, had he ever been either. He thinks it doubtful whether he read the manuscripts which were sent him, and with great *naïveté* tells a story at his own expense to illustrate Thackeray's incompetency. We give this in his own words :

"Nor, in truth, do I think that he did much of the editorial work. I had once made an arrangement, not with Thackeray, but with the proprietors, as to some little story. The story was sent back to me by Thackeray rejected. *Virginibus puerisque !* That was the gist of his objection. There was a project in a gentleman's mind—as told in my story—to run away with a married woman ! Thackeray's letter was very kind, very regretful—full of apology for such treatment to such a contributor ; but—*Virginibus puerisque !* I was quite sure that Thackeray had not taken the trouble to read the story himself. Some moral deputy had read it, and disapproving, no doubt properly, of the little project to which I have alluded, had incited the editor to use his authority. That Thackeray had suffered when he wrote it was easy to see, fearing that he was giving pain to one he would fain have pleased. I wrote him a long letter in return, as full of drollery as I knew how to make it. In four or five days there came a reply in the same spirit—boiling over with fun. He had kept my letter by him, not daring to open it—as he says that he did with that eligible invitation. At last he had given it to one of his girls to examine—to see whether the thorn would be too sharp, whether I had turned upon him with reproaches."

So much for the story. The moral is, as might have been expected, "A man so susceptible, so prone to work by fits and starts, so unmethodical, could not have been a good editor." It cannot be disputed, however, even by those who deplore with Mr. Trollope Thackeray's total lack of that "sturdy, rock-bound foundation" of assurance which helps some literary men so well through life, that the author of 'Vanity Fair' wrote some very remarkable novels, to say nothing of other literary productions. The greater part of the book is devoted to a criticism of these, which is not remarkable either for originality or discrimination. The extracts from Thackeray which occur in them are generally well selected, and afford pleasant occasional relief from the dulness of the commentator. He undertakes, by the way, to offer a novel suggestion or two, and some of these are novel with a vengeance. They relate to matters small enough in themselves, but important as tests of his critical powers. No life of Thackeray would be complete without some mention of that most delightful of his early characters, *Jeames de la Pluche*. Mr. Trollope appears to be aware that the character is amusing, but what he says about it is this : "Of all our author's heroes Jeames is perhaps the most amusing. There is not much in that joke of bad spelling, and we should have been inclined to say beforehand that *Mrs. Malaprop* had done it so well and so sufficiently that no repetition of it would be received with great favor." It is difficult to offer any reply to this singular suggestion, for it is impossible to know what it means. Mr. Trollope can hardly be so unfamiliar with one of Sheridan's best-known plays as to suppose that *Mrs. Malaprop's* "nice derangement of epitaphs" arose from an inability to *spell*. If Thackeray had created a character whose claims upon our sense of the ridiculous had consisted of that confusion of words and the ideas they represent which is the *fonds* of the humor of *Mrs. Malaprop*, it might fairly have been objected that the joke, mechanical at best, had become threadbare by long use. But the immortal *Jeames* is a *character ;* a living, breathing, speaking, and thinking flunky, with a flunky's thoughts, language, grammar, spelling, and style. His rich and ornate vocabulary is language which he has picked up from hearing gentlemen talk ; his spelling arises from the fact that having no written language, and never having *seen* the elegant phrases he likes to imitate, he is obliged to trust to his natural resources, which are slender. But what in the name of common sense has all this to do with *Mrs. Malaprop ?* Again, Mr. Trollope is at pains to point out that Thackeray did not understand the Irish brogue, or manage it correctly. The blemishes which he detects in Thackeray's Irish are chiefly an incorrect substitution of one vowel for another, as of *e* for *a* in the word *major*, which he thinks was due to his mistaking an Irish imitation of the English accent for the genuine Irish pronunciation. Here again the important part of the matter, which is that Thackeray's Irishmen are Irish from the top of their head to the soles of their feet in character, seems to make no impression on Mr. Trollope whatever. We must say, too, that Mr. Trollope's own attempt in one or two of his novels to make use of the brogue is such a lamentable failure that he can hardly be considered a competent witness on this point. The critical parts of the volume are, however, unimportant in comparison with the biographical. It is as a picture of the man rather than as a study of the writer that his book must stand or fall ; and we feel it a duty to enter a protest, in the interest of the great novelist's memory, against its being received as authentic.

ALBERT GALLATIN. *

I.

ABOUT the year 1802 Albert Gallatin's tailor spoiled a coat for him in the making, whereat the then Secretary of the Treasury expressed the energetic opinion to his wife that "Every man, from John Adams to John Hewitt, who undertakes to do what he does not understand, deserves a whipping." Upon first handling the ponderous volume in which Mr. Henry Adams undertakes to tell the story of a very remarkable life, one is irresistibly tempted to substitute for the name of John Adams in the foregoing sentiment that of his great-grandson. In its superficial make-up this volume falls little short of being an outrage both on Albert Gallatin and on every one who wishes to know anything about him. It at once recalls Macaulay's remark on Nares's 'Burleigh'—that it "might, before the Deluge, have been considered as light reading by Hilpa and Shallum." In the present case, also, Mr. Adams has sinned knowingly, and is accordingly entitled to no mercy. He seems, very wrongly, to have made up his mind when he took his task in hand that Gallatin's was not a picturesque character or an interesting life, and could not be made the one or the other ; and, accordingly, he set to work in a spirit of defiance, and made every detail of publication as repelling to the general reader as he knew how. The book resembles in appearance a volume of a cyclopædia,—it measures ten inches by six, and weighs nearly four pounds. It is printed—narrative, extracts, and correspondence—all in one monotonous type, contrary to the agreeable modern usage, and it bristles with letters in French which seem to say, as clearly as if in words, that the book is not for general readers.

Why Mr. Adams should have thus disregarded the harmless prejudices of the reading public is not very apparent. Certainly, if there is one branch of literature in which of recent years there has been a great advance in literary skill, it is in that branch to which this work belongs. Indeed, the best biographical work—that in which the parties tell their own stories in their own words, and we see the times in which they lived portrayed to the life, or revealed in sudden glimpses through skilfully chosen extracts from the literature of the period—this thoroughly artistic work is the creation of recent days. The biography of any considerable public man prepared on this plan almost necessarily takes a wider range and becomes a sketch of his life and times ; and this is just what it should be. A man of society lives in society, and his memoirs amount to nothing unless they convey to us a picture of his social surroundings. It is the fact that he does this which makes Pepys delightful ; it is the fact that he fails to do this which makes Crabb Robinson unreadable. So of great public characters. They were not isolated figures, but they lived in times other than our own, among men who have passed away, and it is the task of the artistic biographer to bring them before us as the central figures in the events they helped to shape.

In the case of Gallatin Mr. Adams has resolutely set his face against all this. He certainly did not lack material, and that he has the faculty of using his material artistically is from time to time apparent in this volume, in spite of himself. It would almost seem as if he had argued himself into the German professorial belief that vivacity is trickery, and that there is some positive merit in dulness. Accordingly, what is in fact one of the most valuable contributions of the day to an almost unknown period of American history is likely to find its way unread to the shelves of the library.

Having said thus much of the unfortunate get-up and detail of this work, it is proper to add that, in spite of its appearance, it is in fact neither long nor dull, except in parts. It would scarcely be believed that the clumsy volume contains only two-thirds the reading-matter of Trevelyan's 'Macaulay' or Parton's 'Burr,' neither of them accounted unduly long ; and it is but a quarter part larger than Edmund Quincy's compact life of his father. But in putting his material together Mr. Adams has not only succeeded in imparting to it an appearance of ponderosity, but he has also kept himself altogether too far in the background—sunk the author too much in the editor. Gallatin was undoubtedly a brilliant talker, but he was far from being a lively letter-writer. Now, it is very proper that a biographer should allow his subject to tell his own story, provided he tells it tolerably well. If, however, he tells very little and writes a great deal, letters, familiar

* 'The Life of Albert Gallatin. By Henry Adams.' Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.

or otherwise, become as dry a form of light literature as can find its way into print. This was the case with Mr. Gallatin. Putting him forward to tell his own story wherever he can, Mr. Adams, to Gallatin's great loss, does not tell it himself; and Mr. Adams's work is a great deal better than Gallatin's. It is, in fact, extremely good, and those portions of the volume in which Mr. Adams cuts loose from his hero and comes to the front in a fresh, clear, connected narrative of events which he thoroughly understands, are not only good but very interesting.

The active participation of Albert Gallatin in the political affairs of this country covered a period of twenty years, beginning with the Whiskey Insurrection under Washington's Administration in 1794, and closing with the Treaty of Ghent in 1814. During that score of years he was certainly one of the very foremost and most influential of the public men of the country, and the part he played was most creditable to himself. The period was, too, a most interesting one, as formative periods always are. It constituted a distinct epoch by itself, succeeding the great Revolutionary effort which wore itself out in the organization of the government and passed away in the troublous administration of John Adams, and preceding the slow and ominous uprising of the slave power of the South through the chaotic democracy of Jackson. Between the two great tragedies—the one beginning with the War of Independence and the other ending with that of the Rebellion—there was a pastoral interlude. The curtain fell as the last mutterings of the Revolution died slowly away; then suddenly rose upon a group of very able men occupying the stage, who had freely imbibed the doctrines of the new French philosophy, and who, filled with a sublime faith in human nature, proposed at once to naturalize Rousseau, as it were, and to offer to the world in America "the first example of man in his best condition, free from all the evils which infected Europe, and intent only on his own improvement." It was all *couleur de rose*, and if only men would always do what they ought to do, and be good—as unquestionably they would be—and not bad, then Jeffersonian democracy would prove a new revelation on earth; the wicked would cease from troubling and the weary be at rest. The difficulty was a practical one. Somehow the wicked never would cease from troubling, and consequently the weary have not up to the present time got their rest. Napoleon and George Canning were the Lucifers in the paradise at first, and the embargo and consequent war of 1812 sadly marred the divine harmony of the Jeffersonian pastoral. It got going again, however, in 1815; but men would be men and not angels, and in 1820 the struggle over the Missouri Compromise disclosed the presence in the garden of yet another Lucifer, in comparison with which Napoleon and Canning were angels of light. Gallatin's connection, however, was with the first or real Jeffersonian interlude, and his connection was so close that a study of his life is essential to any correct understanding of what will undoubtedly always be regarded as one of the most interesting periods in American history. In another notice we shall, therefore, attempt a more detailed sketch of that life, and of the scope and purpose, as we understand it, of Mr. Adams's book.

MOLIÈRE.*

IT is a curious instance of the closer interest taken by English-speaking people in the literature of France than in that of any other country that five of the first nine volumes of the useful series of Foreign Classics for English Readers are devoted to Frenchmen, while Germany and Italy have each but two representatives, and Spain, as yet, none. Of the five French writers, Molière, Pascal, Voltaire, Rabelais, and Montaigne, the first is, if not the greatest, certainly the most popular in France. In the difficult task of setting the life and the works of this wise and long-suffering humorous poet before those unacquainted with the language he wrote in, Mrs. Oliphant and Mr. Tarver have been fairly successful. The biographical details are in general accurate—no slight praise when one considers what a cloud of doubt and legend envelops all the early life of the dramatist, and even covers his later career with a dim haze, and that most of the more recent researches are not utilized. The account of Molière's plays is ample and intelligible; a few translations of salient passages from the more important comedies are inserted; and on the whole it may be said that as a mere piece of bookmaking the volume is satisfactory. Its defect is that it is nothing more than a mere piece of bookmaking. It is not written from the heart by one who knows Molière and loves him—as Goethe did, for example. It is evident that Mr. Tarver had to get up his facts, and that Mrs. Oliphant had to pump up her enthusiasm. It is not evident that either of them had studied long or felt deeply on the subject. Mrs. Oliphant, by whom the greater part of the book seems to have been written, is apparently trying hard all the time to convince herself that Molière really was a great man, in spite of his lapses from the rigid nineteenth-century standard of morality, and in spite of his inferiority to Shakspere—a comparison which recurs again and again in these pages. But notwithstanding this factitious enthusiasm, Molière is so great and the circumstances of his career are so characteristic that the book is interesting.

The facts of Molière's life so far as they are known are here, as has been already said, stated with accuracy for the most part. The errors, though far more numerous than need be, are not in matters of vital importance. A few out of many may be here corrected. The company of actors (p. 37) which Molière found established in Paris when he returned from his provincial wanderings was the *Troupe Royale;* Molière's company was at first the *Troupe de Monsieur* and afterwards the *Troupe du Roi*, and it was never the *Troupe Royale*, or court company. The legend of the *en-cas de nuit*, the supper at which Louis XIV. had the poet-player sit at his table and fed him with his own hand, reappears (p. 89) in spite of M. Despois, who showed conclusively that the story had no foundation in fact. The very valuable volume of M. Despois, 'Le Théâtre Français sous Louis XIV.,' has not been sufficiently consulted by Mr. Tarver. In the analysis of the "Femmes Savantes" (p. 191) it is said that *Vadius* "claims attention for a ballad of his own composition." It was a *ballade* the learned wit had written, not a ballad; two wholly different things, as all readers of Villon know. The *ballade* is a fixed metrical form with rigid rules, just as the sonnet is, and anything resembling the English ballad was unknown to the pedants of the age of Boileau. In the account of Molière's burial, taken from Grimarest and Bazin, are to be found the errors exposed by M. Loiseleur in his recent book on the obscure points of Molière's life. The contemporary letter of an eye-witness, there quoted in full, would have shown Mrs. Oliphant and Mr. Tarver that Molière's burial was not as mean as has been thought. But that because he was a player the great poet was denied aught of the honors which were allowed to others uncontaminated by contact with comedy and tragedy, is beyond dispute, and the fact needs no comment. Mrs. Kemble, in her 'Records of a Girlhood,' quotes from a letter of Talma's to Charles Young, in which he desires to be numbered among the subscribers to the monument about to be erected to John Philip Kemble in Westminster Abbey, the touching remark: "Pour moi, je serai heureux si les prêtres me laissent enterrer dans un coin de mon jardin." In the century and a half which had elapsed from Molière's death to the date of Talma's letter there had been but little change.

Of all French dramatists, great and small, Molière has undoubtedly been the most popular among English-speaking peoples from the days of Dryden to our own; within the past four years two complete translations into English of his works have appeared in England, and one of these has been twice published in the United States. Mr. Henri Van Laun, the translator of Taine's 'History of English Literature,' and the author of a 'History of French Literature,' began to publish in 1875, in Edinburgh, the earlier volumes of a translation of Molière, to be completed in six. About the same time Mr. Charles Heron Wall, the author of the 'Student's French Grammar,' and assistant master at Brighton College, put forth the first of three volumes of a complete translation prepared for Bohn's series. Mr. Van Laun's version has had two separate publications in this country—to which reference will be made later; Mr. Wall's translation, like all Bohn's volumes, is easily to be obtained here.

No French author is wittier or more idiomatic in his wit than Molière, and wit is the most difficult of all things to translate. To do justice to him the translator must be at home in two languages; he must be ready to render the idioms of the one into the idioms of the other. Now, Mr. Van Laun is not at home in either language; neither English nor French is his birthright, and he has no real grip on the idioms of either. He translates "un sixain," a six-line stanza, as "a couplet of six lines" (p. 153), *couplet* here being obviously taken in its Gallic sense. He is so afraid of his English that he leaves many a word in the original French; in the 'Précieuses Ridicules,' for example, we find *petit coucher* (p. 150), *pic*, *repic*, and *capot* (p. 151), and *connaisseuse* (p. 153). Mr. Van Laun nowhere seizes fully the spirit of the 'Précieuses Ridicules,' which he calls the 'Pretentious Young Ladies'; Mr. Wall more nearly hits it in his 'Affected Ladies.' The exaggerated expressions of *Cathos* and *Madelon*,

* 'Molière. By Mrs. Oliphant and F. Tarver, M.A.' (Foreign Classics for English Readers.) Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879. Pp. 192.
'The Dramatic Works of Molière, rendered into English by Henri Van Laun. A new edition with a prefatory memoir, introductory notes, and notices. Illustrated with nineteen engravings on steel, from paintings and designs by Horace Vernet, Desenne, Johannot, and Hersent.' Three volumes. New York: R. Worthington. 1879.

intended by Molière to satirize the affectations of the time, are translated by Mr. Van Laun without any regard to their satirical aim and into very cheap English. Thus :

Cathos: "Pour moi, j'aime terriblement les énigmes,"

Mr. Van Laun renders :

Cathos: "As for me, I am awfully fond of riddles" (p. 154).

But even the use of the modern "awfully" for the affected French "terriblement" is not as bad as the turning, a few lines below, of "Ah, certes, cela sera du dernier beau" into "Goodness gracious ! that will certainly be superlatively fine." These are fair specimens of Mr. Van Laun's work. The "Précieuses Ridicules" is a very difficult play to translate, and Mr. Wall does not succeed much better than Mr. Van Laun, but he is wholly free from the constant desire to vulgarize which seems to beset the latter. Before leaving this play a typical instance of Mr. Van Laun's complete misunderstanding of the duties of a translator may be pointed out. As the "Carte du Tendre" is referred to, Mr. Van Laun kindly gives us a "Map of the Country of Tenderness" (p. 169), without, however, translating anything on it but the title ; all the names of places are left in the original, so that it is practically useless to those for whom the translation is made. It would surely have been no hard task to give in English the names of the "Sea of Hostilities," of "Inclination River," of the "Lake of Indifference," and of the town of "New Friendship." Little mistakes of omission and of commission, like those cited above, are of no great importance in themselves, but they fairly represent the whole translation, and if they do, it is at once evident that Mr. Van Laun has not succeeded in giving us in English either the letter or the spirit of the original French.

His abundant industry, however, he employed to good purpose when he read through the most of the Restoration and post-Restoration drama to see how often Molière had been imitated by English playwrights ; and he made a goodly list of discoveries. Dryden, Vanbrugh, Wycherley, Fielding, Murphy, Shadwell, Colman, Garrick, Otway, Sheridan, Foote, Cibber, Mrs. Centlivre, and Mrs. Aphra Behn, are all shown to have been more or less borrowers from the great French comic poet. In his preface to each play Mr. Van Laun mentions the English authors who may have imitated Molière, and in the appendix to the play he reprints the passages from the English plays which are most characteristic. The prefaces are to be found in the American edition before us, but the appendixes have been unfortunately omitted. By this omission and by the use of smaller type and thinner paper the matter of six volumes in the Scotch edition has been included in three. The proof-reading is grossly defective ; the preface in the first volume fairly bristles with misprints ; and this in spite of the fact that Mr. Worthington's book is really a second edition—the first from the same plates illustrated with the same designs, but issued in a different binding, having been brought out last year by Messrs. Gebbie & Barrie, of Philadelphia. The original six-volume edition of Mr. Van Laun's translation was adorned by a series of exquisite etchings prepared expressly for it by M. Adolph Lalauze. These do not appear in the American reprint, but their place is taken by nineteen steel plates (including the portrait of Molière). In spite of the substitution on the plates of Mr. Van Laun's translation for the original titles of the plays which they illustrate, this series of designs is at once seen to be identical with that which adorned the fine edition of Molière's works published in Paris in 1863 by Furne et Cie, into whose hands they came about 1835. The designs of Horace Vernet—surely the last man one would select to illustrate Molière—were first used in an edition which appeared in 1819–25, as we discover on consulting M. Lacroix's invaluable "Iconographie Moliéresque," while those of Desenne first served in 1824–6. The Johannot to whom one plate is credited is Alfred, not the more famous Tony Johannot of the romantic revival.

RECENT WORKS ON EDUCATION.*

"ONE thing thou lackest," says Mr. Matthew Arnold, in substance, in his recent essay, "Porro Unum est Necessarium," to the middle-class Englishman, the still untransformed Englishman of his biting but philanthropic criticism—"one thing thou lackest, and that is good secondary schools under intelligent state supervision." And Mr. Arnold points out once more, with charming lucidity and persuasiveness, the advantages which the great French middle class enjoys in its secondary schools—those which are intermediate between the "primary" and the "superior," the *lycées* and *collèges* in which the classes between the hand-workers and the nobility receive their education. In France there are "eighty-one great secondary schools of the first class [*lycées*], two hundred and fifty-two of the second [*collèges*], all of them with a public character, all of them under inspection, all of them offering guarantees of the capacity of their teaching staff." In these public schools 79,231 boys are educated, while 78,000 more attend private schools, lay and ecclesiastical, of corresponding grades, and which, though private, give public guarantees for their efficiency ; while, on the other hand, says Mr. Arnold, "we have not more than 20,000 boys in Great Britain and Ireland receiving a secondary instruction which can in any possible sense be said to offer guarantees for its efficiency. The point to be set in clear light is this : that whereas in England the middle class is brought up on the second plane, in France the middle class is brought up on the first plane"; and he attributes the greater comfort, self-respect, and happiness of the French middle classes to their getting more and better education than that which the British middle classes get. He points out the fatal interest of the British middle classes in "religious politics," to the exclusion of an interest in the question of education, to the consideration of which, Mr. Arnold tells us, the British middle classes must come at last, if they are ever to be "transformed" into any semblance to the children of light.

But with these broader aspects of the question, with the politics of education, as distinguished from its philosophy or from its methods in working practice, how seldom do we find any thorough comparative study among English writers ! The reason is not far to seek. Mr. Arnold's way of treating this subject, which is substantially that of the French administrative criticism, is scarcely profitable, or indeed interesting to the public, unless it has some chance of realization in practice ; unless it may be seconded by such an authority, for instance, as that of M. Grévy's Minister of Education, who actually directs the educational system of France. This more systematic method we mention for the sake of contrasting it with the individual and unsystematic methods—to characterize them from the Continental point of view—of the treatises before us. The first two books on our list have nothing to do with the administration of teaching. If Mr. Arnold has not occupied himself with its philosophy, neither has Mr. Blakiston nor Professor Bain, himself an old student and critic, like Mr. Arnold, of the subject, paid any attention to the politics of education. They have, however, given us useful books, covering a branch of the subject which Mr. Arnold has never taken up—that of primary education. Professor Bain approaches the subject both from the fastnesses of metaphysical science and from the solid ground of physiology. He pays no attention to the comparative criticism of lycées, communal colleges, gymnasia, or free schools. He discusses mainly the principle, not the actual practice or presumable value, of education. If Mr. Arnold's is an inductive criticism of the subject, rather than a deductive, Professor Bain's is both. It is inductive in so far as it is scientific, and deductive in so far as it is Scotch. We may gather this two-fold character of his treatment from the mention of his leading themes. These are the definition of the idea of education; the relations of its processes to physiology and psychology, with a general account of "the intellect" and "the emotions," in which one finds the Scotch professor upon familiar ground; the material or subjects of knowledge ; the proper sequence, "logical" and "psychological," of subjects in teaching, with an account of "the momentous transition from concrete to abstract"; object lessons ; and a criticism on the methods of teaching the leading primary branches. The tenth chapter is given to a clear *résumé* of the argument for and against the course of classical studies, Mr. Arnold's conclusion of the matter being quoted from his report to "The Schools Enquiry Commission" in these words :

"This one's special aptitudes are for knowing men—the study of the humanities ; that one's special aptitudes are for knowing the world—the study of nature. The rejection of the humanities by the realists, the rejection of the study of nature by the humanists, are alike ignorant. He whose aptitudes carry him to the study of nature should have some notion of the humanities ; he whose aptitudes carry him to the humanities should have some notion of the phenomena of nature. Evidently, therefore, the beginnings of a liberal culture should be the same for both."

The Scotch professor's discussion of the proper sequence of subjects in primary education is one of the most interesting chapters in his book. At what ages should book-training in different branches commence ? Pro-

* 'Education as a Science. By Alexander Bain, LL.D., Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen.' New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. xxvii. 453.
'The Teacher : Hints on School Management. By J. R. Blakiston, M.A., one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.' London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1879. 12mo, pp. x. 91.
'Education : Its Principles and Practice, as developed by George Combe. Collated and edited by William Jolly, A.M., Inspector of Schools.' London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. lxxvi. 772.

fessor Bain reminds us that at seven years a boy's brain already averages 40 ounces in weight; for the greater distinctness of his argument he should have added that the average weight of the male adult brain is but 49½ ounces. Keeping these numbers in mind we may see why, as he tells us:

"Intellectual exercises that would be impossible at five or six are easy at eight, through the fact of brain growth alone. . . . You try a pupil with a peculiar subject at a certain age and you entirely fail; wait a year or two and you succeed, and that without having done anything expressly to lead up to the point. In regard to abstract subjects, as arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and grammar, a difference of two or three years will do everything. If we follow the analogy of the muscular system, we shall conclude that the times of rapid growth are times of more special susceptibility to the bents imparted during those times. It would be a great contribution to our subject if we could fix with any degree of definiteness the variation of the plastic adhesiveness of the brain through life. But we cannot disentangle what depends on brain growth, with hereditary transmissions, from what is due to contact with the actual world" (p. 174).

Many of our readers will have seen the recent essays of Mr. Darwin, of Mr. Taine (1876), and of Mr. Pollock upon the psychology of infants; we may refer, too, to a new book by M. Bernard Perez upon the same subject, and to its contents in the *Revue Scientifique* for November, 1878 (translated in a recent number of the *Popular Science Monthly*). Professor Bain adds:

"We commence too early if we interfere with the powers needed for growth; and too early if the desired impressions demand much greater expenditure than would be necessary at a later time. On the other hand, we commence too late if we allow time to pass by when good and useful impressions could be made with perfect safety to the health. . . . We know that many have begun to read at three years old, and have grown up perfectly healthy and strong. What we do not know so well is whether, by beginning at four or five, they would not have been as far advanced at fifteen as they are in the earlier commencement. But the necessity and expediency of protracting the age of commencing till six or seven cannot be made out."

Professor Bain would begin teaching English grammar at ten or eleven; arithmetic, as decidedly easier, may be sooner begun; geography two or three years later. "The full notion of a river takes a great deal of thinking power; implicating, as it does, hill and valley, as well as the notion of an expanse of country made up of these, and constructed so as to converge to one main channel." History, merely as narrative, may be early taught. "With an empirical sociology, involved or implied," it would suit the child of from thirteen to sixteen years. "For historical conceptions it must wait a much longer period"; but how often it waits quite in vain we see daily, as, to take the instance nearest at hand upon our table, in the historical primers of Mr. Eugene Lawrence, who is one of the many persons who have not yet waited long enough to attain "historical conceptions."

Professor Bain's remarks on the study of the mother tongue may conclude our notice of his work. "From six to nine years of age," he says, "there is abundant occupation in knowing words and in getting sentence forms impressed on the memory. . . . There is no need ever to take a sentence to pieces. Sentences may be varied to show the same thing differently worded; and the pupils will gradually feel the superiority of one form over others, while, as regards the correct and conventional idioms, they must take the merits upon trust." "How to order sentences," Professor Bain remarks in another place, and with something, apparently, of the *experto crede* feeling—"how to order sentences in a paragraph is a high and arduous undertaking." Equally high and arduous, perhaps, is it to order words in a sentence. But the phrase is misleading; a better statement would be that a good writer must be both a thinker and an artist—a rare combination. We may remark in passing, what few of Professor Bain's readers will have failed to notice, that his own style is deficient in accuracy—a serious complaint, of course, to bring against a metaphysician. The defect is especially evident in the present book, which seems to have been written in haste in order to fill a place in the "Scientific Series." It is, however, a serviceable contribution to the theory of teaching. But the English and American public still need more than the theory—a sound knowledge of the politics of education.

Inspector Blakiston's little book is well named 'Hints.' It is devoted wholly to primary instruction, and touches many points of detail; often wisely, sometimes with a quaint martinetry, as in the directions for giving a lesson on the middle ear: "Show by the sketch that the passage from the outer ear is like a pipe. . . . Draw from the girls that it contains a little wax. . . . Draw from the class that a blow on the ear causes a singing noise." We do not find much breadth of treatment in this book; it well illustrates the English love of detail to the neglect of principles.

George Combe is best known as a phrenologist, and as such he is mainly presented in the biography noticed in the *Nation* for Nov. 14, 1878 (No. 698). But he was also an educational reformer, and it is the object of the present volume to set forth the nature and extent of his labors in that direction. The editor prefixes a somewhat extended summary of the rest of the volume under the following headings: "The History of the Secular School"; "What Education is"; "The Nature and Importance of Training"; "The Nature and Aims of Instruction"; "The Subjects Recommended for Schools"; "Religious Education in Schools"; "The Education of Women"; "National Free Education"; "The Training of Teachers," etc. The body of the volume consists of reprints of Combe's educational writings, either entire or by extracts, so arranged as to bring together all bearing on a special topic. Reference to the whole work is facilitated by a table of contents and an analytical index.

Combe's educational mottoes were: "Res, non verba, quæso," and "We must teach the child what it is, where it is, what it ought to do, and how it should do it, in order best to fulfil the objects of its existence." In his time the public schools were mainly under sectarian influence, and the salvation of souls was deemed of prime importance, while the laws of health were nearly disregarded. That the case is otherwise at the present day is certainly due in great measure to Combe's persistent advocacy of the separation of secular or "this-world" education from religious teaching, and of the introduction of practical physiology into common schools. It is worth noting, in respect to the latter subject, that Combe expressly excluded not only pathology and physic, but also technical anatomical descriptions; yet some more modern writers and teachers of physiology seem to regard osteological details as the essential basis of the science as presented to the young. Combe was doubtless right in omitting the reproductive function from common-school physiology, but his reasons, as stated on page 97, are certainly insufficient, and he nowhere alludes to the necessity that young people should be properly taught by their parents upon this important subject. As to secular education, the volume contains a suggestion which we do not remember to have seen elsewhere presented, viz., that the vexed question of reading the Bible in the public schools should be solved by the preparation of a volume of "Selections" by a commission of nine clergymen of different denominations, no passage to be admitted without unanimous consent. The education of women is pretty fully discussed, and certain subjects specified as most suitable for them, viz., music and the arts.

There is much in this book which every parent and teacher would do well to read and ponder, but—in view especially of the limited time and compensation of teachers—the volume is undesirably large and costly, and could, we believe, have been materially shortened without seriously impairing its usefulness. Nevertheless, whoever holds, with Paley, that "to send an uneducated child into the world is little better than to turn out a mad dog or a wild beast into the streets," will certainly be glad that George Combe's efforts in behalf of enlightened and general education have been at last recorded in a permanent form.

TREITSCHKE'S GERMANY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.*

THE twenty-fourth volume of the German series of histories of contemporary nations commences a history of Germany in the nineteenth century, by the distinguished Berlin professor, Von Treitschke. The present volume extends to the second peace of Paris (November 20, 1815), which followed the victory of Waterloo, and consists of two books: the first, "The Downfall of the Empire" (containing also a general introduction); the second, "The Beginnings of the German Confederacy, 1814–1819" (probably a misprint for 1815). The title of the first book is inadequate, inasmuch as three out of its five chapters treat, not of the downfall of the old Empire, but of the events which followed it—the new life which Prussia entered upon and which she inspired after the disaster of Jena. The real subject of the book, the central topic of the entire volume, is the War of Liberation and its two organizers, Stein and Scharnhorst.

The author has a noble theme—the unification of Germany under the lead of Prussia, an event in which the uprising of 1813 was the first stage. To treat this subject suitably it was necessary to begin, not with the work of organization after Jena, which made the uprising possible, but to go

* 'Staatengeschichte der neuesten Zeit. Vierundzwanzigster Band. Deutsche Geschichte im Neunzehnten Jahrhundert. Von Heinrich von Treitschke. Erster Theil. Bis zum zweiten Pariser Frieden.' (Leipzig: Verlag von S. Hirzel. 1879. 8vo, pp. 792. New York: B. Westermann & Co., L. W. Schmidt.)

back to the origin of the situation; to show how it was that Germany was at this time so hopelessly disunited, and how it was that Prussia was enabled to serve as the nucleus of the new union. To these two topics—the dissolution of the old Empire and the development of the Prussian state, including here a sketch of the intellectual life of Germany at the close of the eighteenth century—an introduction of about a hundred pages is devoted. This chapter shows how the disintegration of Germany, which began with the great crisis of the thirteenth century, became fixed and permanent in the sixteenth. It was not, the author maintains, a natural and necessary result of the Reformation; rather the Reformation contained in itself the promise of unity, of a new national life, and a reorganization of the constitution. It was the House of Hapsburg, at this time in possession of the imperial dignity, and led by its selfish ambition to associate itself with the Papal See, that brought the hope of union to naught. From the reign of Charles V. dates the *Dualism* which has characterized the whole modern life of Germany; since that time Germany has been divided into two hostile camps, the one led by Austria, and supporting its arrogant despotism and blind adhesion to Rome, the other gradually finding its natural leader in Prussia, and embodying all the elements of liberalism and progress. The most striking, and, if we are not mistaken, original part of this introduction points out that the peace of Westphalia was an indispensable step towards the new unity. This treaty recognized the disintegration which existed as a fact, and established it as a right; by this act the theoretical supremacy of the Empire —that is, the actual headship of Austria—was destroyed. The several states were now *de jure* as well as *de facto* sovereign and independent, and were able to group themselves afresh according to their affinities and interests. "Only a revolutionary decision, only the conversion of the Holy Empire into a confederacy of secular states, could rescue the nation from such falsity of political life" (p. 8).

The section which treats of the growth of the Prussian monarchy, and its preparation for its work, brings out with great distinctness the several epochs in its development. Special emphasis is placed upon the administration of the Elector of Brandenburg, John Sigismund (1608–1619), which was distinguished by three important events: the union of Brandenburg with Prussia, the acquisition of Cleve, and the adoption of the "Reformed" Protestant religion in place of the Lutheran. The change of communion brought Brandenburg into relation with the states which now represented the earnest and aggressive force of Protestantism, and enabled the House of Hohenzollern to become the leader of Protestantism in Germany. The acquisitions of territory gave the state the three-fold character which has always characterized it; while the peculiarly mixed character of its confessions results from the union of large Catholic communities in Prussia and Cleve with the Lutherans of Brandenburg, all ruled over by a Calvinist sovereign. Of the other distinctive epochs, those of Frederic William the Great Elector, Frederic William I. and Frederic II., we need only say that upon their work was based that of Stein and Scharnhorst.

The character and labors of Baron vom Stein are treated at considerable length. "The image of the imperial baron [*Reichsfreiherr*] was ineffaceably impressed upon the hearts of the best men of Germany—the solid, broad-backed form; the strong shoulders made, as it were, for a coat of mail; deep, sparkling brown eyes under the mighty brow; an owl's nose over the narrow, expressive lips; every motion of the large hands abrupt, angular, imperious; a character as if belonging to the high-spirited sixteenth century, and reminding one involuntarily of Dürer's portrait of the Knight Franz von Sickingen" (p. 275). Stein's idea of the state, familiar enough at the present day but new then, was equally removed from the theories of the Revolution and the stiff absolutism of the eighteenth century; "to form a constitution, he often said, was to develop the present out of the past. He strove to go back from those artificial conditions of tutelage and constraint, which had been developed out of the misery of the Thirty Years' War, to the simple and free notions [*Anschauungen*] of the German ancestors, to whom service in arms was the prerogative of every free man, the care for the public economy of the community the natural task of the burgher and the peasant" (p. 273). While, therefore, he broke boldly with the immediate past, in his measures to emancipate the peasantry and convert their estates into full property, and to release all classes from the artificial barriers which divided them from one another, he aimed above all to bridge over the later days of despotism, and to bring the present into organic connection with the distant past. This he did by a system of local self-government, suggested in great part by that of England, but for which "the municipal constitutions of England, long gone to seed [*verwahrlost*], could no more serve him as a model than the patrician rule of his beloved Westphalian cities. Now for the first time there existed in Germany modern communities—independent corporations, which yet at the same time executed the will of the state as trustworthy organs, and remained subject to the oversight of the administration" (p. 284). By the side of this municipal system was a system of provincial and district administration which was designed to serve as the basis of a parliamentary government; but this part of the scheme came to naught. Stein's reforms, popular in their nature, were yet not popular in their origin, but were bestowed by royal authority—in many cases forced upon an unwilling people. It is true, in a degree in which it is true of no other people of western Europe, that the greatness of Prussia, and its share in the progress of the time, have been the work of its princes. The local self-government instituted by Stein has made possible the national self-government of the present day.

What we have said will show sufficiently the leading motive of Von Treitschke's history: it is to depict the new life of Germany, but above all to extol the kingdom of Prussia and the house of Hohenzollern as the chief agents in this new life. And, whatever may be our judgment as to some of Prussia's kings and statesmen—however much we may be repelled by a certain arrogance and hardness which characterize both prince and nation—it cannot be denied, as a matter of historical fact, that there has been here a genuine and potent sequence of cause and effect. The state was built up slowly and solidly by a line of rulers who carried to the electoral, and later to the royal, throne the same qualities of thrift and integrity that had made them merchant princes of Nuremberg. It was a *solid* work, the work of discipline: the harsh and unintelligent discipline of Frederic William I.; the genial discipline of Frederic II.; the liberal and organized discipline of Stein—these have created the power which now stands first in Europe. Apart from the theories which it represents, and the store of new information which is treasured up in it, this work must stand in the front rank of historical literature; distinguished by a style at once dignified and graphic, and by a rare skill in the selection and arrangement of materials.

Biographical Register of the Officers and Graduates of the U. S. Military Academy, 1802–1867. By Gen. G. W. Cullum. Vol. iii., Supplement. (New York: James Miller. 1879.)—The military history of the Republic, with the exception, perhaps, of the last war, is comprised in the lives of the graduates of West Point. Passed in a service usually arduous and sometimes dangerous, they have been for the most part obscure, and information about them has not been easy to obtain. Eleven years ago Gen. Cullum, one of the senior officers of the Corps of Engineers, published his 'Biographical Register of the Officers and Graduates of the Military Academy.' This was a work of great labor, and admirable alike in its plan, arrangement, and execution. It gave concisely the military record of each graduate, and the occupation in civil life of those who had left the service. These records, whenever possible, were obtained from the subject of them or his friends, and in all cases were verified by official records. In this way the memoirs themselves shed some light on the character of their writers. Some consist of a brief mention of the subjects' having shared in several great engagements any one of which might be the experience of a lifetime, others are swollen to more pretentious dimensions by stating useful but less hazardous duty in time of war—enlisting recruits in New England country towns, or issuing clothing or subsistence stores in large cities.

An analysis of the book yields some curious information. It gives strong illustration of the power of sectional feeling at the outbreak of the Rebellion. It furnishes gratifying proof of the greater loyalty in resisting this influence among officers from West Point than among any other class of Government officers, except perhaps the graduates of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. It states that one-half the living Southern graduates remained loyal; that four-fifths of all stood by their colors; that one-fifth of those engaged lost their lives, and that nearly one-half were wounded. It shows that few if any graduates attained high independent command in the last war who had not had at least eight years after leaving the Academy to mature in character and gain experience of men and affairs, and that few younger graduates even reached very high rank except in the cavalry service. Where graduates proved disloyal in the Rebellion a curtain is drawn across their career with the simple statement, "Joined in the Rebellion of 1861–65 against the U. S.," with the date and place of death when called for.

Gen. Cullum has now added to his former work a third volume on the same plan, giving the record of eleven classes more, and bringing the history of all to January 1, 1879. A feature of special interest in this Supplement is the resumption of the career of living Confederate gradu-

ates, giving their history since the close of the war. Now that the temper of the conflict has become calm this information imparts a pleasure like the meeting of long-parted friends. It excites a keen thirst for more. The tug of war usually was due to graduate meeting graduate. We cannot but wish that we had a page or two filled out by Gen. Lee, once superintendent of the Academy, and others by Johnston, Beauregard, Hood, Hardee, once commandant of cadets, Longstreet, and a long list of pestilent rebels. We furtively confess to ourselves that we should read their records with almost as much pride, and quite as much interest, as those of the more fortunate soldiers on our side, who, borne on and supported by the overwhelming and accumulating strength and resources and wealth of the North, finally beat them down in their exhaustion. We could not desire Gen. Cullum to lower the tone of his dignified Register by incorporating in it the exploits of his foemen, who cast such a stigma on his cherished Academy. We can only wish that some enthusiastic adherent of the Lost Cause may adopt his plan, and with similar zeal and labor give us another Supplement, with the history of mistaken graduates in the brilliant annals of the Confederacy.

Studies of Paris. By Edmondo De Amicis. Translated from the Italian by W. W. C. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.)—Unlike the author's 'Constantinople,' these 'Studies' do not aim at completeness, and beyond being essays on some of the most striking men and things that belong to Paris there is little thread of connection between them. They are five in number, and are as follows: "The First Day in Paris," "A Glance at the Exposition," "Victor Hugo," "Émile Zola," and "Paris." The last, to be sure, is in a sort comprehensive, and sums up certain Parisian characteristics, chiefly of a picturesque nature, but it is not designed to be a complete statement about Paris, such as M. Taine's "Notes," for example, were. They are not, however, the less entertaining, perhaps, for the fact of this unpretentiousness; they are saved criticism, which is apt to be searching in proportion to the seriousness of its subject; and they have very charming qualities of their own. Not that Signor De Amicis could not have done Paris as he did Constantinople. He is something more than a brilliant special correspondent and a captivating essayist; he has peculiarly acute critical powers and is a scholar of experience as well as of erudition. Still, even in his 'Constantinople' it was his artistic rather than his critical qualities that were conspicuously admirable, his pictures rather than his reflections, and one can quite easily forgive him for not making a more ambitious book about Paris than he has done here. He has a very light touch, and his style, which generally flows smoothly in a limpid stream, not infrequently breaks into eloquence that is fairly impassioned. He is graphic of set purpose at times, it may be, but he never betrays a fondness for hyperbole, and it is the frank confession that he thinks a subject something to be enthusiastic over, rather than any oriental exaggeration, that one now and then notices in his essays. It need hardly be said that such a writer is never dull; but Signor De Amicis contrives to be as incisive at times as he is graceful; his range of thought is wide and his observations are subtle, and can even be trenchant on occasion. Indeed, perhaps the best essay in this volume is that on Zola, which for a certain delicate dissection and refined analysis one may safely admire as much as the most picturesque of Signor De Amicis's descriptions. For instance:

"Yet despite this, he is a moral writer; one can affirm this resolutely—Émile Zola is one of the most moral novelists of France, and it is really astonishing that any one can doubt this. He makes us perceive the smell of vice, not the perfume; his nude figures are those of the anatomical table, which do not inspire the slightest immoral thought. . . . He makes us perceive everything by opening our nostrils with the holder of his pen."

One can hardly avoid noting in this a felicity of characterization, a just appreciation, and a subtly insinuated satire that are not frequently to be found in conjunction. And there is much of such in the book, aside from the other qualities mentioned.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 28, 1879.

The Week.

MR. SCHURZ and Mr. Sherman have both made speeches in Ohio during the week. Mr. Schurz devoted himself almost exclusively to finance, and made another display of that extraordinary ability in dealing with questions of this character which has given him a unique position among the political orators of the country. After exposing the folly of General Ewing's predictions about the financial situation, he showed that the proposal of the Democrats to substitute greenbacks for national-bank notes would render necessary a doubling of the Government coin reserve; made some good fun of the Democratic plan of regulating the volume of the currency by "principles established by legislation or organic law so as to secure the greatest possible stability of value"; showed how opposed to all Democratic theories and traditions this plan of lodging enormous power in the hands of the Government was; demonstrated the fallacy, not to say folly, of the Democratic objections to the national banks, and the excellence of the national banking system; pointed out the certainty that a trial of bi-metallism by ourselves alone under the present law will end in bringing us to a single standard of silver only; and finally talked some sound sense on the State-rights question. He acknowledged that the Democrats, either North or South, do not contemplate "a new rebellion"; that what they seek is the possession of power, and that if they get it, so far from seeking to weaken the general Government, they would probably indulge in exercises of its authority "such as we have not seen in times of peace, especially in the use of the national treasure for all sorts of local purposes."

Mr. Sherman began by showing, in answer to the Democrats, that there had been no contraction of the currency by the Republicans since 1868; that the amount outstanding in 1873, when the panic came, was greater than it had ever been before; maintained by figures that resumption had brought about and been accompanied by a revival of business; and explained the value of the national banks both as money-lenders and tax-payers. He made a very powerful explanation of the silver problem, arguing that if we cannot negotiate for general bi-metallism with the other great commercial Powers of the world, our plan is either to keep silver and gold at par by restricting the coinage of the former, or by putting enough silver into the dollar to make it worth as much as a gold dollar in the bullion market. He concluded with the usual wave of the bloody shirt, beginning: "But there is a question *infinitely* more important than money or bonds, or property in silver or gold"; and then went on to describe the condition of the South in language which few intelligent persons will read without a smile. It seems, at first sight, difficult to account for the appearance of this stuff closely following an able discussion of Mr. Sherman's own theme, when one does not find a trace of it in Mr. Schurz's speech; but the explanation is, in reality, simple enough. Mr. Schurz cannot be a Presidential candidate, and therefore discourses in public as a rational man does in private, saying just what he thinks, simply and sincerely, and treating the facts of the day as men treat them in their business. Mr. Sherman, on the other hand, being a Presidential candidate, has to try and catch all classes of voters, and knowing that there is a section of Republicans who believe that the Southern negroes pass their time, as he says, "in the swamps terrorized and bull-dozed," he has to affect to believe it himself, and to be much wrought up about it. Mr. Sherman is an able man whose natural tendencies are sound. In fact, when he thinks nobody is looking he usually creeps stealthily in the right direction, but when he thinks "the people" is watching him, he often jumps up and pretends that he is just as foolish as anybody, and can swallow as many lies as anybody.

There are four parties in the political arena in California—the Republicans and Democrats proper, the Workingmen, and the Honorable Bilks. Nobody knows exactly what the Workingmen, led by Kearney, seek, beyond the possession of the government and an opportunity of working the new Constitution in their own way, for the confusion of capitalists and rich men generally. The Honorable Bilks—a nickname given by Kearney—are politicians from all parties, many of them ex-officeholders, who wish to take charge of the new Constitution also, and shape it for themselves; in fact, treat it as their offspring and endeavor to make money under it. They call themselves Conservatives, and their principal organ is the San Francisco *Chronicle*, a paper of large circulation, which has risen into wealth from very low and scurrilous beginnings, its foundations, it is said, having been laid in blackmail. The Workingmen, under Kearney, nominated for the mayoralty one Kalloch, some time a Baptist minister in Boston, and since a little of everything in various parts of the West, and now a minister again, of a very smutty reputation, but with a glib tongue, much "magnetism," and a red beard. For him the brothers De Young, proprietors of the *Chronicle*, in the language of the place, "went" vigorously, giving a sad account of his deceased father, and promising a still fuller one of the divine himself. As nothing could be more disagreeable to Kalloch than the publication of his biography, he anticipated it by sketching the career of the brothers De Young in an evening discourse to his flock, which was full of odious details, and closed with a reflection of the most serious kind on the character of their mother. One of them then repaired to the "Temple," in which he preaches, called him out from the vestry, or other retreat, on false pretences, and shot him twice, it was believed mortally. The Kearneyites rose in fury, on hearing the news, to avenge their adored candidate, and were on the point of proceeding to extremities which would have brought on a conflict with the police and militia, when Kearney appeared, poured oil on the waters, and advised peace and reliance on the law. Everything is now waiting the issue of Kalloch's wound.

Mr. Sherman has been interviewed about the troubles of Casanave, the member of the Louisiana Returning Board, for whose case he appears to have deep sympathy. His story does not quite tally with Casanave's, though this may be due to some difference in dates, as Casanave declares that he offered him $100, while the Secretary expresses his regret that he had had no opportunity of contributing to the fund, "that he would consider it an honor to do so, and most excellent missionary work to help to pay the amount required." He suggested, too, that "each officeholder should be called upon to contribute a small sum, even if it were a single cent," and the sum collected should be presented to Mr. Casanave "as the payment of a debt belonging to the Republican party." It is rather odd that whenever the Republican party gets into debt the poor officeholders, who constitute only one-seventieth part of the party, should be called on to pay it. What do they owe Casanave any more than the voters?

Mr. Cyrus W. Field has been beguiled by a reporter into an interview of passionate description concerning certain rumors that personal relations between him and Mr. Tilden had suddenly ceased. He not only readily admitted this, but vehemently protested that there was not money enough in the world to tempt him to have anything more to do with Mr. Tilden. For this, however, he would give no reason, though he appeared to take a grim satisfaction in repeated asseverations of it. He hesitated to go into particulars, since it was "quite possible that the whole facts may be brought out in a lawsuit" in which he hoped to be the principal

witness, and so was naturally indisposed to anticipate the cream of his testimony. As it was nevertheless "understood" that Mr. Tilden's sales of elevated-railroad stock during Mr. Field's recent absence in Europe were the cause of the trouble, Mr. Field was induced to refer vaguely to that matter, and to explain that he took Mr. Tilden "into the elevated-railroad business," as a strong legislative ally would be convenient in case the decision of the Court of Appeals then pending should prove adverse. "That is the way he came to get into it, and now he has got his $1,000,000 in his pocket," concluded Mr. Field bitterly. He added that Mr. Tilden, who used to visit him "sometimes two or three times a day," had, since his return from Europe, kept out of his way through shame and terror, but that he should meet him "one of these days" and give him a piece of his mind. He is also now prepared to believe that Mr. Tilden "knew everything about those cipher despatches." Upon this Mr. Tilden's version of the affair was of course eagerly sought. As might perhaps have been expected, it failed to throw any very clear light upon Mr. Field's animadversion. Mr. Tilden explains that he took his stock at Mr. Field's request, after Mr. Vanderbilt had "pooh-poohed it," and that he was free to do what he liked with it, which Mr. Field admits, though sardonically; that he acted with great considerateness in not selling it in large blocks, so as to depress the market, partly for the excellent reason that he intended to keep some of it, partly because it was his "disposition not to hurt anybody more than was absolutely necessary"; but that he wanted to reduce his investment so that he could have "rest and recreation, undisturbed by any cause, business or political, during the present summer"; and he contrived to get in some very neat remarks about the absence of a conservative element in the Manhattan Company's directory, and about the precarious nature of elevated-railroad investments in general.

All this, of course, is regarded as of extreme importance by the newspapers, to which nothing that Mr. Tilden can do seems insignificant. The *Tribune* says the appetites of Democratic politicians have been inordinately whetted at the thought of the $1,000,000 which Mr. Field says Mr. Tilden has got "in his pocket," and which they hope to see transferred to "the barrel." The *World* intimates that Mr. Tilden's temporary indisposition to be interviewed may have done untold harm to his Presidential chances. The *Times* is moved to call him "a cruel old spider." It is noticeable that the *Times* has recently acquired respect for the mental and physical abilities of the "old plotter," whom it was a short time ago describing as a "wreck" bereft of every faculty save the feeble remnant of a memory. It does indeed still call him a "bankrupt in reputation and health," but this in a purely perfunctory way, as it proceeds to show by calling him "a wonderful old man," "serene in his absolute power over his party," and protesting it will not do to regard him "as an extinguished force, a shadow of a shade." It even permits its reporter to allude to "this feeble sexagenarian" as having "paced briskly up and down the room," which indicates the activity of health, and as having "chuckled," which indicates excellent spirits. On the other hand, the *World* proves a foe of Mr. Tilden's own household, and says that he "husbands his voice now as much as possible in ordinary conversation," and that he has of late "adopted a kind of colloquial stenography." It has, however, been at the pains to interview a resident of Yonkers, where Mr. Tilden is spending the summer, who maintains that though the "sexagenarian" is "saving" of his voice he is by no means losing it, and that the reporter "ought to hear him yell at the railroad fellows around here some morning when he's afraid he's going to miss the train." This, if trustworthy, is as important evidence that Mr. Tilden's physical decrepitude has been exaggerated as his getting his $1,000,000 in his pocket is that his mind still retains its grasp upon intellectual problems.

There is a fresh movement of some sort on foot against the Mormons. Mr. Evarts is reported to have sent a circular to foreign Powers, indicating, we do not know in what terms, the dislike of this Government to the immigration of Mormons into this country, and propounding the theory that anybody who comes here to be a Mormon comes with criminal intent. Of course the European reply is—the London *Times* has furnished it—that there is no way of sifting the emigrants who go to America, or of ascertaining who of them have Mormon designs. Relief will certainly not come from that quarter. We must tackle the Mormon difficulty ourselves. Recent legislation and judicial decisions now not only make polygamy a criminal offence, but exclude Mormons from juries impanelled to try it, and the courts in the Territory, we believe, have laid it down that evidence as to what the Scotch call "habit and repute" will be sufficient proof of "plural marriage." But we still think that the authorities and the public are, as we pointed out some time ago, deceiving themselves as to the ease of obtaining convictions for polygamy, owing to their reliance on the analogy furnished by prosecutions for bigamy among Christians. In these latter cases there is always an angry woman who knows all about the offence, and, in fact, is herself the *corpus delicti*, pursuing the bigamous man; indeed, in most cases he has two angry women at his heels ready to be sworn. Among the Mormons, on the other hand, the wives will be *participes criminis*, and eager to shield the offender, and, what is still worse, will not care for legal marriage, but will be content with any kind of secret ecclesiastical marriage. There is nothing so dependent on local opinion for its efficacy as legislation about the relations of the sexes, and we fear Mormonism will have to be extirpated by the same weapons as other phases of low civilization.

The Sprague-Conkling scandal has been a great windfall for the newspapers, coming as it did in the midst of the hot weather, when people were far readier for a dish of scandal than for the discussion of serious topics. Most of them have treated it in an exhaustive manner, though each from a slightly different point of view; the most profound and far-reaching essay being that of Mr. Henry Watterson, of the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, who surveyed the field from the rocky brow of Block Island. None of them has a good word for Mr. Conkling, but he gallantly refuses to make "the statement" for which they have all been anxiously waiting. He is in strict seclusion in Utica, probably reflecting how the civil service can best be reformed without endangering the political rights of the Southern blacks. The most sagacious female correspondents now say freely that they have long foreseen this trouble, feeling sure that the enormous self-confidence bred by his "torso" would eventually bring him to grief. It is impossible to say as yet what effect it will have on the henchmen; some of the best observers say none whatever; that he will go to the Convention at Saratoga as strong as ever, and will nominate Mr. A. B. Cornell for the governorship if he pleases, in order to avenge that gentleman upon the Administration, but that he will probably refrain, and permit the nomination of some one else—say Judge Robertson—for the sake of "harmony in the party."

The Railroad Investigating Committee at Albany have had before them two important witnesses within the past week, the president of the New York Central and the receiver of the Erie railroads. Both displayed considerable irritation and indignation at the conduct of the investigation, Mr. Vanderbilt suggesting to Mr. Sterne, the examining counsel, that a class of people, whom he referred to somewhat vaguely and uncivilly as "you fellows," would like to prevent transportation companies from making any money at all if they had their way. Mr. Jewett entered a formal protest, on the ground that the methods of proceeding employed or allowed by the committee were unfair. With regard to the question of special rates, the Erie road makes a better showing than the Central; Mr. Jewett testifies that the only special rates allowed on his line are abatements from tariff-rates made to shippers, not arbitrarily but on reasonable grounds, and allowed equally to all persons similarly situated. "Preferential" rates—in other words, rates granted as a matter of favor or caprice—he declares are never permitted on the Erie Railroad. Of course, special rates of the kind described by

Mr. Jewett are unobjectionable. The abuse consists in giving A. better rates than B., when both are doing the same kind of business under the same circumstances. This is contrary to law, but the only remedy now existing—that of a civil action—is utterly inadequate, and needs to be supplemented by some criminal process. The manner of conducting the investigation adopted by the Committee certainly seems open to criticism. They have practically abandoned it to Mr. Sterne, who, naturally enough, starting with a preconceived theory of the case, has really subjected the officials to a severe and searching cross-examination. Cross-examination is well calculated to elicit the truth in a court of justice, where there are pleadings, a definite issue of fact, and a tribunal charged with the duty of administering a fixed system of law; but it is less useful in an examination by a legislative committee, which has before it the task of enquiry for the purpose of ascertaining the best policy for the State to pursue.

There has recently been a good deal of excitement created in Norwich, Ct., by strenuous opposition to Sunday excursions on the part of the Rev. Leonard W. Bacon, who is pastor of a Congregational church in that place. It seems that there is a clause in the Revised Statutes of Connecticut, bearing date of 1702, which prohibits "any sport or recreation on Sunday," and that for a year or two past a little steamer has taken a party of excursionists to Watch Hill and back on Sundays during the summer. This open violation of a time-honored statute went utterly unnoticed, or at least unreproved, before Dr. Bacon became a resident of Norwich. The second excursion during his pastorate, however, induced Dr. Bacon to attempt to secure the prosecution of both the managers and passengers of the steamer under the statute. The city attorney nevertheless appears to have made no move in the matter, and the main result has been a popular agitation. At a mass-meeting of citizens held on the 11th instant Dr. Bacon delivered an impassioned address, which has since been printed and widely distributed. He announced that the glory of the New-England Sabbath was "not endangered but *gone*," that despite this he did not consider the present question "a religious matter at all," and that his whole purpose was to see the civil law executed, "so as to find out what sort of a place Norwich is," which he hoped to know "in about three weeks." "My work is done," said Dr. Bacon. "I have dragged these two most reluctant parties together—the law and the law-breakers." As this could have been done by a note to the city attorney as well as by a mass-meeting, the latter may be objected to as superfluous, but it served to show the philanthropic design of Dr. Bacon. His main argument, except of course the matter of illegality, was that, if Sunday steamboat excursions are allowed, factories will soon run seven days in the week, and then it will not be long "before some gentleman from New York with a foreign accent and a small stock of fancy goods will open a little store on Main Street," after which Norwich might as well be out of New England as in it. Dr. Bacon has more hopes of New London, where the steamer in question touches, and the mayor of that city took some measures to prevent its landing from being profitable last Sunday, all the while, however, "laughing in his sleeve," as the papers report, since he is a Democrat.

The report of the *Herald* that General Grant had declared to Hi-Lung-Chang that he did not desire to serve another term in the Presidency is receiving confirmation from a variety of sources. Mr. George W. Childs, who knows more of the General's mind than almost any one else, affirms positively that the scheme of renominating him is distasteful to him, and that he will not allow himself to be put into the political arena again. But, in addition to this, Admiral Ammen, an old friend of his, has positively announced not only that he (General Grant) will not be a candidate for re-election, but that he has agreed to accept the presidency of an American company for making an interoceanic canal across the Isthmus of Panama under American engineers, and that the scheme is well under way, M. Lesseps having abandoned his project owing to inability to find the capital. If this news all prove true, and we see no reason to doubt it, the country has good reason to congratulate itself. The third-term scheme was concocted by the unclean horde who brought disgrace on General Grant's Administration, and was taken up recklessly by a portion of the Republican party which had apparently lost its faith in popular government. Its extinction will not only help to give politics a healthier tone, but will enable General Grant to close his career in an honorable position both suited to his character and capacity, and in which the memories of his earlier and better days will again grow up about him, and give him back the pure fame he won on the field before politicians began to "poison his mind."

The foreign exchanges continue to rule in favor of the importation of gold. During the week $1,560,000 in gold bars and coin arrived here on the English and French steamers, and it is understood that upwards of $5,000,000 more are afloat and on the way. This gold had not found its way into the reserve of the banks during the week covered by Saturday's bank statement, but that is its ultimate destination, as bank reserves are very low, and the main dependence for protection against a stringent money market is now admitted to be foreign gold. The rates for demand loans were plump 6 to 7 per cent., and there were times in the week when money could not be got at 7 per cent. without paying a commission to secure it. The effect of the advance in the rates for loans was to depress United States bonds, but prices were rallied late in the week. The share speculation at the Stock Exchange resisted the naturally depressing effect of dearer money, and prices were absolutely advanced. General mercantile business continues active and satisfactory. There has been a decided modification of the yield of the wheat crop in the Northwest, which turns out to be smaller in the number of bushels and poorer in quality than was at first estimated. On the other hand, the French crops are better than expected, but recent storms throughout Great Britain have increased the wants of that country and its probable demand on the United States for cereals. The silver market, here and in London, was without important change during the week.

A debate in Parliament on Dean Stanley's proposal to inter the late Prince Napoleon in Westminster Abbey brought out from Sir Stafford Northcote an authorized denial that the Queen had suggested it, and an assertion that the idea was Dean Stanley's own. This led to a communication to the *Times*, evidently inspired, at least, by the Dean himself, declaring that the suggestion came from "the public." As the public now seems dead against it, having recovered from its fit of maudlin loyalty and flunkyism, it will probably be easy for him to slip out of the scheme altogether. That a Christian minister of his standing should look on the Bonaparte family with anything but horror, considering the amount of bloodshed and misery it has brought on Europe within the present century through its ferocious selfishness and unscrupulousness, is a striking illustration of the small extent to which political morality has yet penetrated the pulpit.

The only news from Europe of any importance, which passes beyond the character of gossip, is the retirement of Count Andrássy, who has now for several years piloted the Austrian Empire through stormy seas. Nothing positive is as yet known about his successor, and the reports as to the exact cause of his resignation are more or less contradictory. The results of the late elections have, of course, something to do with it, but the Count's position was not altogether dependent on the Austrian Parliament. The chief interest of Austria is to keep the Hungarians in good humor, as they are not only the most turbulent portion of the Empire but the ablest politicians. It is, therefore, of the last importance that the Prime Minister should be a Hungarian, even if he has not the support of a working majority in the Austrian Parliament. Nobody but a Hungarian would probably have been able to carry through the annexation of Bosnia and Montenegro, and make the occupation of Novi-Bazar, which carries Austria half way down to Salonica, seem to the Maygars a harmless move.

THE STALWART POLICY AND THE PARTY POLICY.

ATTENTION has very properly been called to the fact that both Secretary Sherman and Secretary Schurz in their late speeches in Ohio have disclaimed, in so far as they can do so on behalf of the Republican party, any purpose in denouncing the fraud and violence practised in politics at the South beyond influencing public opinion against the return of the Democrats to power at Washington. This has been made absolutely necessary by the wild talk of a good many Stalwart writers and politicians, who have done their best to persuade people that if they can get hold of the Government in 1880, by putting their man in the Presidential chair, they will repress disorder with the strong hand, and in complete disregard of the Constitution and the laws. Much indignation and disgust as the late Democratic proceedings in Washington may have excited, the Republicans cannot afford to enter on the next Presidential contest burdened with the suspicion even of having any such programme in their minds. The extravagant threats and denunciations which some Stalwart orators find so telling at public meetings in Iowa, Maine, and other States in which Republicans are sure of success under any circumstances, unhappily reach people in other States in which Republicans are by no means sure of success, and are pondered by a body of persons whom, as a general rule, managers are apt to think of small account, but who in several States hold the balance of power.

The recommendation of the Grant Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Boutwell, for instance, that the Southern States should, in time of peace, with the courts sitting, be reduced to the condition of provinces, and governed, Cromwellian fashion, by major-generals, or the proclamation of the Iowa Republicans that the powers of Congress are unlimited, may be very good reading in the inner circles of orthodox Republicanism, but it was not for any such state of things as these worthies desire that the North fought to put down the rebellion. People fought for the Union because they liked it as it was before the war, and they like the same kind of Union now, with the addition of precautions against slavery and secession and political inequality. They never said, and do not say now, that they are prepared to give up the Constitution and their liberties unless they can have a Union in which there shall be no rioting, no fraud or violence at elections whatsoever, and in which no laborers shall be cheated by their employers or by the corner-grocers. One of the great differences between America and Austria used to be that in the former state people looked for the rectification of these evils to time, to education, to trade, and to the steadying though slow discipline of free institutions; while in the latter it was thought to be the proper work of Radetsky, Windischgrätz, and other "strong men," with cavalry, infantry, and artillery. Austria has learnt much wisdom on these points, and is now trying, as well as her manners and traditions will let her, the American method; but the American method has not been abandoned by Americans, nor is there, whatever the Chandlers and Newmans and Havens may say, any widespread or deep-seated doubt in the American mind of its efficacy.

Below the froth of political discussion there is still profound popular faith in it, however badly it may for the moment seem to work at particular points. If the Stalwarts continue their attempts to prove its failure in the style in which some of them have been lately indulging, they may be refuted in a manner which will not only be a rude awakening for themselves, but will seriously damage the organization which counts them in its ranks. It has to be taken into account, too—and this is undoubtedly the oddest feature in their position—that their plan was tried for several years and proved futile. The South was governed on it, without let or hindrance from any quarter, from 1868 to 1876, and during the whole period it was, according to their own account, desolated by murders and outrages of the most shocking description. General Sheridan reported three thousand as having been committed in the State of Louisiana within a short period, and proposed in 1875 that a whole class of the white population of the State should be outlawed by act of Congress and then tried by military commission, and the Secretary of War acknowledged this recommendation by a telegram of "thorough approval." This was the year before Mr. Hayes's accession to the Presidency and the eighth of the Stalwart régime. The "Mississippi plan," too, was carried out during General Grant's Presidency.

The state of things at the South now, according to the most authentic Stalwart accounts, is vastly better than it was then. The New York *Times* does not, we believe, stick to the tale that two days in the year—Christmas and Election Day—are throughout the South given up to the slaughter of negroes, and that it furnishes a favorite amusement on other days. "Outrages" of the worst kind ceased, it was admitted even by William E. Chandler, after Mr. Hayes's policy was adopted. What the negroes suffer most from now is cheating at the polls, and usury and extortion in their current accounts with planters and storekeepers; but these things do not prevent great numbers of the thrifty from acquiring property, and all from raising crops the size and value of which are the best proofs of the prevailing tranquillity. The Chisholm tragedy, shocking as it was, belonged to a category of crimes of which unhappily the social history of every State in the South, like that of scores of other semi-barbarous and thinly-peopled communities, is full. The Dixon affair, too, was another of the same kind. That such things are not promptly punished is, in the eyes of those who live in happier climes, very dreadful, like the vendetta in Corsica and Montenegro, but it has no political significance whatever. Such crimes are not committed in communities in which their punishment is certain, and in which public opinion reprobates them. The readiness to commit them, and the difficulty of bringing the perpetrators to justice, are two plants which grow on the same soil. The cure for the one is the cure for the other, but nothing has been better established by experience than that that cure is not to be found in the processes of Stalwartism. The civilization of the South cannot be raised or purified by putting the Shepherds, Chandlers, and Caseys once more in power, and giving the Camerons and Conklings a firmer hold of the machine, and diffusing through the ranks of Government employees a contempt for the letter of the Constitution, and a feeling that the war has somehow deprived it of its binding force. Nor is reprobation of Southern violence which plainly has this end in view likely to be effective at the South. The condemnation which will tell on Southern manners and feelings will have to be something deeper and sincerer than party condemnation, or condemnation inspired, or supposed to be inspired, by a desire for votes. The disease with which Southern society is afflicted is not a Democratic disease simply. If every Southern white voted the Republican ticket today, there would still be plenty of outrages and assaults and batteries. The shotgun would be employed for a different purpose, but it would still be employed, if the triumph of the other side threatened something very disagreeable. The South has still to learn how to discuss. Its public oratory and its voting have, for three generations, been always in one direction, and competition for offices has always been complicated and embittered by the family feuds which fill up the time and thoughts of people who live lonely lives and have few neighbors. We here in New York do not know how much we are indebted to the multiplicity of our distractions for deliverance from the danger of being "shot on sight," or from being requested to leave the city within twenty-four hours, because a number of gentlemen do not like our last article, or are displeased with the company we keep.

In fact, the notion that the Southern problem will be solved by keeping any particular party in or out of power, however useful on the stump, will not bear examination in a private room. The strong reprobation which Southern violence and outrage excite at the North among men of all parties is undoubtedly producing its effect, but this is owing to the fact that the Southerner is becoming daily more like the Northerner, is more dependent on him, and more sympathetic with him through increasing similarity of social conditions. The old "Southern gentleman," with his pistols, his juleps, and his nullification rhetoric, who did so much to shape South-

ern politics twenty-five years ago, is becoming so rare as to be somewhat of a curiosity. He was as impervious to the public opinion of the rest of the world as Osman Pasha; his successor, the bull-dozer, is by no means impervious to it. Ferocious as he is he winces under it, and will wince more and more.

THE SAN FRANCISCO TUMULTS.

THE difficulties in the way of the successful working of the California Constitution, arising out of its own defects, were grave enough a week ago; but they will probably be considerably increased by the Kalloch tragedy, which has roused the Kearneyites to the wildest pitch of excitement, and almost made certain the defeat of the "Honorable Bilks," or old office-holders, who proposed to take charge of the instrument themselves and lick it into shape. It is not very encouraging for the business interests of the State, too, that the result of the first election under the new Constitution should be determined not by a discussion of the instrument itself, but by a fight between a preacher of shady reputation and the editor of a scurrilous newspaper; and worse still, that the fight should have arisen not over any political topics, but over their own personal antecedents. De Young, the editor, assailed the character of Kalloch's dead father, and threatened to "expose" Kalloch himself, Kalloch being a man to whom exposure would be very painful. Kalloch retorted by devoting an evening discourse in his own place of worship to an unsavory account of De Young's life and exploits, winding up with a truly oriental assault on the character of De Young's mother. De Young thereupon shot him, and the Kearneyite ticket will probably be successful. This is really a résumé of the political situation, and it must be a painful subject of contemplation for the sober and thoughtful inhabitants of the State.

It may prove useful, however, in more ways than one. It revealed the fact that Kearney, who has always been in talk a man of blood, is not really a fighting man. He was eagerly expected by his followers after the shooting of Kalloch, and they were never in better mood for an armed attack on their enemies, but the police and militia being on the alert, Kearney promptly assumed the rôle of a peacemaker, and warned them against any outbreak in language which would have done credit to a police magistrate. That he is not in earnest when he talks about hanging the well-to-do, and that he really shrinks from musketry and artillery, will probably be a relief to a good many people in San Francisco. At the last advices order had been fully restored, and Kalloch's condition was said to be improving. We do not like to believe that his son, another Baptist minister, harangued the mob and called on them to help him to kill De Young if the law did not kill him, and yet this is what has been reported.

The affair has probably also brought home to the more conscientious and reflective class of Californians the fact—for fact it seems to be—that Kearney and his tribe are, in California as they are almost everywhere, the product of a bad social system, and that there will not be much political rest in the State until this has been in some way remedied. The Constitution owed its adoption not to the city mob—for it was defeated in San Francisco and other large towns—but to the small country farmers, who were incensed, and from all one can hear justly incensed, at the influence in politics of huge masses of property held in the hands of men who use it without the least sense of social responsibility. One of the candidates now in the field owns, it is said, sixty thousand acres of wheat, and in this large tract of territory there is neither church, nor schoolhouse, nor village, nor anything but the hovels in which a few hundred laborers live and the hovel in which the owner lives, for he allows himself nothing better. These vast estates in land and vast mining estates are more numerous in California, probably, than in any other country in proportion to area and population, and they are held in a large number of cases by men whose use of the power their wealth gives them is marked neither by scruple nor public spirit. In fact, we doubt much whether great wealth was ever before presented to an English-speaking community in a form less likely to command respect or even forbearance. For perfect immunity and impunity it needs a population like that of Peru or Chili, or Russia before emancipation, living in whole or partial serfdom, and unused to speculation on the foundations of social order. It illustrates, too, the kind of danger to which the community is exposed from the possession, in these days of agricultural machinery and railroads, of a superabundance of land in proportion to population. The controversy between the small and large holdings, which has raged for many years, seems in our time to be coming to a close in favor of the former. It begins to be acknowledged more and more widely that it is not enough to raise so many bushels of grain to the acre in any way, but the question how it is raised is also one of considerable importance to the community.

The selection of Kalloch by the workingmen as their champion, and the exposition made by Kalloch himself in his pulpit of the nature of his claims to the place, are also useful illustrations of some of the tendencies of the time. There is nothing particularly remarkable in the indifference of the Kearneyites to the moral character of their leaders. Parties made up as this is have never shown themselves at all particular about the private life of their chiefs. The demagogue has almost always been a good deal of a blackguard. Nor is the history of the *Chronicle*, whose editor assailed Kalloch, anything new or altogether peculiar. We are familiar in other places than San Francisco with the spectacle of a newspaper obtaining its first foothold by the preparation and publication of scandal about individuals, and providing itself with capital by selling its silence and forbearance to the timid or sensitive, and then growing gradually more decent, and finally becoming the champion of decorum and "high-toned journalism." The field for such enterprises is still open in nearly every large city in the Union, and especially in cities like San Francisco, and we might say also New York, largely peopled by persons whose past is not much known to their neighbors.

But the entrance of the sensational preacher into politics as a candidate for office, advocating his own claims and assailing his adversary from the pulpit in the language and with the methods of the stump in its lowest state, is a novel phenomenon. Nothing as bad as this has occurred on the Eastern coast, though nobody who has observed the sensational preacher's career for some years back can have been wholly unprepared for it. The popular passion for "eloquence" has for a long time made success in politics possible to men destitute both of character and knowledge. Its evil effects on religion were recently pointed out in forcible terms by a writer in the *Atlantic Monthly*. But it has of late, in a growing number of cases, enabled men to stay in the pulpit after they had lost the better part of the moral equipment of religious teachers. It is, as we now see every day, almost impossible to oust, for any offence, a minister whose oratorical powers have given him a strong hold on his congregation; and the coarser sort of ministers have begun to use their oratorical gifts as a means of asserting a larger liberty in various directions, short of absolute misconduct. Kalloch, without what appears to be his really remarkable gift of the gab, would probably have long ago been utterly and completely turned away from the clerical calling. But his power of making people feel good in their pews by his declamation appears to have brought him back to preaching, in the intervals between other pursuits, wherever he went, and he never returned without a certain measure of success. In San Francisco he delivered, just before he was shot, what was no doubt a powerful exposition of the propriety of clergymen's running for office, and followed it up by the examination of "the record" of one of his enemies, which appears to have been an extraordinary piece of ruffianism. None of the school in this part of the world has gone quite as far as this, but that we have some who, if their vanity was tickled by a nomination, would give their congregations some startling specimens of the same style of rhetoric, there is little doubt. The evil, which consists in using the traditional associations of religious worship to give an air of force and dignity to charlatanism, is a serious one, and if Kalloch's fate does anything to

check it, his death will in some degree make amends for his life. It does not make the matter any easier to deal with to say that the looseness with which theological beliefs are now held has much to do with making such a career as his possible.

QUEEN ELIZABETH AND THE HUGUENOTS.

II.

PARIS, August 4, 1879.

I LEFT Elizabeth of England at the time of the peace of Amboise. I will now follow her after that period, always using the inedited documents published by M. de la Ferrière. Charles IX. announced to Elizabeth from Dampierre the conclusion of the peace, and asked her to give back Havre to France. Elizabeth was very angry with the Prince de Condé, who had hastened to make peace with the King; she thought him ungrateful—in a letter to Calvin she went so far as to call him a *misérable;* she used milder expressions in her official correspondence. Havre was taken by force, and peace was made between the two countries.

In the midst of their struggle Elizabeth and Catherine de Médicis were kept united by one common fear: they were afraid of a marriage between Mary Stuart and Don Carlos. Lord Hunsdon had brought to Charles IX. the Order of the Garter; on the 4th of October he wrote to Cecil from Avignon, whither he had followed the Court: "The marriage of the Queen of Scotland is the great preoccupation; they speak of her, of Lord Robert Dudley, of the Earl of Warwick, and of the Prince of Spain. Others would marry her either with the Earl of Arran or with the young Duc de Guise; but this last marriage would make the house of Guise too powerful, and the Queen-mother does not favor it. They begin to be uneasy about the pretensions of the son of Lord Lennox." Catherine de Médicis made overtures to the ambassador ordinary, Smith, about a marriage between Elizabeth and Charles IX. Catherine did not conceal the difficulties of this union: first, there was the difference of age; but the King told Smith: "If your mistress is contented with my age I will be contented with hers." Secondly, there would be the necessity for Elizabeth to live in France. Thirdly, there would be much discontent among the nobility of both countries. Smith observed that he could make no answer on any of these points, having no instructions on the subject. "If," said he, "the King was four years older, and if he had seen the Queen, and if he had any love for her, I should not be surprised at this haste." "What!" said the King with animation, "but in truth I love her." "At your age," said the sententious Smith, "one does not know what love is; but you will soon know, for all have to submit, man and prince; it is in truth the maddest, the most impatient, the least respectful thing that can be imagined." The King blushed, and the Queen answered for him: "Oh! his is not a mad love." "I confess," said Smith, "that it ought to be founded on serious reasons, on grave and mature deliberation." Catherine, however, insisted upon a prompt answer from Elizabeth. A little while afterwards the same matter was discussed between Catherine and Lord John Somers, at Bayonne; Somers promised an answer within four months.

Civil war had begun again in France, and the Protestant chiefs counted upon the help of Elizabeth, but she did not interfere; and when Charles IX. announced to her a new peace (March 25, 1568), he took the opportunity to recommend to her Mary Stuart, who had taken refuge in England. Elizabeth wrote on the subject of Mary to Catherine: "Of the Queen of Scotland I will write as of a person who coming into my hands will be assured of her life and honor; and whatever you may hear to the contrary, be sure that it will not be through any fault of mine if her cause does not come to a good end. I do not forget that she is a queen, nor that she is my near relation; nor can I disregard the considerations which move and force me to treat her as ceremoniously and with as much pomp as she would desire. . . ." In a short note to Charles IX., written on the same day, she says that nothing will tempt her to forget "the regard which she has always had for the rights of princes touching their subjects." She will do nothing which would be "against God, nature, reason, or fortune." Norris replaced Throckmorton as ambassador. His instructions were to act as a sort of mediator between the Court and the Protestants. Elizabeth never lost sight of Calais; the French ambassador in London, Lamothe-Fénelon, complained incessantly of acts which constituted a real interference between the King of France and his subjects. A bloody war was raging in France; Condé and Coligny wrote letter after letter to Elizabeth; Jeanne d'Albret wrote to her after the battle of Jarnac. Being at peace with France, she was obliged to compliment officially Charles IX. and the Duc d'Anjou on the victories of Jarnac and Moncontour; but her sympathies were on the other side.

The ambiguous character of the Duc d'Anjou at times gave much hope to the Protestants; the Cardinal de Chastillon brought forward the idea of a marriage between him and Elizabeth of England. The same idea was broached by the Vidame of Chartres, who was one of the leaders of the Huguenots. We find in Count la Ferrière's volume a long letter from the Vidame to the Constable de Montmorency, in which he sets forth the advantages of this union and the dangers which would arise from a marriage between Elizabeth and an Austrian archduke. "Monseigneur," says he, speaking of the Duc d'Anjou, "might, with the help of the King, his brother, and of England, and by means of the Prince of Orange, obtain the confiscation of Flanders by feudal right for felony committed. And thus the house of Austria, which builds for itself the hereditary empire, would find in one moment two brothers, kings as powerful one as the other, as a check on his ambition, in league with all the Protestant chiefs of Germany." In this letter you will find the secret of the foreign policy of the Huguenot party: alliance with England, with the German Protestants, with the house of Orange, and the annexation of Flanders, of what is now called Belgium, with France. It was the policy of Coligny, it became the policy of Henry IV.; but after Henry IV. this policy was so completely abandoned that Richelieu could only revive it in some of its parts.

Catherine de Médicis was flattered with the idea of the union of her most beloved son with Elizabeth; but the duke himself wrote to his mother that "he would never marry Elizabeth, even if she wished it—d'autant qu'il a toujours mal ouï parler de son honneur, et en a veu des lettres écriptes de tous les ambassadeurs qui y ont été, et qu'il penserait être déshonoré et perdre toute la réputation qu'il a acquise." The true motives of the disinclination of the Duc d'Anjou are still mysterious. It is quite clear that Elizabeth thought seriously of this union; she asked Catherine to send a special ambassador for this negotiation. Catherine chose Guido Cavalcanti, who had long interviews with Cecil and with the Queen herself. Lamothe-Fénelon, who was ambassador, kept a record of all this negotiation. Elizabeth would sometimes speak seriously of the marriage, and consider its political aspects; then she would speak "of the beauty of the Duc d'Anjou, of his person, of his hand, one of the finest in France." She added with melancholy that in a few years, when he would still be perfect, she would be old, and her days would be spent in "a sepulchre of tears." Had they spoken to the duke of her foot, of her arms? She was excessively fond of flattery, and the French ambassadors lavished all their praise on her charms.

Paul de Foix was sent as an ambassador, and we see in his despatches that Elizabeth was very unmanageable on the subject of the Catholic religion; she said that she could not allow its exercise in her kingdom, "that she would rather die than see it." The Duc d'Anjou was not disposed himself to cede on this point; he claimed some rights for a Catholic; he did not conceal the fact that it did not please him to be "not the king, but the husband of the queen." In short, the negotiation did not make much progress, and finally for the Duc d'Anjou Catherine de Médicis substituted his brother, the Duc d'Alençon, as a candidate for the hand of Elizabeth. Elizabeth did not admire the Duc d'Alençon as much as his brother; he was of small stature, and his face had kept the traces of the small-pox. Alençon boldly offered himself, and sent his favorite, La Mole, to press his suit. Coligny showed himself favorable to this marriage; he was in the midst of the great projects which he had formed against the Spanish Netherlands. The marriage of Henry of Navarre with Marguerite of France was in accordance with the same projects. Catherine was decoying the Huguenots, and everybody knows how the marriage of Henry of Navarre was the opening scene of the great drama which ended in the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

At the time of the massacre the negotiations between Elizabeth and Charles IX. were progressing very favorably. If Elizabeth decided on going to war, Charles offered to help her with 200,000 ducats. He would himself invade the Spanish Netherlands. Such was the state of things when some fishermen brought the first news to Rye. A few Protestants, escaped from Dieppe, arrived in England; in an instant the English people became persuaded that the negotiations about a marriage between Elizabeth and the Duc d'Alençon, the marriage of Henry of Navarre, the overtures made to Coligny by the King, were a part of the same abominable plot. The first despatches from France to Lamothe-Fénelon arrived only on the 3d of September. The Queen was then at Woodstock. She kept Lamothe-Fénelon waiting for three days at Oxford, and then she received him with much ceremony, surrounded by all the members of her

Council and all the noblemen of the Court. Her face was sorrowful and stern ; she asked him in a few words if there was any truth in the strange rumors which were coming from France. The ambassador said that a sudden danger had left the King only a moment for reflection, and that an extreme necessity had obliged him to sacrifice the life of the admiral in order to save his own. Elizabeth answered with much majesty that she hoped that the admiral and his friends were even more guilty than the ambassador intimated, as such a massacre needed a justification, and she had very much at heart the reputation of a king whom she would have liked to love and honor as if she was his own wife. Lamothe made a few more phrases : he denied the premeditation of the act, its connection with religion ; he promised that the edicts of tolerance should be respected ; he hoped that nothing would alter the friendship between the two crowns. Elizabeth answered that she was very much afraid that those who had estranged the King from the Protestants would try to estrange him from her ; she added that many people said loudly that the marriage proposed to her had for its object a similar undertaking in England. Lamothe-Fénelon imprudently said that he hoped that the Queen would still, as she had promised to do, send an ambassador extraordinary to France for the confinement of the Queen. "God forbid," said she, "that I should send over the Earl of Leicester and the High Treasurer, as their lives would be in danger." Thus ended this important interview, which was the signal of a complete estrangement of the two courts. Elizabeth was a true queen on such occasions ; she had seen at once that all was over with Catherine de Médicis, that she had nothing to hope from the house of Guise, which had now become omnipotent.

Saint Bartholomew marked a sudden, a fatal change in the policy of all Europe. Schomberg, who was in Poland, trying to place the Duc d'Anjou on the throne, wrote : "My negotiation is vanishing into smoke." Holland, England, none of the Protestant princes of Germany, could any longer look upon France as an ally against the house of Austria. The Duke of Alva foresaw at once that England would no longer join her policy with France's. When Catherine wrote again to Elizabeth about her son, the Duc d'Alençon, she wrote in answer "that she could no longer hear without tears the enormous excesses of the kingdom of France ; that her advisers shut their ears at the sound of all they heard ; that it would not be decent for her to look to France for a husband, that her subjects would not permit it, and that some of her advisers even went so far as to say that any such proposition coming from France was a mere mockery." The negotiation, however, lasted still some time, but Elizabeth was much more ready to give an audience to the Protestant envoys than to the minions of the Duc d'Alençon.

Correspondence.

ENGLISH STUDIES AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : A writer in the *Atlantic Monthly* for September, after mentioning with approval a remark recently made by President Eliot, of Harvard University, to the effect that a thorough and elegant mastery of the mother-tongue is the one thing essential to culture, falls foul of the instruction in English given at Harvard, which he accuses of being curiously slight. Other colleges are included in his reprehension, whether justly or not I have no knowledge, but so far as his strictures relate to Harvard they proceed from profound misconception. English, this writer says, is at Harvard "a humble attendant on other studies, counting almost as a supernumerary. There are professorships of rhetoric and of English literature, but they are held in light esteem, I believe, by the other chairs of the Faculty." He is wholly mistaken ; and since what he says appears in the pages of the *Atlantic* it is worth while to correct his errors by a statement of the English instruction now given at Harvard. The candidate for admission is "required to write a short English composition, correct in spelling, punctuation, grammar, division by paragraphs, and expression" (Catalogue). A number of standard works are named in advance from which the subject for the composition will be taken. During further examinations in college a proper attention to the language he uses is exacted of each student and in every study. All Sophomores pursue and are examined upon a course of rhetoric and punctuation; they are obliged to write six themes, at stated intervals, during the year. Themes are subjected to a detailed correction both of manner and matter, and every fault or shortcoming noted in pencil. The student is then required to present a corrected copy, together with his original theme. If this is unsatisfactory he is made to try again. The Junior, who is required to take a course of logic, has also a similar course of themes, though of a larger scope ; in addition to this he has four forensics to write for another instructor, in which attention is paid to correctness of argument and originality of thought as well as to grammar and construction. In the Senior year there are four forensics to be written, usually on questions of politics, government, or political economy. The award of a degree is dependent upon satisfactory performance of the tasks above enumerated. Further than this, Professor Hill has an elective in which advanced instruction in rhetoric is given, with practice in writing, and a study of the best English authors. I need hardly mention Prof. Child's electives in English literature and their value. Of the critic's statement that these professors are held in light esteem, the remark which he quotes from President Eliot sufficiently disposes. The statement that the English electives are "made easy" is a misstatement ; it is well understood that Professor Child's department is shunned by "idle students." Other assertions it would be quite as easy to disprove, but I venture to encroach on your space only to correct the foregoing, which are fair specimens of the loose statements contained in the *Atlantic's* article. K.

New York, August 18.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co.'s new net Catalogue of the Clarendon Press Series of Educational Works (noticed in the *Nation* of June 20) will be ready in a few days, and will be sent free to teachers on application. Their Supplementary Catalogue, which is a part of this, announces among other works in press a new edition of the Anglo-Saxon Dictionary by Joseph Bosworth, D.D., late Professor of Anglo-Saxon at Oxford, completed by T. N. Toller, A.M., Lecturer on English Literature in Owens College, Manchester. Other fall announcements of the same firm are a third series of Dr. Freeman's 'Historical Essays'; 'Collected Lectures and Essays' and 'Seeing and Thinking,' by the late Professor Clifford; 'Darwinism and other Essays,' by Mr. John Fiske ; Mrs. Burnett's 'Haworth's' ; and 'Private Theatricals,' by Lady Pollock (Art-at-Home Series).——Murray announces 'The Moral Philosophy of Aristotle,' by Walter M. Hatch, and a second edition, with additions, of the late Mr. Grote's 'Aristotle.'——Longmans & Co. will soon publish revised editions of Professor Tyndall's 'Heat as a Mode of Motion' and 'Researches on Diamagnetism,' and a new series of Helmholtz's 'Popular Lectures on Scientific Subjects'; also an essay on 'Foreign Work and English Wages, considered with Reference to the Depression of Trade,' by Thomas Brassey, M.P.——Among forthcoming publications by Lippincott are 'Rabelais,' by Walter Besant, and 'Schiller,' by Andrew Wilson, concluding the "Foreign Classics for English Readers" Series ; 'The Climate of America; its Influence in Health and Disease,' by Professor Pepper, of the University of Pennsylvania, assisted in the section on Medical Topography by Dr. John M. Keating ; and 'The Miscellaneous Writings of Francis Lieber, LL.D.,' in two volumes octavo.——Edward Stern & Co., Philadelphia, have in preparation and will shortly publish 'The Political Economy of Democracy,' an essay, by John Lord Peck; and 'First Step in Chemical Principles,' by Prof. Henry Leffmann, M.D.——A revised edition of the 'Descriptive Catalogue of the Pompeian Museum at Fairmount Park, Philadelphia,' has just been published by authority of the Park Commission. It contains fuller information than the first edition, and is appropriately supplemented by a list of works relating to Pompeii for consultation.——The New York Local Committee upon the Harvard Examinations for Women again call attention to the scheme, which our readers know has proved an entire success. Preparations for the winter work are now beginning, and persons who desire complete information concerning the studies and the examinations—which will take place May 26 next—should address the secretary at 59 East Twenty-fifth Street.——The *Cornhill Magazine* for August contains an article called "Leaves from the Laurels of Molière," written curiously enough without any knowledge whatever of the work of the past fifty years, and indeed much as it might have been in the last century. It accepts all the rash assertions of Grimarest, of Voltaire, of the 'Ménagiana,' and of kindred compilations. It ignores all the researches of Beffara, Bazin, Soulié, Campardon, and Loiseleur. The writer seems never to have seen a good edition of Molière, like Moland's or Despois's.

—The September *Lippincott's*—which for the rest is light enough reading—has an interesting article entitled "De Lauzun, De Fersen, and Marie

Antoinette," by Mr. John Austen Stevens, based on the volume by De Fersen's grand-nephew, Baron de Klinckowström, of which ample account has been rendered in our own columns. The inferences which Mr. Stevens draws from certain letters of De Fersen, while they are ingenious, are at the same time so strictly impartial as to seem almost not pertinent; one asks himself which side of the main question Mr. Stevens is on after all. This is especially true of what he has to say concerning De Lauzun. But herein resides the charm of his essay; and, in any view, the reader is provided with data from which to draw his own conclusions in so far as there are any to draw. There are various kinds of literary and historical gossip, and so many of them are worse than valueless that it is worth while to call attention to the happy manner in which a graceful pen can treat a rather unpromising subject.

—Mr. Trollope's essay on Hawthorne in the September *North American Review* is mainly noteworthy for a characterization by Hawthorne of Trollope's novels, which is quoted from a private letter and warrants reproduction: "Have you ever read the novels of Anthony Trollope?" Hawthorne wrote. "They precisely suit my taste; solid and substantial, written on strength of beef and through the inspiration of ale, and just as real as if some giant had hewn a great lump out of the earth and put it under a glass case, with all its inhabitants going about their daily business, and not suspecting that they were made a show of." It would be difficult to describe Mr. Trollope's "wholesome" works in more precise and felicitous language than this. It seems curiously to annoy Mr. Trollope, however, particularly the allusion to beef and ale, and he is betrayed into referring to it now and then in the course of his essay by the same nervousness which possibly made it as impossible for him to omit to quote it as to forget it. There is, to be sure, nothing very severe about it, and most of Mr. Trollope's admirers will doubtless admit that it contains very good grounds for their admiration. But, apparently, Mr. Trollope is a trifle exasperated by reflecting upon its truthfulness on the one hand, and on the other upon the total lack of imagination which it charges. He consoles himself by remarking that, in reading Hawthorne, "For a time, at least, you have been free from the mundane touch of that beef and ale with which novelists of a meaner school will certainly bring you into contact," and by such subtle insinuation as "No one will feel himself ennobled at once by having read one of my novels." The reflection is irresistible that it must have cost him a pang to refrain from italicizing the "at once." Nevertheless, the reader will not regret this exhibition of sensitiveness on Mr. Trollope's part. For, after reading the critical part of his book upon Thackeray, it is impossible not to conclude that what makes Mr. Trollope's literary criticism worth reading is not what he says about his subject, but what he discloses concerning himself. What he says about Hawthorne here—about "The Genius of Nathaniel Hawthorne," as his article is entitled—is of the slightest value; it is safe to affirm that it would not have been printed anonymously, not only because of its omissions, which include mention of what many people will agree with Hawthorne in thinking his most artistic performance, but because of the commonplace of most of its statements. What he discloses concerning himself is chiefly his utter unfitness to write about Hawthorne at all. A writer whose critical equipment consists of unsympathetic analysis, and who lacks the imaginative faculty, is never a sure guide, it is probable; but he is especially untrustworthy when he writes of a mind so "lopsided" as Mr. Trollope maintains Hawthorne's was. He infallibly misses nice distinctions, misses the delicate drift of 'The Marble Faun,' for example, or passes over entirely a work like 'The Blithedale Romance,' which is not more "lopsided" than romances of the beef-and-ale sort, unless it be argued that ideality implies lopsidedness. Perhaps, after all, this is Mr. Trollope's notion, however.

—Several of the daily papers have announced the appointment, by United States Commissioner of Education Eaton, of Henry Hurlbert, a son of the president and a graduate of the last class of Middlebury (Vt.) College, as a travelling commissioner to go to Europe and examine the systems of education in Great Britain and the Continent. It is perhaps within the limits of possibility that Mr. Henry Hurlbert is an accomplished French and German and English scholar, and a young gentleman of acute powers of observation and discrimination. But it of course goes without saying that it is, in the very circumstances of the case, impossible that he should have had the special training and experience absolutely indispensable to the work for which it appears he has been selected, and which, it is assumed, has never been done before. It is far more likely that people will esteem General Eaton, who gave the Phi Beta Kappa oration at Middlebury this year, guilty of an outrageous piece of favoritism in providing for President Hurlbert's son a chance to travel in Europe at the expense of the Government. General Eaton may perhaps be impervious to such criticism, but we should think the president of an American educational institution would take an interest in the cause of American education deep enough to prevent his connivance at anything so excellently calculated to bring discredit upon it as such an appointment. If we are not to look to the presidents of our colleges gradually to bring it about that education shall more and more seem a serious and practical matter to the American public, the problem becomes at once unexpectedly complicated.

—The Cincinnati Public Library has lately published a catalogue of its dramas and dramatic poems, 192 pp. of double columns, brevier type, the same in size and appearance as its Bulletin of accessions for 1878. The first 100 pp., including 8 pp. of additions, is a catalogue of authors; the remainder gives the titles of the plays by languages, and of these 7 pp. or 14 columns are titles of French plays, 19 pp. or 38 columns of German. As is natural, one turns first to the deficiencies, and wonders why it was not thought well to add the 'Théâtre de Campagne' and 'Saynètes et Monologues' to the library before printing. The catalogue, however, is easy to consult, and the large type is an advantage in that way; but it is somewhat uneven in execution, and calls for criticism in the matter of so-called library analysis—*i.e.*, the proper cataloguing of authors and titles in collections as well as otherwise. For instance, 'Plays for Private Acting, translated from the French and Italian,' the volume in the Leisure-Hour Series, is catalogued under Plays, and the contents there given; but the different plays are further catalogued neither under authors nor titles, a very serious omission. So the plays in Bloch's 'Volks-Theater,' the 'Bibliothek Vaterländischer Schauspiele,' and Wallner's 'Thespiskarren,' are catalogued under the titles but not under authors. These three collections are in the additions, and very likely it was not possible to catalogue them at that stage of the printing; yet in the first printed part of the work, under Parlor Theatricals, we find plays by Frank Cahill and George Arnold, who are not in the list of authors; and, on the other hand, although "All is Fair in Love and War" is among the titles, the other five acting proverbs in the same collection are not. It is difficult to decide what principle has been followed in this matter of analysis. The plays mentioned under the titles "Ludus Coventriæ" and "Chester Plays" are not found under the titles, nor the plays in Kühne-Harkort's 'Kinder- und Puppentheater,' although a general reference is made from the authors here included to the collection (catalogued, by the way, not under Kinder- und Puppentheater, according to the reference, but under Kühne-Harkort). Mary Healy's plays are not entered under the titles, nor Henry and Aug. Mayhew's. Mayhew's is a volume of acting charades, and perhaps it was not intended to catalogue charades under the titles; but, if so, we should think that in a series of classified catalogues such as the Cincinnati Library is publishing it would have been desirable to put together, in different groups, charades, proverbs, children's plays, and other such matter which is now scattered about in the catalogue with no clew to it. In the list of titles, under "A Conjugal Lesson" one is not referred to Steele's 'Book of Drawing-room Plays,' in which it is also included; and the same is true of Mrs. Charles Kemble's "Personation," although the reference is made under "Fairly Taken In." This last is the alternative title of "Personation," which is one of the few plays that appear under both of their titles, another serious defect in the catalogue. Plays with double titles should be entered under both titles. Collections also are insufficiently treated. Although the plays in them specially catalogued are all easily found by the library attendants, because their shelf-numbers are marked against them, yet the presence in the library of most of these collections is known only by the list of abbreviations, or the references to them after the names of the plays by the initial letters of their titles. This is true of the Shakspere Society Publications, Ancient British Drama, Lacy's Acting Plays, Classici Italiani, and very many other collections. Again, there is as much reason for giving the contents of the 'Classische Theater-Bibliothek' under that title as of enumerating the contents of Bloch's 'Volks-Theater,' and the same applies to 'Theater-Correspondenz,' 'Theater-Specialität,' 'Deutsches Theater,' etc.; and instead of cataloguing these collections with made-up English titles, and as having no title-page, we should think it would have been advisable, in case books were not at hand to furnish the information, to send to Germany for the proper titles, dates of publication, publishers' names, etc. The 'Classische Theater-Bibliothek aller Nationen,' by the way, is a fine work, neatly printed, and a very desirable addition to libraries that aim at a collection of German literature.—Cincinnati, in June, established a branch library, its first, in Cumminsville, about five miles distant from the main library. The

catalogue, classified and very summary, appears to enumerate about four thousand works therein contained, for which the main library probably had a good nucleus in its duplicates. This branch, looked down upon by the heights of Clifton, of which, however, it is not a part, will undoubtedly secure donations from the residents of this beautiful suburb. Mr. Henry Probasco, who gave to the city the famous Tyler-Davidson fountain, is already the donor of a number of important serials. But, of course, as a branch it is not likely to divert to itself donations at the expense of the general library.

—It was not to be supposed that Mr. Matthew Arnold would neglect the opportunity presented him by the London visit of the French actors—the opportunity of emphasizing again the weakness as an absolute maxim of the catchword, "The state had better leave things alone." Long ago, in an essay on education, Mr. Arnold pointed out that this catchword differed essentially from such universal maxims as "Duty is the law of human life"; and remarked neatly that "Some things the state had better leave alone, others it had better not." The theatre, as a great educational force, influencing the social life and manners of a nation, is naturally to be classed with the latter, and in the current *Nineteenth Century* Mr. Arnold argues that the lesson of 'The French Play in London' is to be summed up thus: "The theatre is irresistible; organize the theatre." He reviews the history of the English drama, and says that when the system of privileged theatres was found to have grave faults, instead of remedying these "we gladly took refuge in our favorite doctrines of the mischief of state interference, of the blessedness of leaving every man free to do as he likes, of the impertinence of presuming to check any man's natural taste for the bathos, and to press him to relish the sublime." The English theatre was left to take its chances, and its present impotence is the result. The visit of the French company, he says, shows Englishmen not only what is gained by organizing the theatre, but what is meant by organizing it. The gain is in keeping before the public the classic drama, and "pieces of truth and beauty which emerge here and there among the questionable pieces of the modern drama," and giving these in perfection; even the questionable pieces lose something of their vice in the hands of such actors—"the acting carries us into the world of sound and pleasing art, if the piece does not." The method is indicated in an examination of the organization of the Français. One of the points emphasized is the need of a school of dramatic elocution. Mr. Arnold supposes the French actors advising their entertainers in this regard as follows: "'Your best and most serious actors' (this is said with a smile) 'would have been better if in their youth they had learnt elocution.'" And, as Mr. Arnold is fond of a two-edged rapier, he makes them conclude: "So you will restore the English theatre, and then a modern drama of your own will also, probably, spring up amongst you, and you will not have to come to us for pieces like *Pink Dominoes*."

—Indeed, the most profound Anglo-Saxon distrust of Mr. Arnold's bias of anti-patriotism and turn for the French cannot well complain of this essay; he compares French and English dramatic poetry in a way which can hardly fail to please the most patriotic of his countrymen. He begins by defining poetry as "simply the most delightful and perfect form of utterance that human words can reach," and after an exposition of this he concludes: "So that, on the one hand, from the absence of conspicuous genius in a people for poetry, we may assert the absence of an adequate poetical form," and the converse. In either way French poetry fares ill at Mr. Arnold's hands. Molière, "by far the chief name in French poetry, . . . is actually most satisfactory in his prose," because of Molière's lack of the highest sort of poetic power—of power which would have enabled him to find a more adequate form of verse than the rhyming Alexandrine, with "its incurable artificiality, its want of the fluidity, the naturalness, the rapid forward movement of true dramatic verse." This is all, we confess, unsatisfactory to us. Doubtless Mr. Arnold's conclusion is just—Molière is certainly inferior to Shakspere, and the French Alexandrine is certainly "incurably artificial." Nor is Mr. Arnold to be accused of arguing in a circle, to which at first glance he may seem open. The trouble is that he is arguing at all; one is reminded of his "I have a profound respect for intuitions, and a very lukewarm respect for the elaborate machine-work of my friends the logicians." His premise about poetry does not go far enough for a major premise, one feels; whereas the same proposition used in a fluid, passing, approximate way, would have been far more convincing. His illustrations and comparisons are admirable, but the argument in which they are used as examples proves too much. Between his definition of poetry and his argument from inadequate poetic form Mr. Arnold is driven to call Corneille and Racine as insufficient as Pope, and to deny that Victor Hugo is anything but a great romance-writer like Scott. Here again one is reminded of an earlier utterance of Mr. Arnold: "One poet may be a greater poetical force than another, and yet have a more unequal style." If we change the word "unequal" to "inadequate" we may apply this remark to his comparison of Corneille and Racine to Pope, or we may apply it just as it is to his association of Victor Hugo with Scott. Who doubts that Corneille is a greater poetical force than Pope, and Hugo than Scott?

—A somewhat singular case has just been tried in England, to which the London *Times* gives a column or two with becoming gravity. It illustrates, the *Times* says, "the uncertainty for persons not acquainted with art as to the authorship of paintings even by living artists and bearing the signature of the supposed painter." A certain zinc manufacturer bought of a picture-dealer at Bury St. Edmund's a picture which he supposed to be the work of Thomas Sidney Cooper, R.A., and for which he paid £25. It turned out spurious, and he sued for recovery. The witnesses were himself, the dealer, and Mr. Cooper. He testified that the dealer had warranted the genuineness of the painting, which the dealer denied, and made the counter charge that the plaintiff had purchased the canvas "on spec." The painter made a more entertaining witness. The picture was not his, he said, "nor any part of it"; the value of it was "about the value of the canvas"; "no respectable dealer would have such a thing in his possession," and he estimated its worth at "about 2*s.* 6*d.*" This was hard on the plaintiff, as the jury found for the defendant, and the former is now in very much the position of the "curious impertinent" who asked the expert opinion of a bank-teller as to the genuineness of a bill and had it returned to him with "counterfeit" stamped upon it in indelible red ink. It was also ungenerous on Mr. Cooper's part, since he got a fee of £5 5*s.* for testifying to its worthlessness, and it appeared afterwards that he had given similar opinions as to 142 of 153 works ascribed and submitted to him; from which it is fair to presume that he derives a respectable revenue too easily to risk it by allowing his vanity to get the better of his prudence. We should say that after reading Mr. Cooper's heated testimony, during which he exclaimed of the painting: "Sir, it is a dreadful thing. It is an insult to me to ascribe it to me," persons with suspected Coopers on their hands would be excessively shy of consulting him. There is another moral, involving the unwisdom of proceedings under any section of "the baby act," which zinc manufacturers about to set up as virtuosi would do well to consider. That which the *Times* draws is also obvious, it must be admitted.

—It will be remembered that about two years ago it was announced that the remains of Columbus had been discovered in the cathedral church of Santo Domingo, where it is certain that they were interred in 1540, and from which place it has been believed that they were transferred to Havana in 1795, upon the occasion of the cession of Santo Domingo to the French. The evidence in the case was referred by the Spanish Government to the Royal Academy of History of Madrid, which has just made its report, adverse to the alleged discovery; and the grounds of the decision are clearly set forth in a monograph by the distinguished publicist, Sir Travers Twiss. The transference of the remains in 1795 was made with the utmost caution and with great formality and solemnity, so that it would require overwhelming proof to conclude that a blunder had been made, and the wrong body carried. Now, the sarcophagus discovered in 1877 was, it is true, inscribed with the name "Cristoval Colon," but he is called "Baron," which title the great admiral did not bear, while his grandson of the same name, who, it is known, was also buried in this church, was, through his mother, of noble lineage. There are several other inscriptions on and within the sarcophagus, mostly abbreviated; and one of these (*D. de la A. Per Ate*) has been interpreted as "*Descubridor de la America, Primer Almirante.*" It is easy to show that the grandson of Columbus, in the inscription upon his body, would never have spoken of the New World as *America*—a name which was never used in Spain until 1672, and which the family of Columbus would have been the last to adopt. The letters of the inscriptions, moreover, do not belong to the period at which the body was deposited there. On the whole the reader cannot but agree with Sir Travers Twiss "that the evidence at present forthcoming is insufficient to displace the established belief." He apparently does not think it a part of his duty to do more than establish this negative conclusion; for, although he hints at fraud, he does not make any direct charge. He does, however, show a motive on the part of the Bishop of Orope, the voucher of the discovery: "the report [of the Academy] suggests that the judgment of the Bishop of Orope may

have been unduly biassed by his desire to procure the beatification of the great admiral, respecting which a postulant has already submitted his petition to the Holy See, and by his hope that the shrine of Columbus in Santo Domingo would become a place of pilgrimage for mariners, as famous in its way as the shrine of St. James the Elder at Compostella, in old Spain." It is hard, on any other theory, to account for the inscription: "*Una parte de los restos del Primer Almirante D. Cristoval Colon Descubridor.*"

—Signor Giuseppe Colucci has just published at Genoa in three volumes the reports of the ambassadors of the Genoese republic at London relating to the American Revolution ('I casi della Guerra per l'independenza d'America narrati dall' ambasciatori della republica di Genova presso la corte d'Inghilterra nella sua corrispondenza ufficiale inedita, per G. Colucci. Vol. i. 2 parte, vol. ii. Genova, 1879. New York: B. Westermann & Co.) The first part (*prefazione*) is a concise history of America from the editor's pen, in 489 pages. The second part begins with the official correspondence of Francesco Ageno, the then Genoese ambassador at London, containing his reports to the *serenissimi signori* of the Council of the Ligurian Republic, from May 4, 1770, to Dec. 26, 1777 (557 pages). Volume ii. brings these down to Dec. 12, 1780, in 810 pages. Colucci says (vol. i. 1, p. 484) that these letters, preserved in the state archives at Genoa, are perhaps the only official documents which Italy possesses relating to the American Revolution, and that they will prove useful not only for the annals of the United States, but also for the history of Italian diplomacy; and he adds, concerning Ageno, that he "at no time deceived himself (*non s'illuse mai*) about the causes or the chances of the war," and points to Ageno's remarkable letter of August 25, 1775, in which he says, concerning the Philadelphia Congress and its enactments, that "they are no evidence of (*non dimostrano*) an accidental or transitory rebellion, easy to suppress; rather, of an undertaking conceived long before (*immaginato da molto tempo*), pursued with vigor, and till now sustained with intrepidity." A man whose judgment at this early stage of American independence is so fully confirmed by subsequent events has certainly written more things worth knowing, and we regret that we must dismiss him with this short notice.

ALBERT GALLATIN.*

II.

BORN at Geneva on the 29th of January, 1761, Albert Gallatin was descended from an old and essentially aristocratic Swiss family. There was no better stock in Europe. Patriotic, intelligent, simple in tastes and strict in morals, uncontaminated by great wealth, and living in that society of which both Gibbon and Voltaire have left us such attractive pictures, the Gallatins had for generations filled all positions of civic honor and duty, or had gone forth to seek their fortunes in every military service in Europe. One of them, for instance, as Mr. Adams tells us, commanded a battalion under Rochambeau at the siege of Yorktown. Left an orphan at an early age, young Albert Gallatin was taken charge of by an intimate friend of his mother, by whom he was educated and ultimately, at the age of fourteen, sent to the Academy of Geneva, from which he graduated with high honors in 1779.

His academical course was, however, the turning-point in Gallatin's life. Naturally himself a sober-minded and very practical man, with little of the visionary about him, he there became intimate with two young fellows, Serre and Badollet by name, who were thoroughly impregnated with the teachings of the French philosophy. The war of American independence was then absorbing the attention of Europe, and these young gentlemen conceived the idea that the unsophisticated wilderness was the field in which human nature, freed from social trammels, would achieve the best results. So two of them ran away to America; and the third, Badollet, presently followed. It was a foolish escapade, and Gallatin alone struggled through, redeeming his fortune by a late though total abandonment of his youthful ideals; poor Serre died in 1784 of the West India fever in Jamaica, and Badollet remained buried in the wilderness.

Arriving in America in 1780, almost wholly without means, Gallatin and Serre at first drifted about Boston, of which place, as it appeared to young Swiss eyes, the former in one of his letters gives us an amusing glimpse:

"Les habitans n'ont ni délicatesse ni honneur ni instruction, et il n'y a rien de trop à l'égard de leur probité. . . . On s'ennuye fort à Boston. Il n'y a aucun amusement public et beaucoup de superstition, en sorte que l'on ne peut pas le dimanche chanter, jouer du violon, aux cartes, aux boules, etc."

From Boston they found their way into the veritable wilderness of Maine, where they passed, not unenjoyably, both a winter and a summer. Exhaustion of means brought them back to civilization, and Gallatin then earned for a time a slender living as an instructor of French in Harvard College. Serre now parted from him to go to his death in the West Indies, and Gallatin himself presently went to New York, and thence to Philadelphia and Richmond. Having now inherited a portion of his patrimony, and still clinging to his ideal of the wilderness, he purchased, after personal examination, a vast tract of land among the mountains of Western Pennsylvania, and there proceeded to bury himself and poor Badollet, whom he had summoned to his side. This was in 1786, when he was twenty-five years of age. The rest of Gallatin's life was passed in getting out of the youthful scrape in which he had thus involved himself.

The wilderness ideal was, however, as Mr. Adams well points out, the key to Mr. Gallatin's subsequent political life; it was the echo of that French philosophy which was the bond of sympathy between himself and Jefferson, and caused them both to labor for the establishment on this continent of a new political system, "broad as society itself, . . . providing for and guiding the moral and material development of a new era—a fresh race of men." The Whiskey Insurrection, which for the moment threatened to destroy Gallatin's political prospects, brought him into political prominence, and his inherent ability afterwards kept him there. His knowledge, his education, his integrity, his clearness of head and singleness of purpose, were needed; and the part they enabled him to play in our politics from 1801 to 1815 was second in importance to none.

It does not need to be said that it is as Secretary of the Treasury during the administrations of Jefferson and Madison, and as such the not unequal successor of Hamilton, that Gallatin will be known in American history. As a minister of finance he cannot be ranked lower than the first class. He was great enough to be perfectly simple. Any one could understand his system, and he himself, by a species of intuitive wisdom, at once saw through all those economical juggles by which smaller men deceive the public as well as themselves. He would have nothing to do with them. He administered the Treasury of the United States as it never has been administered before or since,—as part of a great scheme for the general amelioration of his countrymen, and through them of mankind. By systematic frugality and spending less than the revenue, he proposed to pay off the public debt, and then the surplus was to be remitted in taxation or applied to great projects of national improvement. This was all. The curious part of it is that he both failed and was wrong; he wholly overestimated what was humanly practical under our political conditions. Yet neither at the time nor since has any one ever doubted that he was a great man; in its very massive simplicity his handiwork bears the stamp of greatness. He was, however, much before his time; indeed, it has not yet come—if it ever does come.

In reality it is the story of his failure that Mr. Adams tells, and he tells it with great spirit and ability, interspersed at times with a controlled eloquence which is made doubly attractive by its admirable taste. In this portion of his book, and that relating to the Treaty of Ghent, either from a fortunate lack of original material or because it became too dull even for his digestion, Mr. Adams emerges from under the mass of it and takes up the narrative himself. There are 250 pages (pp. 300–550) of this matter, and in everything which goes to make up first-class historical work it would not be easy to find anything superior to it in the many recent volumes devoted to American, or, for that matter, to other history. It causes a positive sense of aggravation that a narrative so vigorous and interesting should be securely buried under such a load of clumsy and unattractive detail before and after.

Covering as it does the bitter period of national humiliation which preceded the War of 1812, the story is exceedingly amusing as Mr. Adams tells it, but one still unpleasant for an American to read. The redeeming power of faith in mankind, and the influence, as far-reaching and continued as it is subtle, of personal magnetism, never in fact received a greater illustration than in the hold that Jefferson has retained on the admiration of the American people. Naturally his administration should be associated with memories of a character which no people likes to recall. With the world full of combatants, all of whom, as Lord Sidmouth expressed it, looked upon the United States as "a country in which there is little authority in the rulers, and as little public spirit and virtue in the people," the President of that country expressed his foreign policy, and invited England's kick and France's cuff by writing, "I do

* 'The Life of Albert Gallatin. By Henry Adams.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.

not believe we shall have as much to swallow from them as our predecessors had." The expression was a most happy one. For eight long years the chief business of America as regards foreign nations was leek-eating; and while, Fluellen-like, it meekly ate its leeks, now at the hand of England and now at that of France, the Government helplessly drifted into a war for which no preparation was made. Jefferson, Madison, and Gallatin were all, in fact, guilty of the unpardonable sin of not realizing that with nations no less than with individuals self-respect is worth something. They did not have the excuse of the New England Federalists, who—the "Copperheads" of 1812—looked upon England as society's one barrier against French propagandism, and, in the frenzy of partisan strife, lost every spark of national spirit. Yet these last never were forgiven by the country, and will be gibbeted in history, while the former, who mildly bore the insults until they became wholly unbearable, and then landed the country, all naked and bankrupt, in a war from the natural results of which it was saved only by the rising spirit of the young West, in which the Administration had not the slightest confidence, and the gallantry of that navy which it had done its best to destroy—these men, because of their other qualities, the country, forgetting its years of humiliation, holds in highest honor. It is well, also, that it should be so, and the popular instinct is right. The mere fact that the ideals could not be carried out did not detract from their nobleness or human sympathy; for the rest, as administrators who blundered into a war with an antagonist immeasurably their superior in strength, Jefferson and his successor had the great political merit of luck. The country acquitted itself well, and they got and will retain the credit for it.

We have no space to refer to the internal history which Mr. Adams now for the first time gives of the negotiations which preceded the treaty of Ghent. Neither are they longer of any great historical importance. This part of his work, however, is perhaps the best done of all, and in it very interesting and life-like glimpses are given of J. Q. Adams and Henry Clay, as well as of Gallatin. As regards J. Q. Adams's diplomacy, his grandson, for fear of seeming prejudiced in his favor, shows some disposition towards leaning over backward. Unless we are very much mistaken, when it came to dealing with Englishmen there was a sort of fiery, self-willed downrightedness about J. Q. Adams, as about his father and his son, with which neither Gallatin nor his biographer seem to sympathize, but which accomplishes better results than any amount of finessing. More than once in this volume Mr. Adams dilates with keen appreciation on what he calls the "brutal directness" of George Canning's method of dealing with Jefferson's diplomacy, and the way it cowed him. It may well be questioned whether, in somewhat the same way, the stubborn, high-tempered New-Englander had not a keener insight than the more suave and wiley Genevan into the best way of meeting their English opponents. According to Mr. Adams's own account of the negotiations, the famous "This, my lord, means war!" of 1863 was also the key of the situation in 1814. Nevertheless it is quite true that to Mr. Gallatin belonged the chief credit of that most successful negotiation.

The Treaty of Ghent was signed on Christmas day, 1814, and accordingly Gallatin was then closing his fifty-third year. Fifteen years more of diplomatic life, during which he filled with unsurpassed ability the French and English missions, then awaited him, to be succeeded by yet nineteen years of retirement and old age. He died in 1848 in New York, where the Gallatin Bank still preserves his name as one of the most honored in the long roll of great commercial names of which that city may fairly boast. He belongs to a period the history of which is yet to be written. Whether generally read or not, this volume ensures to him ultimately the large space which properly belongs to him in that history.

CORRESPONDENCE OF HECTOR BERLIOZ.*

OF the great musicians who have recorded their thoughts in words as well as in tones it may be asserted that Schumann is the most sympathetic and impartial, Wagner the most profound and revolutionary, and Berlioz the most brilliant and interesting. Berlioz, indeed, disputes with Schumann the honor of being the father of musical literature proper; and if his musical compositions are remarkable for their brilliant and original instrumentation or sensuous coloring, no less is this true of his writings, which, in imagination, wit, sarcasm, and champagne-like sparkle, often remind one of Heine and the best French writers. The vivacity and spontaneity of his literary work is all the more remarkable because much of it was done under pressure, and gave him infinite annoyance. The poverty which lasted almost to the end of his life compelled him during twenty years to write criticisms for the *Journal des Débats* at one hundred francs apiece, and he has given numerous indications of the tortures to which he was put by his duty of analyzing and describing ephemeral operas and operettas which he would have preferred to see in the infernal regions, and which the dignified position of his paper did not even allow him to speak of in the terms which, in his private opinion, they deserved. In his letters he often speaks of his "stupide tâche de critique, la seule qui me soit laissée à remplir dans notre cher pays," and expressions like "damné feuilleton," "abominable feuilleton," abound in them. But if he was obliged to make some concessions to popular taste in his criticism—a thing which he never did in his compositions, where he was as stubborn and self-willed as Beethoven and Wagner—he never went beyond a certain limit, to avoid passing which he cultivated a most subtle kind of irony and sarcasm, in which he is one of the greatest masters on record, so that his essays may be recommended as models for all who wish to perfect themselves in this effective style of composition.

As Berlioz was from the beginning an ardent advocate of liberal opinions in art, a ferocious enemy of routine and the tyranny of tradition, it was inevitable that his criticism and his sarcasm, published in a leading organ, should give offence to the conservatives, who, in musical institutions, in France as well as elsewhere, usually represent the powers that be, and who invariably require thirty years longer than the rest of the world to adapt their unplastic brains to the altered environment due to the advent of a new genius. To the sting of his "damné feuilleton," accordingly, must be chiefly ascribed the fact that, while in Germany, Russia, and even England, Berlioz repeatedly reaped abundant laurels when personally conducting his compositions, in France almost every attempt to assert his claims proved a complete fiasco; so that after several trials he got tired of throwing away the money he had earned abroad in an ineffectual endeavor to educate the unwilling ears of his countrymen. And yet such was his patriotism, and almost canine attachment to cruel Paris, that he would gladly have sacrificed his foreign triumphs for others nearer home. This sentiment finds repeated expression in his letters. Thus, in 1846, when he was invited to Vienna to take the vacant place of Weigl, director of the Imperial Chapel, he refused blankly, because it would have cut off all his chances of making an occasional sojourn in Paris. "In regard to this subject," he writes to a friend, "I have made a curious discovery, which is that I have Paris so much at heart (Paris—that is to say, you my friends, the people of culture who live there, the whirlpool of ideas into which one plunges) that at the mere thought of being excluded therefrom my heart has failed me, and I have realized the pangs of exile."

His love of Paris, however, did not prevent Berlioz from using his lash on it on all possible occasions, sometimes with a violence almost sufficient to justify the charge of what Spencer calls the bias of anti-patriotism. "In England," says Berlioz, "at least the *desire to love music* is real and persistent," but from the Parisians it is impossible to obtain the attention requisite for a solemn and sad composition. "Les jugements de la presse et du public sont d'une sottise et d'une frivolité dont rien ne peut offrir d'exemple chez les autres nations. Chez nous, le beau, ce n'est pas le laid, c'est le plat; on n'aime pas plus le mauvais que le bon, on préfère le médiocre." The last four words perhaps throw some light on Matthew Arnold's aphorism: "France, famed in all great arts, in none supreme." One of his letters to Morel Berlioz winds up with the bitter phrase, "Le choléra existe, on le sait, pourquoi la musique Parisienne n'existerait-elle pas?" Another bit of pessimistic realism, almost worthy of Zola, is the following, dated London, March, 1848: "Les arts en France sont morts maintenant, et la musique, en particulier, commence déjà à se putréfier; qu'on l'enterre vite! Je sens d'ici les miasmes qu'elle exhale. . . ."

Had Berlioz known that even after his death ten years would elapse before his countrymen would become convinced of the injustice done him, he might have belabored them still more heavily for not even giving him a fair chance to introduce to them his compositions—those compositions of which he wrote so touchingly to Schumann: "Et puis, vous le dirais-je, je les aime, ces pauvres enfants, d'un amour paternel qui n'a rien de spartiate, et je préfère mille fois les savoir obscurs, mais intacts, à les envoyer au loin chercher la gloire ou d'affreuses blessures et la mort." But the Parisians have at last opened their eyes and fulfilled the prophecy of Berlioz, that they would ultimately go to the mountain which had refused to go to them. The Berlioz revival of the last season was one of the most extraordinary phenomena of the sort ever witnessed. Had Berlioz risen from his grave or fallen from the sky in a meteoric

* 'Correspondance inédite de Hector Berlioz. Avec une notice biographique. Par D. Bernard.' Paris: Calmann Lévy. 1879.

rock (*à la* Thomson and Helmholtz) to conduct a series of his concerts, the excitement could hardly have been greater. Several of his colossal works have been repeated over and over again, and, now that the people have once had experience of their grandeur, in the strictest sense of the word, they will not again let them pass out of sight, any more than the Swiss would be willing to part with their Alps. Indeed, the works of Berlioz present in structure, spirit, and dimensions the appearance of a mountain-chain amidst the forests and meadows cultivated by the other musicians of his country. "Had he been an architect," says Liszt, whose admiration knows no bounds, "he would have built pyramids, gardens of Semiramis, Roman amphitheatres"; and Heine, who was no trained musician, but whose artistic sense commonly served him as guide, compares the impression produced by his music to the extinct monsters of early geological epochs. Such music, appealing as it does pre-eminently to the taste for the grand and awe-inspiring, is hardly adapted to the ears of Frenchmen, who naturally prefer the graceful, pleasing, and piquant, and to whom even the more allied Händel, Mozart, and Mendelssohn long remained distasteful, while Beethoven's works were at first universally pronounced to be "bizarre, confused, disconnected, bristling with harsh modulations and crude harmonies, totally lacking melody, extravagant in expression, too noisy, and terribly difficult to execute"—as we are told by Berlioz, one of whose greatest deserts lay in the strenuous efforts he made through his whole life to acclimatize the music of Beethoven in France.

If we take these things in connection with the enmity aroused by his criticisms, and the undeniable difficulty of almost all his works, it is surprising, in truth, that the Parisians have taken Berlioz to heart so soon instead of letting him slumber for another century or so, as was the case with Bach in Germany. To those not admitted behind the scenes the recent Berlioz revival is a pure mystery; but the explanation is simple enough, and withal quite interesting. It is well known that although (perhaps because) there are not a few points of resemblance between Berlioz and Wagner, they have mutually expressed rather unfavorable judgments of each other. Jealousy evidently had much to do with the matter, for both had the ambition to be the inheritors of Beethoven's genius, Berlioz endeavoring in his choral symphonies to "take up music where Beethoven had left it," while Wagner interpreted the Ninth Symphony as hinting at a necessary connection between words and music, thus leading to the music-drama as the highest form of art. That in the case of Berlioz, at any rate, jealousy was the chief motive of his animosity is rendered clear as day by pp. 270–283 of the correspondence now before us, which present a vivid picture of the rage, envy, and despair that filled his breast when he found that "Tannhäuser" had been accepted for performance at the Opéra, which had so long persisted in refusing to accept his own "Troyens," his favorite work, on which he had placed so many hopes. He does not in the least conceal his delight at the unprecedented uproar to which the performances of "Tannhäuser" gave rise, and which not even the Emperor could subdue. Berlioz endeavored to show his contempt by delegating his critical duties on this occasion to a friend. His sentiments, however, are revealed in his letters of that date, as a few sentences from them will show: "Wagner fait tourner en chèvres les chanteuses, les chanteurs, et l'orchestre et le chœur de l'opéra. . . . Liszt va arriver pour soutenir l'école du charivari. . . . Wagner est évidemment fou. Il mourira comme Jullien est mort l'an dernier, d'un transport au cerveau. . . . En sortant, sur l'escalier, on traitait tout haut ce malheureux Wagner de gredin, d'insolent, d'idiot. . . . La presse est unanime pour l'exterminer. Pour moi, *je suis cruellement vengé*."

But Berlioz was greatly mistaken in regard to this "cruel revenge." Had he known what was to happen in this strange world of ours he would have used all the influence of the *Débats* to keep "Tannhäuser" on the boards, for it is to the author of that work that Berlioz owed his favorable reception in Paris last winter. We are not joking; far from it. We are aware that next to Bismarck no man is more cordially hated in Paris than Wagner. We are also aware that until a few months ago every attempt to introduce one of his works there resulted in a popular disturbance. And yet our paradoxical assertion is true beyond a shadow of doubt. The chief portals of Paris have indeed remained closed to Wagner, yet he long ago got in by more than one backdoor. With the partial exception of Massenet, all the young French composers have been strongly influenced by his scores, and have shown this influence partly in the way of open plagiarism and partly in a legitimate assimilative fashion. The public has become aware of this fact, and has frequently urged that it was about time to know Wagner at first hand. Hence the favorable reception of "Lohengrin" at Pasdeloup's, and hence also the Berlioz *furore*, which without Wagner would have been impossible so early as the year 1878. *Voilà tout!* Strange as are the ways in which the irony of fate often manifests itself, it surely must have learned a lesson from Berlioz before it was able to execute such a master-stroke.

The agreeable fact at any rate remains that justice has at last been done the great French symphonist, and people have discovered that the favorable verdict so many years ago passed by Schumann, Liszt, Bülow, and other equally competent judges, this time, for a wonder, turned out to be correct in spite of the opposition of the professional critics and the comic papers. And one of the most noteworthy results of this change in the direction of the wind has been the publication of the lively correspondence from which we have been quoting in this notice. It consists of one hundred and fifty-six letters to friends of the author, including such names as Liszt, Bülow, Wagner, Schumann, Ferdinand Hiller, etc. For Berlioz had no lack of distinguished acquaintances. According to Stephen Heller, he counted among his earliest admirers Victor Hugo, Lamartine, Dumas, De Vigny, Balzac, Delacroix, Ary Scheffer; and all the young and unappreciated geniuses gathered around him as their leader. To the 'Correspondance' the editor, M. Bernard, has prefixed an introduction of sixteen pages, which gives all the biographical data needed for an intelligent perusal of the letters. They range from the author's sixteenth year to shortly before his death (1819–1868), and thus constitute almost a complete biography in themselves, or, at any rate, a valuable supplement to his 'Memoirs.' Berlioz belonged to that class of writers who do not reserve all their happy thoughts for articles intended for the press, but endeavor to make their private correspondence equally interesting; and though he mostly writes about his own experiences, his own tastes and feelings, we may say that he could not easily have found a more fascinating subject to write about. Selfishness in men of genius is one of the cardinal virtues, and fortunately they usually have a good share of it notwithstanding the popular superstition to the contrary.

FRANCE UNDER FOUR EYES.*

BOTH the ladies whose books are cited below made the Exposition of 1878 the occasion of their going to France, and their stay was nearly of the same length, from three to four months. Except in these particulars, and that they might have met in Paris, a great difference exists between the regions visited by the two authors, the circles in which they moved, their respective points of view, and their literary performances. To Miss Betham-Edwards France was an old story, and a tour through Brittany had resulted in a work on 'Western France,' to which, in the present sketches, frequent allusion is made by way of contrast. Her holidays began in July, in the department of Seine-et-Marne, whence she passed abruptly to the Doubs, Jura, and Ain, and there her excursion terminated, apparently in September. Quite otherwise with Mrs. Gibbons, who landed at Dieppe on the 27th of April, and sailed homewards from Antwerp in mid-August, her chief fields of observation having been Paris, the Puy-de-Dôme (as we guess), not far from Clermont-Ferrand (Charbonnière ?), and, as we are told without disguise, the Nord, besides Antwerp and its vicinity, for which but nine days were available. Miss Edwards's tour was a sort of picnicking, in which she was "welcomed at every stage, and pioneered from place to place by educated ladies and gentlemen delighted to do the honors of their native place." Mrs. Gibbons everywhere paid her own way, and her principal aim, "to describe the citizen of Paris and the farmer of France," was fulfilled with very little association with the cultivated classes. Miss Edwards is an Englishwoman anxious to repair the deficiencies of Murray, and who, at the princely château of the Rothschilds at Ferrières, suggests "to the generous owner of this noble treasure-home of art that the briefest possible catalogue of his choicest treasures would unspeakably oblige his visitors." Her American sister from Philadelphia sometimes forgets that that city is not all of the United States, as when, being informed in the Nord that the school-children pay for their books: "I tell him that our scholars do not." Miss Edwards frequently contrasts unfavorably the towns of England with those of the same size in Eastern France in respect of their dependence upon the capital for theatres, museums, libraries, and other means of culture and enjoyment. Mrs. Gibbons's comparisons are seldom disparaging to her native country, and generally reveal the Yankee gift of discerning "improvements." Thus, she notices "the want of

* 'French and Belgians. By Phebe Earle Gibbons, author of '"Pennsylvania Dutch" and other Essays.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.
'Holidays in Eastern France. By M. Betham-Edwards, author of 'Kitty,' etc.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1879. Half-Hour Series.

a little bell" in the communal school, and says of some bunks in a horse-stable: "In the two sleep four men. It seems to me these beds are too short"; or again, of the soldiers' enforced idleness in the barracks: "Could not the people collect journals for them, as is done among us for those in hospitals?" With a lecturer who "speaks of America, of our country, and of emulating our example, and thinks they may yet excel us," she shakes hands in the antechamber and tells him frankly, "that I do not think they will excel us," for causes assigned; but "the slender, gentlemanly Frenchman answers not."

Miss Edwards, with her somewhat too frequent "airily and coquettishly perched" town or fortress, is before all a picturesque tourist. Mrs. Gibbons, on the other hand, perhaps never once deliberately records a prospect in the painter's sense. Here is her nearest approach to it:

"Close by [the cemetery] there is a wind-mill. There is, too, a view. I had spoken of it before; I want to see it now. 'Don't you have views in your country?' rather coolly asks Mrs. Salmier. Nevertheless, I get upon the bank where the wind-mill stands, and look around to count the villages. The bright western sun prevents my seeing very well; but there is a view of the whole country round. We can count six villages. . . . If we could get to the top of the wind-mill, and had a telescope, could we not see forty villages?"

Both ladies are good Protestants, and equally alive to the demoralizing effects of Catholicism. Miss Edwards, we may infer from a passage like the following, would not stop long to argue the question. At the Bernardine convent in Jouarre—

"I had a little talk with the Sister in charge of the porter's lodge, and she took me into the church, pointing to the high iron rails barring off the cloistered nuns, with that imbecile self-satisfaction as much inseparable from her calling as her unwholesome dress."

Mrs. Gibbons has many amicable religious controversies with her Catholic acquaintances, and if she feels that she has got the better of them on the point of omitting image-worship from their version of the Commandments, she is not offended when she draws from them their opinion that Protestants are more impious than Jews. So she can be complimentary to Sisters whose manners in showing her their school are not up to the American standard of politeness:

"There is no effort to show me anything at all. I see no maps nor blackboards; but perhaps I do not stay long enough. When one is not invited to sit down, and when a person stands waiting upon you, it is not very easy to see and do much, especially if that person limits her own conversation. . . . As we are going I notice the pretty flowers in the yard, and the Sister says that they tend them themselves; it is recreation for them. I had before told her of having been at Paris, when she quietly took off her blue apron. What a nice-looking young woman she is!"

Mrs. Gibbons's adventures in seeking admission to the public schools, in Paris and in the provinces, are among the most amusing portions of her narrative, as may be imagined. But her persistence was in general more than a match for traditions, prejudice, and red-tape. In dealing with social topics, whether domestic arrangements or sexual relations, there is in the American book a striking absence of prudery. Such plainness of speech is not often met with in an authoress, and may for that reason appear a little shocking to those in whom there is an excess of prudery. Moreover, if Mrs. Gibbons can record of the Belgian clergy that "a regulation has been passed forbidding their having women-servants under thirty or thirty-five years of age," the more proper Miss Edwards can say of the soldiery: "Householders in Lons-le-Saunier will tell you that, no matter whether their female servants be young, middle-aged, or old, they have to bar and bolt their doors at night as if against marauding Arabs in remote settlements of Algeria," and the rest. Neither writer alludes to the laws of inheritance as a social factor.

Our holiday tourist makes no complaint of a want of familiarity with the language. But Mrs. Gibbons no sooner sets foot on the soil than she is reminded that "you may have studied French for years, and scarcely understand a word of the babel which strikes the ear on landing"; and she constantly prefaces the information she receives in conversation with "I understand"—the understanding being subject to candid correction a few pages later on, when her knowledge of the idioms has improved. This gives an air of *naïveté* to her diary, but it also argues an honest motive and so far inspires confidence, while the minuteness and particularity of her enquiries recommend her daily jottings beyond Miss Betham-Edwards's generalizations. Some surprises Mrs. Gibbons does not fairly get over, as that the countrywomen in France wear caps and not bonnets, that as a rule only one pig is kept on a farm ("I begin to ask whether I shall ever see more than one," she remarks in Belgium), and that the geography of the globe is so little known to the *grande nation*. We may as well conclude our notice of a really instructive book, not devoid of a certain Quaker humor, by quoting from pp. 320, 321 the following passages, the first of which relates to a certain primary history in use in a communal school in Central France:

"Here are another question and answer, which I commend to observation: 'What did God create on the fifth day? The birds and the fishes.' Then this remark follows in fine print: 'It does not seem natural to us that God should have made the birds come out of the water, but who can explain the thoughts of the Almighty? Let us believe and adore.' About ninety pages of this little volume are given to sacred history, two hundred and forty-six to France, and fifty-five, in fine print, to other nations. The Egyptians, Scythians, etc., are mentioned, but our own continent is not described.

"I also see a little geography [approved in 1836], which Henri tells me is now in use, by the same F. P. B. It gives seventy-three pages to France, about two to Great Britain, over nine to Italy, and one to the United States. There is, also, a little description of the characters of different nations. After mentioning the people of the Soudan, the author tells us that the aborigines of the northern countries of America have preserved almost all the usages which they had before the invasion of Europeans; the Iroquois, the Hurons, the Illinois, the Canadians, etc., are intrepid, agile, and great hunters; they worship God under the name of the 'Great Spirit.' Then he speaks of the Esquimaux. The next mentioned are the Mexicans, who are said to be tawny, handy, laborious, mild, loving the sciences, and, above all, the arts. Then we come to the Orinocos, and the Chilians are mentioned; but what I have just given is all that there is about the people of the United States."

Short Notes on the Greek Text of the Acts of the Apostles. By J. Hamblin Smith, M.A., of Gonville and Caius College. (London: Rivingtons. 1879.)—The writer of this little commentary has made many references to Thucydides, and "thinks it certain that the author of the Acts was very familiar with the Sixth Book," in which the Sicilian Expedition is described. He conjectures that "in anticipation of, or in consequence of, his visit to Syracuse St. Luke studied with great care that portion of the history"; and adds that "this supposition alone will account for the large number of words and phrases common to the Acts of the Apostles and the Sixth Book of Thucydides." This certainly is an interesting and alluring speculation; but, after a more careful examination than the work deserves, we conclude that another supposition will fit the facts equally well, namely, that Mr. Smith has himself been lately reading portions of Thucydides with great care, and has indulged in a superfluous exercise of the historical imagination. Out of a score or two of coincidences which he adduces, we find that he has only collected meanings of words which are common also to Herodotus, Xenophon, and Diodorus, and constructions which are the universal usage of the language. Of genuine parallelisms in style or idiom he offers us hardly a trace. When two Greek writers of different antiquities use ἀΐρειν in the sense of *to weigh anchor*, or χωρίον in the sense of *a farm*, or ἀδικῶ in the signification of the perfect tense, or the familiar construction of the relative attracted to the case of its antecedent, there is no *imitation* involved in the coincidence; they are simply using the common furniture of the language. Yet these are the kind of coincidences which Mr. Smith notes. In the eighteenth chapter of the Acts we read: "And Paul after this *tarried* yet *a good while*, and then *took leave* of his brethren"; and again, in Ephesus: "He *bade* them *farewell*." Now, it is quite possible that the colorless expressions we have italicized may occur more than once in Tyndale, or in Latimer's sermons; it is quite unnecessary to assume that the translators of King James's version borrowed them from Latimer or Tyndale. Such idioms are not characteristic, they are common property. In fact, therefore, Mr. J. Hamblin Smith has only been unconsciously proving over again what every scholar admits already. It is conceded that the author of the Acts and of the Gospel of St. Luke uses a diction and a style more classical than the authors of the other Gospels. Whether his favorite reading was Xenophon, or Diodorus, or Thucydides, it would be idle to conjecture or to attempt to prove. He does, in fact, use one construction, the genitive of design or purpose with the infinitive, which is rather a favorite with the latter author; but he uses it much more frequently and with a latitude which shows the decadence of the language. Beyond this there are no traces of a style so marked and individual as that of Thucydides—a style whose influence is so readily detected in the later historians and rhetoricians.

The book contains some brief and useful historical and grammatical notes. It is remarkable, however, for ignoring every other commentary, and for a whimsical mixture of explanations which could only be necessary to the merest beginner, and of references to the classics which presume advanced and extensive reading.

A History of the War Department of the United States, with Biographical Sketches of the Secretaries. By L. D. Ingersoll. (Washington:

Francis B. Mohun. 1879.)—The origin of this book is found in the destruction, during the present summer, of the building used for nearly sixty years by the War Department, in view of its removal into the new building for the State, War, and Navy Departments, and the desire of the present Secretary of War that a permanent record might be made of some of the associations which cling to the old structure. It is much to be regretted that this most interesting task was not committed to some one who had longer association with the War Department and experience in military affairs, or at least whose general ideas of American history would have prevented him from asserting such flagrant nonsense as that "Hamilton was the most unscrupulous political intriguer our country has ever had." The author has been for somewhat more than a year the librarian of the War Department, and has previously written 'Iowa and the Rebellion,' 'The Life and Times of Horace Greeley,' and other works belonging to the ephemeral literature which passed for history during and just after the Civil War. The present book has many of the faults of that class, but it is nevertheless the first permanent continuous record of the origin and development of one of the most important executive departments of the general Government—a department which has been administered during portions of its existence by Knox, Monroe, Calhoun, Marcy, Davis, and Stanton, as well as by Scott, Grant, and Sherman for short *ad interim* periods. In such a department and its operations during our three great wars of this century, its influence in opening up the great West by its pioneer explorations and by subduing and civilizing the wild Indian, there certainly lies abundant material of the greatest interest, and most intimately connected with the salient features of our general history. Moreover, whatever tends to familiarize the public with the growth and present status of the bureaus of our military establishment, and the service of the small regular army which we tolerate rather than foster, is of no less service to the public and the legislators who spring from it and frame our military policy than to the Army itself. In this way this book serves a very useful purpose. It shows plainly the lack of system prevailing in military administration during the Revolution and till after the war of 1812, and its attendant disastrous results; it does proper justice to Mr. Calhoun, who, whatever his political errors, was the first great administrator in the War Department, who placed the Department on a proper basis, which has needed no change except in details to this day, and whose arguments as to the military policy suited to our necessities are as applicable and as conclusive to-day as when enunciated sixty years ago, although, unfortunately, they are unknown to the greater number of the ever-changing members of the military committees of Congress.

In its biographical sketches the book has hardly any value beyond a mere record of dates and names; for a judgment which speaks tenderly of Belknap, uses the language we have quoted in regard to Alexander Hamilton, and calls W. H. Crawford, of Georgia, the greatest Southerner after Washington, Marshall, and Calhoun—ignoring Jefferson, Jackson, and Clay—such a judgment will surely be accepted by no one as a guide in estimating the character of public men.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Adams Mrs. (Leith), Madelon Lemoine	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
A Man's a Man for a' That," swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) $0 60
Balfour (A. J.), A Defence of Philosophic Doubt	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Bascom (J.), Ethics; or, Science of Duty	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Betham-Edwards (Miss M.), Holidays in Eastern France, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 25
Bright (J.), Public Addresses. Edited by James E. Thorold Rogers	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Brown (J. P.), The MacLaughlins of Clan Owen	(W. J. Schofield)
Buck (A. H.), Hygiene and Public Health, 2 vols	(Wm. Wood & Co.)
Calthrop (S. R.), The Rights of the Body, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 08
Calvert (A.), Virgil's Æneid. Book V	(Macmillan & Co.) 40
Conant (A. J.), Foot-Prints of Vanished Races in the Mississippi Valley	(Chancy R. Barns) 1 50
Cowley (C.), Leaves from a Lawyer's Life	(Lee & Shepard) 1 00
Dickens (C.), Life of Charles James Mathews, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Dowd (J. L.), Wayside Leaves	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Farman (Ella), How Two Girls Tried Farming, swd	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 50
Fisher (Prof. M. M.), The Three Pronunciations of Latin, 2d ed	(New England Pub. Co.) 1 00
Gibbons (Mrs. P. E.), French and Belgians	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 2 00
Gladstone (W. E.), The Country and the Government, Atlas Series, No. 10, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 10
Godkin (G. S.), Life of Victor Emmanuel II., First King of Italy, 2 vols	(Macmillan & Co.) 5 00
Gréville (Henry), Markof, "Cheap Edition for the Million," swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
Greylock (G.), Taghconic: the Romance and Beauty of the Hills	(Lee & Shepard)
Horn (F. W.), Geschichte der Literatur des Skandinavischen Nordens, Part II., swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Hubbard (L. L.), Summer Vacations at Moosehead Lake	(A. Williams & Co.)
Jackson (G. A.), The Apostolic Fathers	(D. Appleton & Co.) 60
Jerram (C. S.), Luciani Vera Historia	(Macmillan & Co.) 50
" Cebetis Tabula	" "
Kingsley (C.), The Two Breaths, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 08
Left-handed Elsa: a Tale, swd	(A. K. Loring) 15
Lubbock (Sir J.), Addresses, Political and Educational	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
" Scientific Lectures	" " 2 50
Major Jones's Courtship, new ed., swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
Mayor (J. E. B.), Juvenal for Schools, Part III., Satires X., XI.	(Macmillan & Co.) 90
McGuffey's Eclectic Readers	(Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.)
Milnes (A.), Johnson: Select Works, Lives of Dryden and Pope, and Rasselas	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Minturn (W.), The Last of the Kerdrecs	(Samuel Tinsley & Co.)
Monteith (J.), Easy Lessons in Popular Science	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Morley (Prof. H.) and Tyler (Prof. M. C.), Manual of English Literature	(Sheldon & Co.)
My Daughter Susan: a Tale	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 50
"My Queen": a Tale, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
O'Flanagan (J. R.), The Irish Bar, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Old French Château near Toulouse, swd	(Loring) 25
Prickard (A. O.), The Persæ of Æschylus	(Macmillan & Co.) 90
Potts (A. W.), Passages for Translation into Latin Prose	" " 50
Raymond (Prof. G. L.), Orator's Manual	(S. C. Griggs & Co.) 1 50
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 4, 1879.

The Week.

THE "National Greenback-Labor Party of the State of New York" assembled with great difficulty at Utica last week. The successful organization of the Convention was not secured till Saturday, Friday up to midnight having been spent in discussing delicate points of parliamentary law, in arranging to pay for the hall, and in admitting the proper delegates from this city. It did not appear that these last, of which there were three sets, were any of them "regular" or irregular, but the question at issue concerned the political affiliations of each set with organizations of real importance. The Convention seems to have been decidedly puzzled to decide between these which was likeliest to sell out the ticket about to be nominated. According to the *Times*, which takes a disinterested view of the matter, as the Republicans are not supposed to be involved, a happy result was attained, and "the men who composed the meeting are to be congratulated upon the fact that they refused all the overtures which were made to them by Tilden and Company on the one hand, and Tammany Hall on the other." "Sensibly declining to be the tools of either side," the votes they represent will at least not be cast for the Republican candidate's most dangerous opponent. The venerable Mr. Richard Schell was mentioned as a candidate for Governor, but the honest and horny-handed sons of labor "literally hissed the Tammany schemers out of the hall." Finally, the Convention nominated Harris Lewis, of Herkimer County, and president of the Farmers' Alliance, for Governor, and a full State ticket. The platform is, in the main, the usual greenback deliverance, but distinguished by the addition of some extraordinary resolutions intended to cheer up Kearney "in his heaven-inspired work," charging "our opponents" with being "really the red-handed Communists," and commending Kearney's recent restraint of the California mob from attacking the same. Apparently Kearney's "peace-policy" has produced a temporary transformation of "the Commune," which is altogether the best thing he has done.

At this writing there is still nothing but uncertainty as to what will happen in the Republican Convention at Saratoga on Wednesday, and, as the result will be known before this reaches our readers, speculation about it is useless. Mr. Conkling is said to stand firm for Cornell, for many years one of his leading henchmen, but possessing no hold on the party beyond what the Machine gives him, and the Senator's friends are confident of his nomination, but talk of Judge Robertson and Mr. Starin in case their anticipations are not realized. Cornell was the Naval Officer of this port who telegraphed about the "impudence" of the Union League Club in opposing Mr. Conkling's Presidential pretensions before the Cincinnati Convention, and who set the President's civil-service order at defiance. His nomination for the governorship of the State the year before the Presidential Convention would be perhaps the most striking bit of defiance to the reform element in the party which has yet been uttered. No one believes in his heart that he could draw out the full Republican vote of the State; but we must say there is nothing in the results of Mr. Conkling's past experiments on the party to forbid his trying this one. Vice-President Wheeler has appeared on the scene to oppose the nomination.

The Tammany Committee on Organization has issued a manifesto against Mr. Robinson of the most pronounced description. It is evidently the composition of some one who has had educational opportunities not open to most of the committee, and is not at all in the peculiar style of ordinary Tammany addresses. It is, in fact, modelled on the Declaration of Independence, and consists mainly of an enumeration of the various acts of oppression and usurpation committed throughout the State by Mr. Robinson. He is denounced as having been "a party to the coalition by which the Democratic party was defeated last November"; as presenting the horrid spectacle of the first Governor of the State who "has abused his judicial power for partisan purposes"; as having "removed one Democrat from an office to which he was elected by the people upon charges so slight that in another case he dismissed the same charges, although resting upon the same proofs." By his action with regard to the Police Commissioners, he has "endangered the peace, the property, and the lives of our citizens, by weakening their chief protection against vice and crime," and he now proposes, "by the appointment of the inspectors of election, to obtain control of our ballots." He has made himself liable to impeachment by consenting to the removal from office "without a hearing" of citizens "who could only be removed for cause." Finally, he is "a Trustee of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York." In fact, no thoughtful person can examine the manifesto without seeing that as a cold-blooded and heartless tyrant George III., in comparison with Robinson, was literally "nowhere," and the only wonder is that the latter has been endured so long without armed resistance. That any section of our people should desire his re-election seems incredible; and yet, as we go to press, the indications seem to be that he has got a majority of the delegates to the Democratic convention under his control.

During the present week the political canvass in Maine will terminate, and on Monday the strength of the three parties which have been conducting it will be shown at the polls. Prediction is as hazardous as it is cheap, and all that can be said is that the Republicans are at least as confident as their rivals. They have put forth extraordinary efforts, and to their home orators, like Blaine and Hamlin, and Hamlin's successors *in petto*, Messrs. Frye and Hale, have joined the leading Stalwarts of the party at large, including Secretary Sherman, Zach Chandler, and Gen. Garfield. The national importance of the election has been insisted on, and in a party sense quite correctly. Maine's example will undoubtedly be felt by the States whose elections come later, and the fate of the Greenback party there will be watched with general interest. In 1876 it polled less than one per cent. of the total vote; in 1877, rather more than five per cent.; in 1878, nearly thirty-three per cent. It acquired this sudden bulk chiefly by swallowing the Democratic party to the extent that it was able; if its capacity has not increased in the meantime, or if it has been obliged to disgorge, its occupation as a party will be gone, and in the Presidential election of next year it will hardly hold up its head. Thus far its existence has profited the Democrats solely, as was no more than fair.

Although he has made no important speech during the week, Secretary Sherman has not entirely surrendered himself to a vacation rest from the active duties associated with his office. He has been relieved by an interview in the Cincinnati *Commercial*, which takes pleasure in rendering justice to the Secretary, of the false imputation of having appointed Confederate soldiers and his own relatives to office; has made a speech to the Cincinnati merchants, disposing of the charge that he had extended the time for withdrawal of the proceeds of the sale of four per cent. bonds from the national banks in order to relieve those institutions; and has made a speech at Lexington, Ky., whither he went upon an excursion arranged in his honor by the Cincinnati Southern Railway Company. This speech had, of course, little political significance, and Mr. Sherman did not improve the opportunity to make any explanations of his official acts or any statements of his personal convictions. Necessarily, therefore, his accomplishment of resumption and the

unreconstructed condition of the South were passed over, and the citizens of Kentucky were instead reminded of the heroic deeds of their ancestors in defence of the infant settlement of Ohio. For this he assured them the people of Ohio were still profoundly grateful, and were trying to make it up to the Kentuckians by building "this well-constructed railroad" through the blue-grass region. Nevertheless he ventured to remark that "these sister States are but a part of a great country," and to hope that they would be "filled with hearts beating warmly for each other in the future." He gave no distinct promise, however, of laboring to this end in his future speeches, when he should be released from the thraldom imposed by the urbanity necessary upon a Lexington race-course.

The Freedmen's Savings-Bank became insolvent in 1874, and special machinery for winding it up was created in the same year, in the shape of a board of three commissioners, at a salary of $3,000 a year each. We commented on this machinery in 1875, calling attention to the fact that no depositor or creditor was empowered under the law to sue the commissioners on their bond for the faithful performance of their duties; that they were not required to report to anybody; that they were not made accountable to anybody, and that their decisions were final. News now comes from Washington that the "winding up" is still going on, five years after the failure; that the most shocking falsification of the books has been discovered, pages having been frequently torn out, and the index to the ledger destroyed; "but unfortunately," says the despatch, "the statute of limitations will prevent the prosecution of the persons responsible for this mismanagement of the affairs of the bank." This is exactly what we expected. The perpetrators of this immense fraud were the members of the Washington Ring, which grew up and flourished under the favor of the White House during General Grant's Administration, and the Freedmen's Savings-Bank was simply one of several nefarious schemes. It is very discreditable to the Democrats that they should not have followed this matter up and thoroughly exposed it. Of the effect of it on the thrifty and intelligent portion of the negro population we need not speak. When a bull-dozer goes after a black man with a whip or a gun it fills him with bodily terror, but it does not shake his faith in the existence of morality itself. But when a band of Stalwarts get together, and, after weeping over his condition, offer to take care of his money for him, and, having got it, divide it among themselves and disappear, it makes him doubt whether there is justice anywhere on earth; and this is very much what the Stalwarts of the bank did. We warrant that every one of the rogues is to-day bewailing the "outrages" at the South, and shouting for a "steady hand at the helm" in Washington.

General Smith created a good deal of excitement among the city politicians last week by returning from the country and issuing a notice to Messrs. Nichols, Wheeler, and French, advising them of the fact, and informing them in formal language that he was "ready for business." He followed this up with a notice to Mr. Morrison, warning that gentleman that he looked upon him as a "trespasser," and demanding an instant relinquishment of his claims upon the police-commissionership. General Smith is the only one of the old Board whose movements are looked upon with any degree of physical fear by the politicians who are opposed to him. Owing to his military reputation, he is regarded by them as a man of blood and iron, who will stick at nothing in carrying out the programme agreed upon with his "counsel." There were at first considerable apprehensions lest he should appear at the head of a large and heavily-armed force of desperate adherents, and drive the peaceful Morrison and the unresisting MacLean into the street, reassume control of the police force, and awe the city into submission. The reporters seem, indeed, to have been considerably disappointed by his announcing that he merely means to take legal measures to assert his rights. Meanwhile Mr. Wheeler has got into more trouble through the stoppage of his salary. On Monday Mr. Cooper notified the Board that the Police Department accounts showed Mr. Wheeler to be in arrears to the amount of about two thousand dollars, received from the sale of buttons, and that Mr. Wheeler was not legally entitled to receive any salary until he should make the deficit good. Mr. MacLean immediately called for a vote, and Mr. Wheeler declining to vote, and Mr. French voting no, and Messrs. Morrison and MacLean voting yes, a resolution which practically had the effect of cutting off Mr. Wheeler's August salary was passed. Mr. Wheeler himself, singularly, afterwards allowed his vote to be recorded in the affirmative, an act which he has not explained, and it is believed cannot.

The yellow fever in the Southwest has increased during the week, and in many places given rise to more excitement than has been exhibited since its first appearance. At Memphis there has been a larger number of cases than usual lately, and that the increase is not serious is attributed to the general exodus, which leaves the city with a much smaller population than that of last year. There have been new cases at Mississippi City and Vidalia and New Orleans, and Mobile is quarantined against the last place. At Houston, Texas, the people stopped a through-train and arrested the United States authorities, who were determined to break the quarantine, which had already been "raised"; the passengers were allowed to proceed, but the city still holds the United States officers, who, nevertheless, assert that they acted under the authority of Governor Roberts, as well as of the general Government. The National Board of Health is said to feel some alarm about the situation in New Orleans, but to be encouraged by the lateness of the season and the sanitary work already performed there. Ten thousand dollars have already been expended in the city by the Board, and it is suggested that a similar amount be devoted to purchasing for destruction infected clothing. The fever has struck a shining mark in General John B. Hood, whose death on Saturday is particularly distressing. He leaves twelve children, all of them under twelve years of age, penniless and completely orphaned, Mrs. Hood having also died of the fever within the month. Since the war—in which it will be remembered he was one of the last Southern commanders to surrender—he had been engaged in mercantile pursuits, and had made a fortune only to lose it in speculation in Louisiana consols.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science held its twenty-eighth annual meeting at Saratoga during the past week. This is, we believe, the first occasion since 1860 on which a place of fashionable summer resort has been chosen for the meeting. The result has been a much larger attendance than usual, especially of the older and better-known members, half the whole number of living past presidents taking part in the proceedings. It is also deserving of note that although the "universe-makers" appear to have been present in considerable numbers, there was somewhat more than the usual proportion of papers by eminent members. Still, it is indisputable that the proceedings of the Association convey no adequate idea of what our leading men of science are doing in their respective branches, and we suggest that an attempt at some improvement in this respect is worthy of the consideration of the managers. Possibly a less formal system of organization, such as that of the German Association of Naturalists, would be found beneficial.

Perhaps the most important financial occurrences of the week were the arrivals at New York of gold sent from London and Paris. These arrivals amounted to $3,100,591; and, according to cable advices, nearly $10,000,000 more gold in one form and another is now afloat on the way to this port. It was not until late in the week that any gold was withdrawn from the Bank of England, previous lots having been made up from arrivals at London and from outside stocks. Although the Bank of England has a remarkably large reserve—close upon 60 per cent. of its liabilities—yet as soon as the stock in its vaults began to be drawn upon, the discount market immediately strengthened, and where a week ago the rate was one per cent. it is now one and a half per cent. On the calculation that further withdrawals of gold would cause a further rise in the discount rate, the market here for sterling bills, which

had fallen half a cent early in the week, recovered the fall, and bills payable on demand closed strong. The gold which has arrived here in the last two weeks has gone into the Treasury when it consisted of double eagles, and to the Assay Office when it consisted of bars or foreign coin, and in a majority of both cases legal-tender notes or Clearing-house certificates have been received therefor, so that the banks appear in the item of specie in their statement to have gained little or nothing. It is evident that the domestic shipments of currency to the West were nearly offset in amount by the gain to the banks on account of the large gold importations. Every dollar that can be got from Europe will evidently be needed to keep the loan market in smooth working condition during the remainder of the year. Mercantile business continues active, and there is a decided revival in almost every branch of manufactures. The price of silver bullion in London declined from 51¾*d.* per oz. to 51⅝*d.* per oz. At the close of the week the 412½-grain silver dollar had a bullion value of $0.8643.

There is no change in the tenor of advices from England with regard to the condition of business. The most prosperous mills not only show no signs of paying dividends, but continue to make reductions in wages. The only sign of revival is in the iron business, which is looking up somewhat. The weather has improved, but not in time to save the crops, which are set down as twenty-five per cent. below the average. The tide of emigration to this country among farmers having more or less capital appears to have set in, and small parties are now arriving. Lord Beaconsfield, who seldom opens his mouth on financial matters without putting his foot in it, has offered a sapient solution of the agricultural difficulty which has excited some hilarity among his enemies. He says land *must* always support three classes of persons—the man who supplies money to purchase the land, the man who supplies capital to work it, and the man who works it; but, as the *Pall Mall Gazette* points out, what he takes for a necessary classification of persons is simply a convenient division of bookkeeping. He does not seem to conceive of the possibility of land being of no value to any one but the man who tills it with his own hands, and who would, therefore, perforce unite landlord, capitalist, and laborer in his own person, which is, in fact, the condition of a great deal of the land in this State.

A strong case has been made for the Irish "Home-Rulers," and notably in an article of Mr. O'Connor Power in a late number of the *Fortnightly Review*, where he shows that their plans, however objectionable, are not irrational. The Home-Rulers, too, in their character of "Obstructionists," are admitted by the editor of the *Fortnightly* to have done good service in procuring through their obstructiveness a valuable revision of the Army Discipline Bill. But the course of some of them, and especially of Mr. Parnell, in the vacation, seems to suggest some sort of insanity. He has just been addressing large bodies of excited peasant farmers in Limerick, advising them to pay no rent until they get a reduction, which so roused the crowd that they "stormed" the platform and had a free fight. One of the landlords of Meath, which Mr. Parnell represents, was shot dead at his own door the other day. In fact, the Home-Rule agitation seems not unlikely to take in Ireland the form of an agitation for the forcible establishment of peasant proprietorship, which would probably in its earlier stages be marked by much bloodshed.

The Zulu war appears to be rather suspended than finished. Lord Chelmsford seems to have pushed on energetically when he heard Sir Garnet Wolseley was coming, in order to achieve something decisive before being superseded, and having fought the battle of Ulundi and destroyed the King's kraal, retired precipitately, producing among the natives, it is now said, the impression that his losses were so heavy that he could not stay. He then resigned and went home promptly; the reason being, it is rumored, that he was hurt by the peremptoriness with which Sir Garnet insisted on his giving an account of his movements from day to day. The latter has had a meeting with the chiefs of Southern Zululand, who surrender and acknowledge themselves beaten, but Cetewayo is at large in the northern forests with a force of unknown size, and it is proposed to try the "anaconda policy" on him by getting the Swazies to attack him in the rear, while the British press him in front. It is acknowledged on all hands that the creation of a government to take the place of that of the King will be a serious matter. Cetewayo did control the tribes, but it is doubtful whether his successor will be able to do so, and anarchy in Zululand might be worse for the white settlers in Natal than the neighborhood of the Zulu army, even when composed, to use Sir Bartle Frere's phrase, of "celibate man-slaying gladiators."

Things in Turkey grow steadily worse. The Foreign Office at the Porte was closed a week or two ago, and the work in it suspended, owing to the refusal of the clerks to go on any longer without pay. Some battalions of the regular army, quartered at Janina, have given notice of their intention to disband for the same reason. In Constantinople itself the representatives of the Powers have had to call the attention of the Government to the increasing insecurity of life and property in and around the capital. The British Minister, too, has had to insist on the removal of the Governor of Erzerum for complicity in, or connivance at, murder, pillage, and arson. The policy the British Government is pursuing of multiplying its consuls in Asia Minor is making more vivid than ever the picture of violence and disorder presented by that province. Nevertheless, in spite of all this, the Turks have actually 160,000 troops under arms in Europe, part on the frontier of Rumelia and part on that of Greece, being apparently still under the belief that they will again be permitted to make war. All this is, of course, very unfortunate for the Tories in view of the approaching dissolution of Parliament. If the Turk would only "pull himself together" and try to walk steadily for a few months, it would be worth any money to Lord Beaconsfield.

It is again announced that the Porte has agreed to accept, without conditions, the frontier line between Turkey and Greece suggested by the Berlin Conference, leaving, however, the question on which side of it Janina lies to be settled by the Commission appointed to draw the line. The difficulty with the Sultan is that Mussulman traditions and opinion require him to yield no territory except to force, so that he waits for the Powers to take him by the collar and drag him out of the region intended to be ceded, in order to satisfy his subjects.

The Pope has issued an Encyclical of great length, showing how, in the early days of the Church, the philosophy and dialectics of the pagans were frequently seized upon by the Fathers and converted into weapons which they used with great effect against paganism itself; how there is no real opposition between genuine philosophy and religious truth; and how in later times St. Thomas Aquinas succeeded in both marking the distinction between reason and faith and "uniting both in the bonds of a mutual amity." The Pope therefore urges on the bishops to cultivate, and cause to be cultivated in every way in their power, "the precious doctrine of St. Thomas" in all seats of learning which they have established or may yet establish, and he adds that this doctrine, far from offering any opposition to the cultivation of the physical sciences, maintains that "the understanding can only elevate itself by tangible things to the knowledge of the incorporeal and spiritual." The Encyclical, which is much soberer in tone than similar documents issued by Pius IX., is only remarkable as evidence that the need of "reconciling science and religion" has at last begun to receive in the higher circles of the Roman Church the attention so long bestowed on it by Protestants. The Pope, however, does not discuss the question himself, or enter into any exposition of St. Thomas's philosophy. He simply presents his writings as the source from which Catholic teachers and writers are to draw guidance in dealing with the special religious difficulties of the time.

THE TWO POLITICAL MYSTERIES OF THE DAY.

WE presume most of our readers are by this time thoroughly puzzled by the place Mr. Samuel J. Tilden holds in his own party, as well as by the accounts given of him in the Republican papers. He has been odious to the Republicans ever since the outbreak of the war, owing to his opposition to it, and, in fact, owing to his outspoken "copperheadism" and his prominence in the Democratic party in this State when it was doing its utmost to embarrass the Government in carrying on the war. During the last Presidential campaign nothing was left undone to make him hateful to all honorable men by accounts of his knavery in private life. He was depicted as a dishonest lawyer, a tricky speculator, a defrauder of the revenue; and an unusual substance was given to the regular "campaign charges" against him by a Government prosecution which was instituted solely for an offence of which fully one-half the men of property in the country had been guilty. The campaign articles, indeed, of some of the leading Republican papers consisted mainly of exposures of his personal baseness, so that before the election it had become one of the signs of good Republicanism to believe all the current "stories" about him. Every Republican reader of the newspapers, indeed, professed to understand the various legal transactions in which Tilden was represented as engaged, with sufficient clearness to be able to follow the thread of his rascality from beginning to end. Towards the close of the canvass the belief in his wickedness had almost taken the form of religious enthusiasm. Many people were satisfied that it was spreading over the whole earth, and that even in the interior of China men shuddered when his name was mentioned. That it had taken complete possession of the public mind in European countries there was no doubt left, for it was announced that foreign holders of United States bonds would sell their securities the minute he was elected, feeling sure that the first act of his Administration would be to take measures for the repudiation of the public debt. Attention was distracted from his character for a brief period during the Presidential count, owing to the necessity of defending the conduct of the Returning Boards, which was severely tasking the strength of Republican moralists. There were even signs of a reaction in his favor, when the cipher telegrams were brought to light. This, in spite of his denials, led to a renewal of the old confidence in his depravity which has lasted until now, and will probably be intensified by the news that he has "unloaded" elevated-railroad stock on his too confiding "ally," Mr. Cyrus W. Field. This act has, indeed, in Mr. Field's estimation, and probably will have in that of thousands of others, an *ex-post-facto* operation, inasmuch as Mr. Field says it convinces him that Tilden *was* privy to the attempts to bribe the Southern electors.

In addition to this wide-spread belief in his moral perversity, there is also a profound confidence in his physical decrepitude. He is represented as a feeble old man, whose nervous system has given way, and whose memory, except for lies, is completely gone. What is more remarkable than these Republican attacks on him, however, is the absence of any vigorous Democratic defence. We do not remember having seen during the past two years a single Democratic apology for him, much less eulogy on him. The Democratic press is for the most part silent about both his defects and excellences. Many acknowledge that there are serious objections to him as a Democratic candidate, and mourn over them. There are none of the usual friendly stories afloat about his love of "the poor man," or the simplicity of his manners, or the peaceful serenity of his home-life, or his legal defence of the widow who was falsely accused of stealing towels when acting as charwoman, or of his love of washing his face in a tin basin at the pump, such as circulate even about General Butler. Nor has he any "magnetism" to boast of. In fact, if we are not greatly mistaken, he is the first man who has run for the Presidency within fifty years whom no one has ventured to describe as "magnetic." No one feels disposed on seeing him to embrace him, or expects him to lend him five dollars, or asks him if he has an apple or peanuts about him. Nor has Mr. Tilden the "bluff, hearty manner" and the nautical utterance which captivate the crowd. In fact, one of the charges against him is that he is "saving" of his voice, and whispers in the ear of his admirers instead of shouting to them "cheerily," as other great political leaders do. Nor is he great on the stump. He has no fame as an orator. He seldom or never exposes the Republican atrocities in glowing periods. Nevertheless, in spite of all this, he is admitted on all hands to be at this moment the most likely man to get the Democratic nomination for the Presidency again. Powerful as Tammany is, and dextrous as John Kelly is, there is a general feeling that Tilden will get the better of them in the long run. When Tilden is understood to be in pursuit of anything, in caucus, convention, or committee, there is a general expectation that he will get it.

This certainly seems a great mystery, and it is a mystery. It is a bigger mystery, but one of the same order, than Conkling's ascendency in the Republican party in this State, and they are both useful mysteries, as illustrating the perfection to which the nominating machinery has been carried, and the completeness with which it may, even under the very eyes of the voters, be separated both from opinions and character. Conkling has never had the charges made against him that Tilden has. In fact, as regards money matters, no reproach has, so far as we know, ever been cast upon him, although we feel quite sure he might have erred very seriously in this direction without shaking his influence. But he, too, is not "magnetic." He does not encourage friendly familiarity with his person. He has a far more imposing exterior than Tilden, but it is a cold and repelling exterior, with which no one feels tempted to take liberties. He has a good cross-roads-store or post-office flow of political gossip and "chaff," but no conversation calculated to impose on the plain people with an appearance of "culture" or profound reflection. His forte in the Senate is the thing which plain people most of all dislike and are most puzzled by—"scorn" expressed in "sarcasm." All of his predecessors from this State—that is, Senators who have easily retained their places for several terms—have been men made famous by their opinions, and by their long association with great lines of public policy. But we believe very few, if any, know what Mr. Conkling's opinions are on any subject except the wickedness of the Democrats. Upon nearly every question in which his State is specially interested he has been carefully reticent. There is, in fact, nothing on the surface of his career to account for his prominence, except his readiness to stump in every canvass previous to the expiration of his own term. In all others his health is apt to give way and he remains discouragingly silent. Nevertheless, in spite of these disadvantages, which are, among politicians, usually considered fatal to success in the political arena of our day, he has his own way in the Republican party in his own State to a degree to which no man before him has probably attained. He gets whatever the State can give him in the shape of office without difficulty. He imposes his will on every convention in the matter of nominations with almost unbroken success. Every year there are mutterings of revolt against him, and once or twice the malcontents have ventured to hold meetings and to give open utterance to their insubordination, but when they meet him face to face in the convention they are forced to content themselves with a platitude or two in the platform, about which he cares little. He does not, in other words, care who arranges the toasts as long as he orders the dinner. He is at this moment engaged in forcing the Republicans to nominate for the governorship of this great commercial State one of his own henchmen, who is only known to the public as a master in the art of low political intrigue, as if to show his contempt for the popular talk about "reform" and the popular complaints of the tyranny of the machine.

The explanation of both mysteries is the same. Mr. Tilden has had much more to contend with than Mr. Conkling, because he is not only laden with more personal defects but has had to create his "influence" without the help of the Government; but they are both masters of the same art. Each has created a "machine" to the perfect working of which he attends carefully, and which, sim-

ple as it seems to the inexperienced eye, represents a large amount of labor and ingenuity, and, in fact, may be called a beautiful piece of mechanism. It consists simply in having in his employ, or under his thumb in each district, the men who have the necessary knowledge and skill to see that the right people attend the primaries, and that the primaries elect the right delegates to the county conventions, and the county conventions to the State conventions. At the State convention, having received the reports of his subordinates, the chief takes charge of the arrangements himself, soothes the irritable, humbugs the simple, bargains with the shrewd, prepares for the public the needed amount of rhetoric, and then rings the bell for the rising of the curtain and the exhibition of the final tableau. Afterwards, during the canvass, all that is needed is to supply the people with a certain amount of declamation, showing that whatever may be our objections to "the machine," or however low our opinion of Tilden or Conkling may be, none can deny that the defeat of the ticket at this particular juncture would be an irreparable misfortune; that if the other side is allowed to go on unchecked in its course even for another year, the destruction of the public liberties or the overthrow of the Government will be the probable result; that the machine can be abolished at any time, but that the country must be saved now; that a party is, after all, not to be judged by the character of its leading men, important as these may be, but by its tendencies and antecedents, and that any one who examines these must see that the Democrats will, if successful, at no very remote period reduce the blacks to slavery and repudiate the public debt, or the Republicans convert the Government into a centralized despotism, and put every man in jail who comes to the polls with a Democratic ticket in his hand; that the question before us is not whether Tilden is a good man or Conkling a good man, but whether this last and greatest attempt for the elevation of mankind shall succeed or fail miserably.

THE SITUATION IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

TWELVE years have passed since the Austrian Empire, after a disastrous shock which brought it to the verge of ruin, was reorganized on a dualistic basis, and transformed into a constitutional Austria-Hungary. In these twelve years Hungary has proved by her parliamentary life that she represents a nation and constitutes a nationality, and Cis-Leithan Austria that she does neither. Nor are these opposite results of the trial in the least surprising. Hungary's admirable geographical position, the dominant or leading part taken by her strongest race, the Magyar, and the influence of her history of a thousand years, are sufficient to counterbalance all difficulties arising from a great variety of ethnological elements and the clashing of their tendencies. The Magyar knows what he wants, and he rules the state which he has created, defended, and preserved in its freedom. Whether Andrássy, Szlávy, Ghyczy, or Tisza leads the Diet, and through it the nation, the aim is always the same, clearly the same, and never lost sight of; and even the means and the methods employed are not essentially different. Croats, Serbs, and Magyar Radicals clamor and threaten, but they are not able to clog the wheels of government, and still less to turn them back.

In Cis-Leithan Austria things are entirely different. *She* has no natural boundaries, no leading race, no really national history, no common aim, no constitutional traditions, and, therefore, no national statesmen either. The bond created by the dynasty, formerly powerful enough to cement together the most heterogeneous elements, is too feeble now, in these days of royalty in decadence, to counteract natural centrifugal proclivities and antagonistic animosities. Vienna is still proud, it is true, of her Burg and her Kaiser, and her own imperial metropolitanism, but her intellectual pretensions have ceased to be Austrian, and have become German; her aspirations are vague, inconstant, and not sufficiently loyal. The Tyrolese still love the house of Hapsburg, but they love Catholicism better, and the Hapsburgs, now constitutional emperors, are no longer the upholders of the faith. The Czechs of Bohemia and Moravia are determined to be loyal only as long as there remains a chance of transforming the monarchy into a confederacy ruled by Slavs, and virtually by themselves. The Poles of Galicia cling to the Austrian throne only so far as it offers a protection against Russia, and not without a distinct protest dictated by their love for Polish independence, and their hope of ultimately restoring their dismembered fatherland. Trieste inclines toward Italy, and Dalmatia is a focus of South-Slavic agitation. These aims and tendencies have their distinct representatives in the Cis-Leithan cabinets, and Auersperg, Potocki, Hohenwart, and Taaffe, at the head of the cabinets, are far from unanimous in their endeavors.

What has made governing and parliamentary life in Cisleithania possible is, on one side, the influence of the Court, whose wishes are still sacred to the majority of the nobility, of the official world, and other pre-eminent classes, and, on the other, the extravagance of the extremes of opposition, leading to frequent boltings, which have given the Constitutional party a majority over all other shades of the Reichsrath. Czechs, Poles, Tyrolese, and Dalmatians more than once have refused to take their seats in a body whose workings they considered antagonistic to their rights or cherished opinions, and the Czechs, firmly believing in Palacky's "We can wait," have spent many years of masterly inactivity in this temporary political self-annihilation. The heads of the various cabinets have had to bend before the will of the Liberal Constitutional element, which, rooted in Lower and Upper Austria, Styria, and Carinthia, drew also considerable strength from the minorities in Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and other provinces, where it set Germans against Czechs or South-Slavs, Ruthenians against Poles, and so on. The foreign affairs of the Empire, which are not subject to the dictation of the Vienna or the Pesth parliamentary forum, but decided by delegations yearly deputed by the two parliaments, have, in the meanwhile, been for eight years under the executive control of Count Andrássy, as head of the common Imperial Ministry. This statesman, even under the most embarrassing circumstances, always knew how to obtain from the majorities ruling at Pesth and Vienna the subsidies required for a policy essentially imperial, but based on the view that Hungary forms the nucleus of the Empire, and that her national interests are to be guarded above everything—a policy anti-Russian in spirit, pro-German from calculation, and cautious from necessity.

The adaptation, however, of this foreign policy to the extraordinary, though by no means unforeseen, events of the last years, called for so much reticence, so much manœuvring and veering, that it naturally led to great dissatisfaction on both sides of the Leitha. The occupation of Bosnia, a necessity of the course pursued, was decried in Pesth as a betrayal of the Magyar interest, and n Vienna as a waste of German blood and treasure for adventurous purposes without a definite object. The support of the Upper-House portion of the Cis-Leithan delegation, added to the majority of the Hungarian delegation, which Andrássy's Magyar eloquence knew how to win, made it possible to run the gauntlet in safety; but the Constitutional party of Cisleithania was split into atoms during the manœuvre, and there was no party, nor any fraction of a party, able to take the helm in that division of the dual monarchy. An entire change of base was therefore deemed necessary by the Court, if it were to go on governing at all. The Constitutional party was abandoned by the remnants of the late Adolf Auersperg Cabinet, and a coalition formed before the late elections with the Federalistic, National, and Feudal camps. The Court and the Cabinet threw all their influence into the scale, and the consequence was a disastrous rout of the German Constitutionalists all over the field. The Czechs were triumphant in Bohemia and parts of Moravia, the Poles over the Ruthenians, and Conservatives in many of the strongholds of the Liberals. The new Cis-Leithan Ministry under Taaffe is the first result of the elections. Hungary, of course, remained unaffected by this result of the ballot beyond her border.

The general situation, however, has suddenly become aggravated by the resignation of Andrássy. It is hard, at this distance, to decide whether the many assertions are true which attribute this step

to the ill-health of the Count, or whether to trust the isolated hints that the changed aspect of affairs west of the Leitha, or the new resolution of entering Novi-Bazar, in south-eastern Bosnia, has something to do with the retirement of the statesman to whom the monarchy is so much indebted. Andrássy evidently continues to possess the well-deserved confidence of his monarch, and it is he who, while anxious deliberations are taking place concerning his successor, is still negotiating with Bismarck in regard to foreign matters apparently of grave import. It would be rash to utter opinions in regard to these new apparitions on the diplomatic horizon. One thing, however, is certain: no anti-Magyar policy will be instituted by Andrássy, though he has proceeded, and from necessity may still do so, in a direction not entirely pleasing to his countrymen. An opposite policy must, of course, meet with the stern disapproval of Russia, and there are signs which indicate that Bismarck and his Court are just now greatly out of favor in the surroundings of Gortschakoff and the Tzesarevitch, if not of the Czar himself. While the sky is thus, perhaps, clouding again beyond the frontiers of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, what will be the attitude of the majority of the new Reichsrath? Will the Czechs take their seats, and consent to co-operate, if the Magyar influence continues to prevail in the Delegations and the common Cabinet? Will the Poles be moderate enough to give support to a guarded and cautious management of foreign affairs? Will the Constitutional party reunite and profit by the good intentions of Taaffe and his associates to regain a part of its leadership? Will Federals, Nationals, and Ultramontanes form a phalanx against Liberalism? Will the moderating influence of the Court be strong enough to create unity, or at least a semblance of it? To all this a near future must bring an answer.

Centrifugal forces have done their natural work in Cisleithania. But this natural work has its narrow limits. Cisleithania is bound to remain united, and connected with Hungary. The reason is not of a positive, but of a negative, nature. The principal parts tending toward separation are unable to detach themselves. Separate the seats of Liberal Germanism from its associations, and Vienna becomes a provincial frontier-town, which a Hungarian protective tariff will reduce to beggary. Give the Czechs their dreamed-of independence of the crown of Saint Venceslas, and in a few years they will be engulfed in Germany, to lose their nationality for ever. Release Galicia from the hated bond of union with the destroyer of Poland, and in a month she will be swallowed by Russia. Destroy the union between Cisleithania and Hungary, and the monarchy which shields so many feeble nationalities, unable to stand alone, will break down. All this is felt, though not acknowledged, everywhere. The loud talk is all against the monarchy; the logic of history, the fatality of position, is in favor of its continuance.

ONEIDA COMMUNISM.

DISSENSIONS within and public opinion without have combined to force the abandonment of "complex marriage" on the Oneida Community. This "change of the social platform," as it is called, purports to have been made merely "in deference to the public sentiment which is evidently rising against it," and was formally proposed by the founder of the Community. But it appears that the real initiative was taken by some of the younger members, and the rather artificial excitement which found vent in the ministerial Syracuse Conference of last February may very possibly have been instigated by the same party, seeking to strengthen itself by means of external pressure directed against the obnoxious practice.

However it has been brought about, the event is one of considerable significance in the history of fanaticism as well as of American socialism. The Community, henceforth composed of "two distinct classes—the married and the celibates—both legitimate, but the last preferred," possesses scarcely greater interest than the Shaker sect, and its success will furnish only economic lessons. For what remains of the original conception there is no longer any need of Biblical sanction. It takes its place with all other forms of industrial co-operation, and in the future as in the past its failure will in nowise depend on interpretations of Scripture. That, apart from its sexual vagaries, its example has been wholesome and will continue to be, there is little doubt. Its growth, if desired, will certainly be easier; but its numbers will now be more rapidly replenished by natural increase, and as its hold upon those born into it will become stronger, voluntary accessions will probably be discouraged. It remains to be seen, however, whether the present compromise between the family idea and the communal, as respects the rights of persons, will not sooner or later be succeeded by a crisis involving property rights in which no compromise will be possible. As in churches the great value of the "plant" is a powerful incentive to harmony and the suppression of scandal, so in the Oneida Community it may very well have operated to extort a concession opposed to the whole theory of its founder. But it would be powerless against a tendency to convert the Community into a joint-stock corporation, with liberty to withdraw and sell out, which would be a logical development of the individualism and egoism now beginning to be tolerated.

That the split in regard to sexual relations has come with the second generation was only what was to be expected. Nothing but a Chinese wall and the adoption of a conventual stringency could have prevented it. But, to its credit be it said, the Community surpasses all its contemporaries in intelligence; it has always been accessible to visitors; its library and reading-room keep it in much closer communication with the outer world than, for example, the Quakers as a body were or perhaps are wont to keep themselves; its travellers and agents went freely throughout the country; its young men were even sent to college. All this showed a sublime confidence in the soundness of its faith, but a hardly less sublime ignorance of human nature or of the scientific basis of civilization. Nothing is surer than that the Oneida system of complex marriage was a reversion to barbarism—to ways repudiated by the race in its efforts to rise above the promiscuous intercourse of the brutes. All the attention it deserved at the hands of social philosophers was due to this fact, and to one other, that it was justified by an appeal to supernatural sanctions. As a cancer in the body politic it was so palpably self-limited that it gave no real occasion for alarm. Its pretensions on the score of "stirpiculture" did nothing to extenuate it on the one hand, or to raise curiosity on the other. A single socio-physiological feature of some importance was grafted upon it, which consisted in the regulation by common consent of the production of offspring.

What is most surprising in Mr. Noyes's message to the Community is his declaration that he did not regard the hitherto existing social arrangements as "essential parts" of their profession as Christian Communists. He has been saying this, it appears, for a year past. But ten years ago, in his work on 'American Socialisms,' he still held to the doctrine laid down in his 'Bible Communism' in 1848, that "the restoration of true relations between the sexes is a matter second in importance only to the reconciliation of man to God," and that "the sin-system, the marriage-system, the work-system, and the death-system, are all one, and must be abolished together. Holiness, free-love, association in labor, and immortality constitute the chain of redemption, and must come together *in their true order*." Now we are told that the order is of no consequence; "belief in the principles and prospective finality" of complex marriage is still retained, but the institution can wait, and "new wonders of success" are even anticipated because of its suspension. Quite other is the prospect held out on p. 634 of the work already quoted from:

"A Community home in which each is married to all, and where love is honored and cultivated, will be as much more attractive than an ordinary home as the community outnumbers a pair. These principles remove the principal obstructions in the way of Association. There is plenty of tendency to crossing love and adultery, even in the system of isolated households. Association increases this tendency. Amalgamation of interests, frequency of interview, and companionship in labor, inevitably give activity and intensity to the social attractions in which amativeness is the strongest element. The tendency to extra-matrimonial love will be proportioned to the condensation of interests produced by any given form of Association; that is, if the ordinary principles of exclusiveness are preserved. Association will be a worse school of temptation to unlawful love than the world is, in proportion to its social advantages. Love, in the exclusive form, has jealousy for its complement; and jealousy brings on strife and division. Association, therefore, if it retains one-love exclusiveness, contains the seeds of dissolution; and those seeds will be hastened to their harvest by the warmth of associate life."

This passage furnishes a timely admonition to the Community itself, to its neighbors, who have just been congratulating themselves on the change of social platform, and to the prosecuting clergymen who have promised a "breeze of general good-will" in its favor. Immorality, apparently, is just about to begin, and the Community's days are already numbered. Perhaps, however, Mr. Noyes hopes that the little band of celibates will save the organization. He recommends a renewed and

earnest study of the seventh chapter of I. Corinthians, for it was Paul who placed "property in women and property in goods in the same category, and speaks of them together, as ready to be abolished by the advent of the Kingdom of Heaven." One is reminded of Father Miller carefully reviewing the texts on which his calculations of the Millennium were based, after the anti-climax of 1843.

Mr. Noyes's compulsory retreat from a fundamental position strikingly exhibits the weakness of communism. The uniform lesson of the socialist wrecks with which the pages of his History are strewn is, that the strength of a community is in its founder; that if he has executive ability the organization may endure as long as his powers are unimpaired, but that it seldom survives him. Mr. Noyes has, we conceive, outlived his headship. His successor, who should be the Community as a whole, competent to maintain its principles and its business, is the self-appointed head of the party which has become dissatisfied with complex marriage. In other words, there is no real succession. A revolution has taken place: the Community as it was has suffered a mutilation which practically destroys its identity, and will by the coming historian be added to the list of extinct Utopias. Meantime, all must wish well to the industrial experiment from which "everything audacious" has been eliminated.

THE FAILURE OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA.

LONDON, August 6, 1879.

OUR Indian Empire has at last attracted the attention of the nation. Hitherto the most of us have been content to accept it as "the brightest jewel" in the crown of our constitutional monarchy, and to think no more about it. Knowing nothing of the subject in detail, and repelled by its dryness and difficulty, we cheerfully acquiesced in the official assurances that all was well. As a matter of fact, we knew that blight and corruption had hitherto followed in the wake of despotic governments; that it is of the very essence of such governments to substitute the caprices of individual will for fixed principles of law and equity; that under their shadow intellectual and political capacity are subjected to an inevitable eclipse; that the longer they endure the worse they become. We knew all this, I say, but it never occurred to us to apply our knowledge to India. There we calmly assumed that a sort of political miracle was being worked for our special advantage. A divine commission had been entrusted to us to spread "the blessings of British rule" in India, and we were doing it. In carrying out this divine work an Englishman here and there might have wandered from the strict path of rectitude, but the national heart was in the right place. The natives could not fail to see this and rejoice. It never occurred to us to remember that the rule we had set up in India belonged to the worst order of despotism. There is in despotism no vitality, no progressive power, even when the ruling authority is one in race and language with those over whom it rules. But in India the rulers were a race of aliens divided from their subjects by language, by religion, by manners and customs. There, of necessity, the absence of private friendships, of intermarriage, of familiar social intercourse, prevented any mitigation of the asperity of arbitrary rule. We chose to ignore all these hard facts on the strength of certain vague feelings of benevolence towards India of which we were conscious in ourselves. And thus it has come about that after a century of English rule, carried on to a ceaseless chorus of self-congratulations, we find these effects resulting: a profound gulf existing between rulers and ruled; a peasantry sunk in poverty and indebtedness, and swept away in millions by periodical famines; an increasing debt, an exhausted exchequer, and other indications of an impending collapse. These ugly facts have at last succeeded in forcing the knowledge of their existence upon the nation, and hence the general anxiety and increasing interest about India.

So far our failure to govern India well has been well-nigh complete. We may improve in the future, but we shall not do so unless we not only frankly acknowledge that we have failed, but discern *why* we have done so. I am not hopeful that we shall succeed in discerning the *why* before we have been tried by many bitter experiences. We have failed in India because we undertook a task beyond the compass of human capacity. We were not content to plant principles in the native mind, and allow them to develop in virtue of their inherent vitality; we—that is, a few thousand Englishmen—imagined that we could fulfil the functions of an earthly Providence towards two hundred millions of human beings. The natives were to deliver themselves into our hands like so many corpses, and we were to regenerate them. If in future we succeed, where hitherto we have failed, it can only be by withdrawing from the direct government of the larger part of our Indian Empire. It is frequently remarked that, while in the independent states eminent men rise up in abundance, such as Sir Salar Jung, Sir Dinkur Rao, Sir Mahdara Rao, and others, no such able men are to be found in British India. The reason is obvious: there is no career for them. Our system starves all native ambition and ability till they perish of inanition. Thus there exists in the body of the people neither the energy, nor the knowledge, nor the intellectual capacity to bear up against and rectify the blunders of the officials. What is needed in India is a rekindling of national life in the people, and this can be accomplished only by emancipating them from the cast-iron bureaucracy which holds them in its grip. British rule properly so-called will have to be limited to the rich provinces lying on the sea-coast. The people of these provinces are incapable of standing alone on account of their unmilitary rule. The rest of the countries will gradually have to be formed into tributary states having relations with the paramount power not dissimilar to those which formerly attached Servia and Rumania to the Porte.

I need not say that to suggest such a system in England at present would be to excite incredulity and contempt. The set of opinion, for the moment, is rather the other way. The Indian Government, conscious that it has forfeited the confidence and affection of the natives, regards with fear and antipathy any relics of freedom which are still possessed by them. It desires to extinguish native states, not to call new ones into existence. We are all familiar with this phase of feeling in despotisms which are beginning to be found out. The instinct of self-preservation impels them to make a solitude and call it peace. But, should we revive the policy of Lord Dalhousie, and begin absorbing the native principalities of India, we should merely hasten the day for the carrying out of the opposite policy. For we have failed to administer India because the work was too vast for our powers; if, then, we extend our direct rule over large additional tracts of country our failure in this respect will be rendered still more conspicuous. We shall be compelled to allow the natives to govern from lack of time and strength to discharge ourselves the routine of administration. But these are generalities, and it will perhaps interest your readers if I state precisely some of the defects and difficulties which beset British rule in India.

First and foremost, then, is the want of what Mr. Arnold would call "sweetness and light" in the governing classes. We, with our usual placid assurance, like to speak of British rule in India as an "enlightened-despotism." It would be more correct did we call it a "benighted despotism," for benighted it is in a manner which an American or a European will find it hard adequately to appreciate. But contrast for a moment the conditions under which government is carried on in a country, say, like England and in India. In England, upon any political question, a flood of light from all points of the compass is poured in upon the politician who proposes to deal with it. He is, perhaps, in greater danger of being blinded by excess of light than of missing the right solution by reason of the obscurity. A question does not become a subject for legislative action until it has, so to speak, been threshed out by historians, philosophers, and people of practical experience. Only when the utterances of all these people have leavened the public mind, and not only prepared the way for change but indicated almost the precise character of the change that is to be made, does the legislator step in to give legislative expression to the wishes of the majority. Thus there is no violent rupture between the old and the new; no interests are unjustly sacrificed from undue haste and ignorance, and time is given to those affected by the new law to adapt themselves to the novel conditions. But in India we have no class of trained thinkers. Our practical men have, in such spare moments as they can redeem from official duties, to do their own thinking. They have to legislate on a multitude of obscure and difficult questions, unenlightened by public opinion and unrestrained by it. Not that they shrink from undertaking these vast responsibilities; it is the effect of irresponsible power to produce an undue amount of self-confidence in those who are possessed of it. A more commonplace body of men than our Indian civilians it would be hard to bring together. Many of them are, of course, downright stupid. Few, very few indeed, are men of liberal views or extensive knowledge; but each, within a certain sphere of action, is an irresponsible despot. As he rises in the service this sphere enlarges, and it is not in human nature—at least, not in human nature as exhibited in an Indian civilian—to doubt that his legislative wisdom increases in proportion to his authority. The consequence is that when a civilian has become a member of Council or the ruler of a province he generally regards himself as a being of quite exceptional wisdom. He would be willing at the shortest notice to take command of the Channel fleet or perform an operation for stone. Of course, legisla-

tive innovations of the widest character are as child's play to him. He fearlessly rushes in where angels would fear to tread. "During long years" (to quote a writer on this subject), "in the remote jungle, he elaborates some mysterious scheme which is to inaugurate the Golden Age. No carping criticism ever visits the tender plant with its rude air, and it grows broad and fair in the garden of the soul. Little do some of our English thinkers know what effects their thoughts produce. A casual seed wafted to some remote station germinates in the mind of a man who will some day have the opportunity of applying it (long after it has been modified or rejected by its author) to a state of society for which it was never intended." This is perfectly true. The English civilians have treated India as a *corpus vile* delivered over to them for purposes of experimental legislation. A rapid succession of rulers has resulted in a rapid succession of experiments. Each new governor has, as it were, pulled up the legislative saplings planted by his predecessor, examined their roots, pronounced them to be without vital sap, and on the clearance thus effected begun planting his own, to meet a few years afterwards the same fate. The absence of all continuous purpose or fixed principles in our administration of India has been a main cause of its present unhappy condition.

The war in Afghanistan which has just terminated is a remarkable illustration of this. Since the fatal retreat from Kabul it had been held as a kind of axiom in Indian politics that we should abstain from all direct participation in the internal politics of Afghanistan. There had, however, always been a section of our Indian administrators who had rejected this axiom, and at every movement of the Russians in Central Asia had shrieked out that the Empire was lost if we did not hasten to seize Afghanistan. Suddenly the whirligig of time places these men in a position which enables them to convert their theories into action, and in a month the fruits of forty years of a policy of conciliation are destroyed. The warning voice of Lord Lawrence—perhaps the greatest Englishman that India has made known—is no more regarded than that of an infant crying for a light. Afghanistan is invaded; an old and faithful ally hunted to death; all the old crimes, all the old blunders, are repeated with exactitude as if it had been done for a wager; and now, when too late, the very men who urged this policy are becoming aware of the fatal blunder they have perpetrated. Afghanistan, rent asunder by internal dissensions, is fast tumbling to pieces; and Yakub Khan and Major Cavagnari are at this moment in precisely the same position in Kabul as were Shah Soojah and Sir William Macnaghten in 1840. It will be little less than miraculous if the former Englishman succeed in escaping the violent death which fell upon the latter.

Supervening upon blunders of this magnitude comes another peculiarity of British rule in India which has worked incalculable mischief. It is the application of what is known out there as "eye-wash." Many years ago when Lord Lawrence was king he made a tour through the Punjab. Sir Robert Montgomery was at that time Lieutenant-Governor, and his private secretary wrote the chief civil officers at sundry places which the Governor-General was about to visit the following characteristic note:

"Sir: The Governor-General will be at —— on the ——, and you are expected to have the cantonments in first-rate order, particularly roads, drains, and general conservancy—in fact, *eye-wash*. . . . Sir Robert Montgomery is most anxious about the church-steeple. . . . He is anxious to have it well forward when the Governor-General comes. . . ."

This little note expresses the very spirit and outcome of British rule in India. It is a gigantic system of "eye-wash." The ludicrous and ignominious failure of our recent raid into Afghanistan is notorious throughout India. It would be difficult to find in India a single Englishman or an educated native that would not frankly acknowledge this. But it is not for the benefit of the discerning that these liberal applications of "eye-wash" are made. They are for the ignorant public at home. They are intended to provide Indian Secretaries of State with weapons of defence against the assaults of too inquisitive members in the House of Commons. And so the war in Afghanistan is depicted in public despatches as a brilliant success and an immense gain to India.

It is not difficult to understand how profoundly demoralizing is such a system to all who participate in it. Not only is all regard for veracity sapped and destroyed, but the mind loses its hold upon realities altogether, and grows to look upon the administration of a vast empire as a business made up of "cooked" statistics and official reports which are as much works of fiction as the romances of Victor Hugo. The hackneyed simile of the ostrich who hopes to escape from his pursuers by burying his head in the ground, illustrates exactly the attitude of the Indian Government towards the dangers and difficulties which are fast accumulating round it. It has not the courage or the ability to confront and grapple with them; all that it can do is to pretend not to see them, and to utter panegyrics without ceasing upon itself. But incapacity leads, by way of natural consequence, to tyranny and rapacity; the consciousness of failure to an abject terror of criticism. The administration of Lord Lytton is a conspicuous illustration of this. It will be remembered hereafter as that period of our rule in India when all its special shortcomings were exhibited in the greatest perfection. Never before has the Government been so transparently false, never so cruel and rapacious. These are bitter words, but in my next letter I think I shall justify them abundantly. The "Famine in the North-west Provinces," which occurred during the winter of 1877–8, is an occurrence virtually unknown in Europe. This story, if you can allow me space, I will relate in my next letter.

Correspondence.

THE FUTURE VALUE OF LAND IN ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of July 24 you quote Mr. Bright as saying in Parliament, in the debate which led to the appointment of a commission to investigate the causes and remedy for the agricultural depression in England, "It would increase the price of land all over the country if you would abolish all ancient and stupid and mischievous legislation by which it is embarrassed in every step you take in dealing with land." In the same discussion Mr. Chaplin said: "The least price at which American food, including cost of freight and transport, can be supplied there (in England) with profit to the importer," will in future control the price of food. This last proposition, under a continuance of free-trade, is self-evident; but how the price of the land, which is to produce this cheaper food, is to advance, when it is now more than five times the price of our land which competes with it, is not so evident. It has long been a favorite idea of mine that the price of British lands must decline, and that decline will begin, if it has not already begun, when the "stupid and mischievous" legislation by which dealing in land is there embarrassed is abolished —*i.e.*, when the ownership of land ceases to be basis of titles, of social position and political preferment. When English land can be dealt in with the same facility as can our lands, it will be chiefly bought and held at prices on which a fair return for the investment can be made. There are many people and not many acres (as compared with America) in England, and it was but natural that ownership of land should come to be the foundation of the aristocracy when there was but little food importation. But what folly, in this age of cheap transportation, for a tenant farmer to pay £5 per acre per year for land on which to raise potatoes near Edinburgh (as I have seen), when equally good land could be bought here in fee for twice the yearly rent, say $50 per acre, on which potatoes can be grown and shipped to Edinburgh at perhaps no greater cost, counting fertilizers, tithes, etc., than is required to grow them on the Scotch land. That land, estimated by their rule, was worth thirty times its yearly rent, or say $750 per acre.

But this is an extreme case. The average rent of land in England in 1851, when it was cheaper than now, was, according to Mr. Caird, about $6 70 per acre, making it worth at that time, on the average, say $200 per acre, or probably more than eight times the average of equally good land with us. If we bring into the estimate those favored individuals who are raising immense herds of cattle and sheep on the public domain, without a dollar invested in land, the disproportion will be still greater. Present transportation facilities render such relative valuation artificial, and contrary to sound economic law. It is, therefore, only a temporary state of things which makes it expedient for the present few British landowners to receive say one and one-half per cent. revenue from their lands, and about as much more in social position and political preferment. When a vast estate enables an English gentleman to get his younger sons appointed to civil, ecclesiastical, military, and naval positions for life, with better salaries than are paid for the same service in any other country, he can afford, from a business standpoint, to accept a low rent for his land.

When will the British landowner cease to reap these traditional advantages? When he finds that he can't afford to eat his own beef. He can't now, nor his butter, nor cheese, nor indeed scarcely any staple food, except milk, and cream will soon be an exportable article; but it will take him several years to realize it fully. The American dairyman, herdsman,

and grain-grower are working a great revolution in England, not only in the price of food and land but social and political. The Blue Book which holds the report of this royal commission will, if I mistake not, be gloomy reading for the British landowner and encouraging for the American; for the same causes which are at work to bring English land down in price at a rapid rate will bring ours up slowly, because we have so much, and because as a people we have none of the English land sentiment and tradition. One may almost say that with us certain political and social disadvantages attach to owning land; they certainly do to working it. In England landowners make the laws—and good ones they are, as a rule; here lawyers make them.

English tenant farmers, many of whom are now losing money and but few saving, will soon, I believe, emigrate here in large numbers, and will be a valuable acquisition to our population. Conclusion: Mr. Bright had best sell his land now. T. B. B.

Newburgh, N. Y., August, 1879.

ENGLISH STUDIES IN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reply to my comments, in the September *Atlantic*, on our collegiate instruction in the usage of the mother language your correspondent "K." has given a sketch of the Harvard courses of study in that branch of education. Allow me to call his attention to the gross result of these courses, which is that a man may go through Harvard and yet write only twelve themes and eight forensics, or twenty English compositions in forty-eight months. It should be noted, also, that the forensics are properly exercises in research, statement and argumentation, rather than in the handling of the mother tongue. Obviously this amount of practice is very far from sufficient to make a correct and elegant writer. As for the "memorizing of rhetoric," it is well and necessary, no doubt, but it helps little. In mastering a good English style the great secret is writing, much writing, painstaking writing.

Prof. Child's courses in English literature are no doubt worthy of their fame; but they are not exercises in composition, and so do not bear directly on our subject. Of Prof. Hill's elective in advanced rhetoric, with practice in writing and study of the best English authors, I of course approve highly. But both these courses are optionals, while their aim, we are told, is an essential. Whether it would be best to place them among the enforced studies I do not pretend to decide. I should be sorry to see some other branches (Greek and Latin, for instance) less thoroughly taught than they are.

Let me explain, with regard to my comments in the *Atlantic*, that I was not thinking of Harvard alone, nor even of Harvard and Yale alone. J.

Notes.

THE sixth volume of Freeman's 'Norman Conquest,' just published by Macmillan & Co., is wholly devoted to the index, which, with an un-Teutonic disregard of economy and regard for ease of reference, fills 291 pages.——The preliminary matter to the Beedham-Springer 'List of the Reproductions, both imitation and in facsimile, of the Productions of the press of William Caxton, England's First Printer' (New York: Jonathan S. Green) turns out to be quite double the list itself, which contains only eleven numbers. Mr. Beedham's notes generally quote a part of the preface or prospectus of these reproductions, and afford much curious information concerning the modes of making facsimiles. Most noteworthy are the remarks of Mr. G. I. F. Tupper (p. 23) on the superiority of hand-made facsimiles over photographic, which has at first a paradoxical sound. In regard to Caxton's device, Mr. Beedham gives reasons for thinking the central character devoid of significance, as being, for one thing, not peculiar to Caxton. This hardly seems satisfactory. Has it been suggested that this character might be a monogram combined of alpha and omega?——The *Athenæum* announces that Mr. W. B. Scott is about to make a *livre de luxe* of his researches into the history and artistic characteristics of the Little Masters. It will be illustrated by fifteen or twenty autotype copies of their best works. From the same journal we learn of a forthcoming work, by G. W. Marshall, LL.D., of the 'Genealogist's Guide to Printed Pedigrees,' which should prove a companion of Durrie's and Whitmore's indexes in this country. The publishers will be George Bell & Sons. Other new English works are 'Life and Society in America,' by Mr. S. Phillips Day; and a 'Vocabulary of Sea-Words,' in English, French, and German, by Commander Littleton, of the Royal Navy.——No. 81 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society (New York: L. W. Schmidt) contains a review by K. Zöppritz of the most recent American explorations for a ship-canal across the Central American isthmus. A map of the Nicaragua route accompanies the text.——B. Westermann & Co. are the American agents for *La Semaine Française*, a weekly journal published in London, and obtainable here at the subscription price of $7 per year, or correspondingly for six months. The thirty-seventh number before us bears date of August 13. Its contents are obviously regulated for English readers, and its great variety ensures entertainment. All the fine arts have niches, and the "Passe-temps grammatical," "La Mode," "Économie domestique," "Échecs," etc., will attract their respective devotees. The musical critic is Camille Saint-Saëns.——M. Ernest Leroux, a young but very active French publisher, gives notice of the early publication of three new periodicals under the following titles: *Revue Égyptologique*, edited by Brugsch-Bey, Chabas, Revillout; *Revue de l'histoire des religions*, edited by E. Guimet; and *Archives de l'Orient latin*, under the direction of the society of that name——We would direct the attention of such of our readers as are desirous of assisting in the spread of sound financial doctrine to a not bulky pamphlet on 'The Contraction of the Currency,' laboriously compiled by the editor of the Detroit *Post and Tribune*, and published and gratuitously distributed by the Honest Money League of the Northwest, whose headquarters are in Chicago. The information comprised in its tables is not easily accessible, and the exposure of the contraction fallacy is irresistible. The League will furnish it on application.

—The widow of the late Edward Moxon, the original publisher of Lamb, Wordsworth, and Tennyson, has in her possession a portrait of Charles Lamb, by Hazlitt, which her present circumstances induce her to desire to sell. It has not only the interest which attaches to all Hazlitt's work, but the interest of resemblance to its subject, which in this instance is of course great. At least Mrs. Moxon vouches for its merits as a portrait, and she was a great friend of Lamb's in her early years and figures in Talfourd's 'Memorials' as "Emma Isola." The price asked is $300. It is certainly safe to say that the benefactors of our public galleries have frequently paid a much larger sum for a less interesting work. Mrs. Moxon's address is 34 Buckingham Road, Brighton, Sussex, England.

—Unusual interest attaches to the September number of the *Magazine of American History*. The opening paper, by the Rev. B. F. De Costa, treats of the Lenox Globe, a tiny affair, but apparently entitled to the distinction of being "the oldest post-Columbian globe now known to geographers" or "that shows any portion of the New World," and "the oldest instrument of any kind showing the entire continent of South America," or "that the discoveries of Columbus formed no part of the Asiatic continent, and that America was absolutely 'Mvndvs Novvs,' or the New World." A facsimile representation of the globe at scale enables the reader to judge of the plausibility of Mr. De Costa's conjectures, which to us do seem plausible. A dislocated island near Madagascar he makes do duty for Australia. The second paper has for its title "The Old Stone Mill at Newport—Construction *versus* Theory." The writer, Mr. George C. Mason, Jr., made a careful survey of this building last October, with a firm belief in the theory advanced by the late Mr. Hatfield in *Scribner's*, viz., that the mill was the remains of a Norman baptistery. We pointed out at the time what we considered the weak points in Mr. Hatfield's argument, and our objections are fully confirmed by Mr. Mason, who convinced himself that the fireplace and windows are part of the original construction, and discovered that, besides the first floor above the arches, a second floor existed, connected by a flight of stairs with the lower, as is shown by the holes left to receive the ends of the treads. Into the technical evidence advanced in support of these statements we cannot go far, but it is conclusive. The fireplace was found to have two flues, one in each corner, which seems most improbable as an afterthought; besides which the southern flue is perfectly pargeted with a mortar identical with that used in the construction of the piers, and with mortar used in the dwelling-house and tomb of Governor Arnold, the owner of the Mill. This personage, who owned a so-called Leamington farm, had resided in England not far from the Leamington (Warwickshire) mill, of which the shape is circular, and the construction (upon arches) as like that of the Newport structure as cut stone can resemble rubble. It is suggested that the latter may have been built to replace the wooden windmill blown down in 1675. Mr. Mason furnishes diagrams and elevations to enforce his points, and his paper is so creditable to his

professional acuteness that one almost regrets it did not appear in the *American Architect*.

—The "Confession of an Agnostic" in the current number of the *North American Review* suggests an interesting question respecting the possibility of immorality in reasoning, or rather, in methods of persuasion. Is it morally right for the opponent of a sect to personate one of its members for the purpose of describing its tenets and results in such a way as to make them distasteful? The so-called confession is signed "An Agnostic," and purports to be written by an agnostic, but it is designed to disgust the reader with the irreligion of the day, and is understood to be the work of a distinguished divine of the Presbyterian Church. Is this a legitimate stratagem of warfare, or is it to be classified with the act of signing another man's name to a confession of crime? Suppose that Colonel "Bob" Ingersoll should prepare an article purporting to be a description of the creed of a Presbyterian by the Presbyterian himself, but skilfully arranged to disgust the reader with religion and bring religious doctrines into ridicule, and should sign it "A Presbyterian," would that be right? We should like to see the religious press discuss this question, and would set so high value, for example, on Dr. McCosh's opinion as to be quite ready to subordinate our own to it. A strong reason for wishing the question decided is that the article alluded to seems to be one of a series, in which the anonymous writer is personating the various irreligious sects of the day in succession.

—The Historical Dictionary of the English language which the Philological Society has had in hand for more than twenty years is at last to be published. The Delegates of the Clarendon Press, in the University of Oxford, have assumed the entire financial responsibility of the publication. Dr. Murray, the President of the Society, has undertaken to edit it with a corps of sub-editors. A first part of four hundred pages, containing the letter A, is to be ready in 1882, and the rest to follow in the course of ten years, if possible. The raw material for the work consists of quotations illustrating the use of all the English words by all writers of all ages, and in all senses. These are written according to a uniform plan, each on a slip of paper of the size of half a sheet of note-paper. An appeal was made in January, 1859, to the English and American public to assist in making these quotations. Dr. Murray finds some two tons' weight of slips accumulated. In the earliest period, where the books are few, the work is fairly done or promised, but in the later centuries many books remain untouched. A new "Appeal" is now issued for help. A thousand readers are asked for to complete the reading, and send in the slips within the next three years. For American readers American books are left. Hardly any have been touched. Dr. Murray has also, with generous confidence in American scholars, left them the unfinished books of the eighteenth century. At least four or five hundred American readers are needed in order to accomplish thoroughly so soon what is thus allotted to them. Any one can help, especially with modern books. Dr. Murray's pupils have supplied him with five thousand good quotations during the past month. But of course persons who have access to original editions of authors of the eighteenth century, and who have some scholastic preparation for the work, must do the most important part of it.

—A few specimens of the slips will give a clear idea of the nature of the reader's work. The earliest slip for any word should give its first appearance in English literature. Thus, the earliest slip yet turned up for the word *castle* is found to read as follows:

Castle, sb. *obsolete.* A village.
1000. *Cott. Gosp.*, Matt. xxi. 2.
Farath on thaet castel.

This indicates that the word first appears in the year 1000, in the Cottonian Gospels, in Matthew xxi. 2, with the spelling *castel*, and meaning *a village*. American readers will not get first slips for words of that age; but let them not despair—many words are younger. For *arrow-root* the earliest slip yet made is as follows:

Arrow-root, sb. Food prepared from Maranta starch.
1848. THACKERAY, *Vanity Fair* (ed. 1853), ch. xxxix., p. 340.
They smooth pillows; and make Arrow-root.

This, it seems, appeared originally in 1848, but was read in an edition of 1853. The first appearance of *affinition* is as follows:

Affinition, sb.
1879 W. D. HOWELLS, *The Lady of the Aroostook*, ch. xiv., p. 165.
By some infinitely subtle and unconscious affinition she relaxed toward him.

A reader of Bancroft's 'History' noted 2,000 words suspected of there making their first appearance. But it is not only first appearances that are wanted. Readers are requested to make a quotation for *every* word that strikes them as "rare, obsolete, old-fashioned, new, peculiar, or used in a peculiar way."

Agrin, adv.
1879. W. D. HOWELLS, *The Lady of the Aroostook*, ch. viii., p. 80.
Half the ship's company . . . were there silently agrin.

Ethnic, adj.
1879. W. D. HOWELLS, *The Lady of the Aroostook*, ch. viii., p. 81.
The cook's respect having been won back through his ethnic susceptibility to silver.

Phrases and proverbs are to be carefully quoted:

Bacon, sb. *To save one's bacon.*
1698. MILTON, *Defens. Populi*, trans., p. 561.
He was resolved to take a course like the soldier in Terence, to save his Bacon.

Form, sb. *To be good form.*
1879. W. D. HOWELLS, *The Lady of the Aroostook*, ch. xxiii., p. 259.
Your voice was too good to be good form—that's an expression you must get—it means everything.

But sometimes readers will go through a book without finding anything rare or extraordinary. They are reminded that the Dictionary is to contain all words, ordinary and extraordinary, and that a quotation in each century is wanted for every sense or construction of every word. Each reader is therefore requested to give quotations for common words in their common senses, whenever good, apt, pithy, short sentences containing them occur.

Diplomatist, sb.
1860. J. L. MOTLEY, *United Netherlands* (ed. 1868), I., ii., 24.
If diplomatic adroitness consists mainly in the power to deceive, never were more adroit diplomatists than those of the sixteenth century.

—Minute directions to readers are printed, and will be sent to any persons who ask for them; and there are lists of books of the eighteenth century which are specially wanted, and some other printed matter. Considerable correspondence is needed to explain and to arrange, so that the same book may not be undertaken by many persons. Readers in the United States are notified by Dr. Murray that "they will save time by first communicating with Prof. F. A. March, of Lafayette College, Easton, Pennsylvania, whom," he says, "we have asked to organize and guide the work of our American friends." It will save a letter or two to each, a thousand letters in all, if all volunteers or enquirers will mention in their first note the titles of four or five books which they have at hand and incline to take, so that a selection may at once be made. If original editions of eighteenth-century books are to be had, those are to be preferred; if not, American authors of other date are to be taken. Early books of travel, law, or records are to be sought, in which the names of American objects, acts, habits, relations are likely to have made their first appearance, and, of course, later books of the same kind. We must read the works of our great statesmen, lawyers, and theologians, and of our men of science, as well as our poets, novelists, and historians. The Dictionary will be one of the great books of the world, a standard work for many generations. American authors should be fully represented in it. One thing more. The readers cannot be paid in money. Dr. Murray mentions that he will pay their postages, and will furnish slips for those who wish them. He has copies of a few books to give to those who read them, and the reference-list of books at the end of the dictionary will record the names of their readers. His address is Mill Hill, Middlesex, N.W., England.

—After a long period of inactivity the theatrical world began towards the end of August to show signs of renewed life. At Wallack's a "preliminary season" was invented to afford an opportunity for the appearance of Mr. J. T. Raymond in Mr. George F. Rowe's play of "Wolfert's Roost." His part is that of *Ichabod Crane*, but, beyond a similarity of names here and there, it is difficult to detect any connection between the play and Washington Irving's "Legend of Sleepy Hollow." Shakspere took a great many of his best plots from the current literature of his day, without putting himself to the trouble of communicating the fact to the public; and it is difficult to see why modern dramatists should not follow his example, unless, indeed, it be that with the modesty of their profession they hope that their own merits may be enhanced by the association with an established reputation. "Wolfert's Roost," however, is decidedly the product of Mr. Rowe's own genius, and it may be questioned whether it is quite fair that it should be fathered on Irving even "in part." The play is of a school for which a name has been for some time wanting, and for which we might suggest that of Rustic or Cheerful Melodrama. There is a designing villain, a damnable plot involving the peace of mind of the heroine, *Katrina Van Tassel*, an act of arson in the first degree, an ardent lover, whose life is supposed to be lost, but who turns up at the end in a transparent disguise as the avenger of the piece; on the other hand, the action of the play takes place chiefly on old Van Tassel's farm, and we are surrounded from first to last by green

grass, and gentle domestic affections, and pleasant fireside "sets," which produce an effect not satisfactorily expressed by the general term melodrama alone. There can be no doubt that *Ichabod Crane*, as played by Mr. Raymond, is a comic character, though it is perhaps open to the objection of being considerably burlesqued. Mr. Raymond is an excellent actor, but he has become of late a "one-character" actor; and for a "one-character" actor to recover his versatility is almost an unheard-of thing. The scenery of "Wolfert's Roost" is unusually good; a better theatrical picture than that afforded by the interior in the fifth act, with the old Dutch farmer (capitally done by Mr. Shannon) and "Brom Bones" for *dramatis personæ*, we have seldom seen.

—At the Park Theatre Miss Marion Darcy has made her first appearance in a drama put down as "new and emotional," called a "Living Statue." Like all emotional plays, its success depends mainly on the acting, though this of course may be reinforced by careful dressing. Miss Darcy is a young lady with whose name we are not familiar, but who may be suspected of being a child of the boundless prairie. English is with her clearly a comparatively recent acquisition; and, though she has made much progress, she has not altogether mastered it. But a somewhat extensive acquaintance with the American stage has convinced us that what the American people care for is not pronunciation, but genius. Such an actor as Mr. H. Dalton, for instance, who plays the part of *David* in "A Living Statue," habitually substitutes "reel" for "real," changes "orphan" to "off'n," makes "presteedge" out of "prestige," and in many other ways shows a spirit superior to rule. It would clearly, however, be a waste of his time to correct such trifling errors, for the audience passes them by unnoticed, and, whatever reformers may think, it will be a long time before actors, who are not paid to do it, undertake to exert an educating effect upon the audiences to whom they play. Governmental aid to the stage is hardly practicable in New York, but it may interest lovers of the drama to speculate upon what the probable dramatic results might be if the Park Theatre were subsidized by Mr. John Kelly.

—Under favoring circumstances the Egyptian obelisk known as Cleopatra's Needle may be expected to arrive at this port by the end of the present year. Already the ponderous constructions for lowering and embarking it, specially manufactured at Trenton, have been shipped to Alexandria *via* Liverpool, while the able naval commander who has, at his own request, been detailed for the work and has designed the means that will be employed, is now on his way to Trieste in quest of the timber necessary for blocking, beds, and ties. Unlike its sister obelisk, the Needle will be brought over in the hold of a steamer, into which it will be introduced through the bow port; the listing of the vessel being overcome by careening-lighters prepared for heaving down on the opposite side, and its sinking under these combined weights being neutralized by pumping out the water-ballast compartments. The operations of unloading and of erecting the obelisk in New York will be the reverse of loading and lowering, and will be effected by precisely the same apparatus. The name of the public-spirited citizen who has guaranteed the expense of transportation is as yet a profound secret, but it is well understood that for obtaining the gift of the obelisk from the late Khedive—an act confirmed by his successor—as well as securing the money for its removal, the city is indebted to the persistent efforts of Mr. Hurlbert, editor of the *World*.

—Dr. Isaac Taylor, apparently undaunted by his late sharp passage-at-arms with Mr. Newton upon the genuineness of the Castellani sarcophagus (see *Academy* for February and March), now offers a fresh contribution to knowledge—'Greeks and Goths: A Study on the Runes' (Macmillan & Co.) Briefly stated, the author's position is this: the Runes were derived not from the Latin alphabet, but from the Greek, more especially the Thracian form during the pre-Christian period when Greek and Goth were in close contact in the regions between the Danube and the Dnieper. By way of appendix we get the theory that the so-called Ogham (Irish) characters are borrowed from the Runic Futhorc. This matter of the Oghams we leave to the professed Celtic scholar, but as regards the relations between Greek and Goth we must protest against Dr. Taylor's total want of method and insight. Not only is he unacquainted with the latest researches into the development of Germanic speech—*e.g.*, Verner's now celebrated essay in Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*, xxiii. 97—but we doubt if he even fully understands the old-established principles laid down by Grimm and Schleicher. Thus, 'Grimm's Law,' which is nothing more than the statement of a phenomenon or set of phenomena, is constantly used by the author as if it were a mathematical formula adapted to solve all sorts of problems. It is, on the contrary, itself the problem to be solved. And then what shall we say of a scholar who writes (p. 79), "The tendency of gutturals to weaken into breaths and vowels is illustrated by the development of the Greek breaths and vowels out of the Semitic gutturals." Does Dr. Taylor really mean to say that Greek breaths and vowels are developed out of Semitic gutturals? or merely that the *signs* for Greek vowels are modifications of the *signs* for Semitic gutturals? If the former, he is uttering sheer nonsense; if the latter, his words are not only intolerably careless, but they fail to prove anything. What has the history of a purely conventional matter like an alphabet to do with the history of speech-sounds which are subject to definite laws? What is to prevent us from spelling "head" "hed," or even "'ed"? Yet all the conferences and spelling reformers in the country could not force a single man to confound in *pronunciation* "head" and "heed."

—Admirers of Sainte-Beuve will be neither edified nor greatly instructed by a work which is being generally discussed by the Continental press, 'Sainte-Beuve et ses inconnues,' by A. J. Pons. Mr. Pons was for some time the great critic's secretary, and thus necessarily informed of many of his master's private affairs, all of which, so far as they relate to women, he here narrates for the benefit of the public, which is thus favored with a long chronicle of the worst kind of scandal. Of all the criticisms of the book the most interesting is probably that of the novelist Zola, who makes Sainte-Beuve's life the text of some general reflections, none the less noticeable from the evident *arrière-pensée* of the writer. "When an author is audacious in ideas and words, and his work burns with the fire of life, then," says M. Zola, "the public will deem him a man obscene and immoral." On the other hand, when, in treating certain subjects, a writer displays "calm and lassitude, drapes his ideas in gauze, and talks of chastity," he is supposed to lead a clean life and to set a good example. Sainte-Beuve, according to Zola, is but one more proof of the fact that a judgment resting upon such appearances is sure to be wrong.

SEELEY'S LIFE AND TIMES OF STEIN.*

I.

PROFESSOR SEELEY has not the genius of an historian. The first of all traits by which historical talent is marked is the capacity for narrative, and Mr. Seeley, though endowed with great literary skill, though conscientious in working up his subject, and though fertile in theories which, if they sometimes are little better than ingenious paradoxes, are also at times worthy to be called original and instructive speculations, has not the power which, simple as it seems, is in truth a very rare endowment, of telling a complicated tale in an orderly and lucid manner so as to bring into view the main outlines of a subject. Throughout the whole of his 'Life of Stein' readers will find much valuable information about Prussian institutions; they will find many facts about Stein; what they will not find is a history of Prussia or a biography of the great Prussian minister. "Here," writes Mr. Seeley, "the extract must be interrupted, for new matter for reflection is before us." This sentence, if you change one word, describes the whole work: "Here the history must be interrupted, for new matter for reflection is before us." The so-called "Life" is, in fact, a mixture of history and biography, in which the course of the narrative is constantly broken by the necessity of "stopping a turn" to listen to Mr. Seeley's reflections. His speculations are fatal to his story, but they have sufficient ingenuity to deserve consideration, and the fair mode of dealing with his book is to consider it as the work not so much of an historian as of an historical theorist, and to examine with candor and attention the nature and worth of his historical speculations.

Nor is it hard to select from among the views which crowd his pages the theory by which the merit or demerit of his work ought to be judged. The real theme of the book is neither Stein nor Prussia, but the rise and development of what Mr. Seeley terms the Anti-Napoleonic Revolution of Europe. This move is, in his view, something much more than merely the rising against Napoleon of a great European coalition, by which the Emperor's power is ultimately overthrown; for the anti-Napoleonic revolution is, in our author's eyes, the commencement of the great change of sentiment and policy which distinguishes the movements of the nineteenth from those of the eighteenth century. It is the first outbreak of the passion for nationality opposed to the sentiment of cosmopolitanism.

* 'Life and Times of Stein; or, Germany and Prussia in the Napoleonic Age. By J. R. Seeley, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge.' London, 1879. Boston: Roberts Bros.

The struggle, commenced in Spain, continued in Russia, carried to its conclusion by Russia, Germany, and England combined, is on this view a new and on the whole nobler revolution, by which the spirit of the French revolution is first met and then overthrown. Of the truth and the worth of Professor Seeley's theory we may say something in a future article. Justice to one of the ablest writers of the day demands that we should, to the best of our ability, state how that theory stands as put forward by its author.

The point from which his work starts, though characteristically enough not brought into view till the first chapter of his second volume, is the Spanish Revolution, which gave the fortunes of Napoleon their first serious check. Mr. Seeley shows how striking this first repulse was, and how difficult in some respects a thoughtful historian even now finds it to account for the sudden break-down of the Napoleonic policy. Spain was the weakest of nations, and yet Spain in her weakness was far more dangerous to Napoleon than the whole power of Prussia and of Austria. To propound the paradox that the mightiest of empires was brought low by the feeblest of nations, and to show that the seeming paradox admits of lucid explanation, is a task exactly fitting Professor Seeley's talents. He finds the solution of what to many writers appears little less than a providential miracle not in any heaven-sent madness disturbing Napoleon's clearness of vision, for his calculations, though daring, were by no means insane; not in any special military aptitude of the Spaniards, for, though Spanish insurgents fought well, Spanish armies were at least as much hindrance as use to their English allies; but in the fact that Napoleon at the head of an empire met, for the first time, with the strength of a nation, and that the weakest of nations has in it elements of force not to be found in the strongest of states which is not inspired with the spirit of nationality. Hence, at the beginning of this century, the marked contrast between Spain and the Italian or German States which had succumbed, first to the revolutionary leaders and next to Napoleon:

"Spain was Spain, but those Italian and German states were not Italy and Germany, but only *in* Italy and Germany. How momentous this difference is we do not now require to be told; it is the peculiar political lesson of the nineteenth century. But it was not dreamt of in Napoleon's political science that the state which is also a nation is an organism far surpassing in vigor and vitality the state which is only a state. . . . The German States, I have said, were only *in* Germany, but the Spanish State was Spain; the state and the nation were in a manner convertible terms; this is as much as to say that all the feelings of kinship or clanship were in Spain enlisted in the defence of the Government, whereas in Germany the same feelings had no relation whatever to the Government."

This sentiment of clannishness existed in its highest form in Spain:

"The result of this was that when the Spanish Government in its corruption and feebleness was entirely unable to resist Napoleon, it was discovered that no such consequences followed as in Italy and Germany. When the state fell to pieces the nation held together, and proceeded to put forth out of its own vitality a new form of state. When the work seemed to Napoleon finished it was found to be barely commenced; when he had surmounted all the obstacles which he had foreseen, another obstacle presented itself which he had never imagined. This obstacle was not only insurmountable, but in its total effect it proved fatal to Napoleon's Empire. . . . It is this Spanish Revolution which, when it has extended to the other countries, we call the Anti-Napoleonic Revolution of Europe. It gave Europe years of unparalleled bloodshed, but at the same time years over which there broods a light of poetry; for no conception can be more profoundly poetical than that which now woke up in every part of Europe—the conception of a nation. Those years also led the way to the great movements which have filled so much of the nineteenth century, and have rearranged the whole central part of the map of Europe on a more natural system."

The uprising of Europe against Napoleon, looked upon as the beginning of a new revolution, gives a new character both to men and to events. Stein himself becomes the embodiment of German patriotism. This is clearly the light in which the German statesman mainly interests Mr. Seeley. Stein's land laws, his administrative reforms, his whole action as a Prussian official, fall into the background, whilst his activity in Russia, his attempts to organize a great German movement, his hostility to France, his dislike of, to use his own term, metapolitics—that is, the metaphysical as opposed to the historical or practical view of political science—his zeal in promoting the study of German history, even his leaning toward Catholicism, are brought into great prominence as the characteristic traits of the minister who was at once a reformer and at the same time the unyielding opponent of French policy. What Stein was in practical life that, in Professor Seeley's view, was Fichte in the realm of speculation. The one struggled through his whole career against every kind of policy which menaced or seemed to menace German nationality; the other taught to his class in a philosophic form the doctrine of nationality, and connected the doctrine with the far nobler and more permanent truth that the source of national life was to be found in a true system of education. In his addresses to the German nation "is heard the tocsin of the Anti-Napoleonic Revolution and of all the Nationality Wars that were to follow," for "Fichte proclaims the nation not only to be different from the state, but to be something far higher and greater."

If Stein and Fichte are the representatives of the German revolution in virtue of their full sympathy with national patriotism, the true character of the anti-Napoleonic movement is illustrated by the attitude of eminent Germans unable to enter into its spirit. Much has been said of Goethe's so-called want of patriotism during the War of Liberation, and friends and foes have put forward various theories to account for the fact that by far the most eminent of modern Germans was, to say the least, cool in the cause which roused the enthusiasm of his countrymen throughout the length and breadth of Germany. Goethe's position is, however, on Mr. Seeley's view, not to be explained or attacked as one peculiar to the great writer himself. Goethe's genius made his course of action conspicuous to all men, but he acted and felt in the matter of the War of Liberation in the manner which was natural to any man imbued with the spirit of the eighteenth century, and which in fact characterized the conduct of other men less distinguished than the author of 'Faust,' but still persons of mark in their day. The perfectly genuine belief that patriotism or national feeling was a narrow sentiment, unsuitable for philanthropists or philosophers, and that such a sentiment ought, especially in Germany, to be subordinated to interest in humanity, to zeal for science, and generally to the love of culture, was a characteristic not of one man but of one generation. The person who above all others represents in Mr. Seeley's pages the spirit of cosmopolitan philanthropy and of zeal for culture, as contrasted with the spirit of national patriotism and zeal for liberty, is Dalberg, Archbishop of Mainz. His name, never perhaps well known to the English or American public, has now, outside of Germany at least, become utterly forgotten; yet he was in the day of his greatness at least as well known as Stein. Of the fair side of his character the best monument is to be found in these words of Humboldt:

"I have a really strong wish to see Dalberg's character—which . . . was quite unique in his age—rescued from oblivion and depicted for posterity. . . . He must be shown, where he was really unique, in the great nobleness of his feelings and views, the infinite grace, the susceptible temperament, the inexhaustible abundance in provocatives to ideas, even if ideas did not actually come out of them (whence also came his wit), in his freedom from all petty considerations."

The history of this model of all the virtues (and, whatever were Dalberg's defects, he was certainly no hypocrite) is recorded in Mr. Seeley's work. The archbishop's kindliness, his general beneficence, his pre-eminent success in fulfilling the duties of a paternal ruler, the admiration which he excited in some of the best minds of Germany, his political weaknesses, his gradual subjection to the influence of Napoleon, the mode in which he became a tool in the hands of the foreign despot who oppressed his country, his fall from power at the very time when Stein stood before all Germans as the incarnation of victorious patriotism, are set forth in the 'Life and Times of Stein' with all Mr. Seeley's literary power, and with all the force given by an element of perhaps unintended but nevertheless cutting satire. For Dalberg is in very truth, as painted in Mr. Seeley's pages, the incarnation of that spirit which, even seen from its best side, is clearly as hateful to Stein's biographer as it was to Stein himself, and Dalberg's fall is made to appear not so much the mere failure of a weak man to act up to his own ideal, as the moral defeat of mere philanthropy and love of culture by the new-born spirit of national patriotism.

STICKNEY'S TRUE REPUBLIC.*

MR. STICKNEY'S book is one that will set people thinking more and more on the present defects of parliamentary government, not in the United States only but all over the world. He describes these defects, by the aid of illustrations both from English history and from our own, with great clearness and vigor. Every man who takes any interest in politics knows what they are, though probably few could have made out the list with Mr. Stickney's terseness and incisiveness. Parliamentary government has been converted into party government, and party has become a combination not for the promotion of certain legislative measures, but for the purpose of effecting a new distribution of the offices. This is true in a certain degree of England, though the disease is there kept down by fixity of tenure in the subordinate places in the public service,

*'A True Republic. By Albert Stickney.' New York: Harper Bros. 1879.

and by the infrequency of parliamentary elections. But the efficiency of the Government is, as has often been remarked, seriously interfered with by the dependence of the ministry on its success in retaining a party majority in the House of Commons, and by the fact that members of the Cabinet have to pass a large part of the time which should be devoted to purely executive duties in defending themselves in debate against party attacks. In the United States the perversion of party has, as every one knows, reached the dimensions of a plague, all offices being held for short terms, and being offered as prizes for party success at the polls, with the result that "politics" has ceased to be a name for the aggregate of public affairs, and denotes simply speculation as to the probable results of the next State or Federal election. When a man is "talking politics" he is not discussing any question affecting the public welfare; he is discussing the chances for office of certain persons. A "politician" is not a legislator, or a jurist, or an economist, or a financier; he is simply a man who is skilful in carrying elections, or who has the means of foretelling how elections will go. In fact, parties are completely divorced from measures of all kinds. No party, when it comes into power, is expected to embody in legislation any of the ideas embodied in its platform. The platform is simply a manifesto intended to help in carrying the election, but to which no one thinks of referring after the election is over. So, too, the man skilful in electioneering has become the mighty man of our time. He may be grossly ignorant of everything a legislator ought to know, and be utterly untrustworthy in private life, but at conventions and caucuses he has the bearing of a great ruler, and treats the wisest heads in the nation, the most skilful specialists, the clearest thinkers, and most experienced administrators, with a sort of good-natured contempt. In fact, about election time the most authoritative voices in the land, those of which the ring is loudest, and which are most eagerly listened to, often come from persons with whom a respectable man does not care to have any dealings in business, and to whose opinion on any public concern no serious-minded man would think of giving five minutes' attention.

The disease, too, has worked down into all classes of the people. Most men under fifty, and the great body of foreigners who have come to the country since 1850, firmly believe that free government means frequent elections, and that the more elections there are the better the government must be. When the rich and well-to-do, too, are reproached, as they so often are in the newspapers, with not giving more time to their political duties, what is meant is, not that they are not sufficiently interested in the trade and commerce of the country, or in its revenue, or in its administration of justice, or its foreign relations, and do not discuss them enough, but that they do not go more constantly to caucuses to help to nominate people for office, and are not more industrious in getting voters to vote candidates into office. Two-thirds, too, of the editorial space of the newspapers is taken up either with extravagant praise or blame of candidates, and with spreading stories or views of political opponents which will be likely to affect the election which is always near at hand. The evil, which would have proved a serious burden for a small agricultural community with idle winters, like that which fought the Revolutionary War, has become an intolerable burden for a rich, busy community like that of our day, with a vast population, and a trade, commerce, and manufactures which are assuming gigantic proportions. Mr. Stickney only speaks the thoughts of thousands of patriotic men when he asks how much longer the country can be governed by such machinery.

The changes Mr. Stickney suggests will probably be considered startling by most of his readers, though they consist of nothing more than the application to public business of the principles and methods by which private business is carried on. He would have the President or chief executive officer and the legislature elected by popular suffrage, but nobody else. The President should appoint heads of departments, and they their subordinates. All officers should hold office during good behavior, and their superiors should be charged with the duty of removing them when incompetent. Even the President would be removable in like case, by the legislature, on a two-thirds vote. The legislators, too, should hold office during good behavior; and it is shown by an examination of the terms of the judges that this would amount in practice to about twelve years' tenure—that is, that in about every twelve years the legislature would be entirely renewed, inasmuch as a man would not generally be elected to such an important office as that of a legislator would then be, until he had reached, or nearly reached, middle life, and had had time to give proofs of capacity in other fields. These changes would, of course, make elections rare, or would, at all events, put an end to electioneering as a profession, and compel men in public life to give attention to public questions.

In support of his plan Mr. Stickney points out that parties, except at very great crises, occupy themselves simply with office-getting; that office-holding for short terms makes every office-holder, from the President down, perforce a professional electioneering agent; that the fact that his place will be vacant at a certain date creates a great army of competitors for it, who seek it also through electioneering; that this same knowledge that he has not long to serve makes everybody, including the office-holder himself, indifferent to the manner in which he discharges his duties, and weakens the sense of responsibility; that it prevents, for like reasons, the presence in our legislatures of the only men who are competent for legislative work, and deprives the public business of the benefit of the experience of the most experienced men of the nation; that the passion for short terms is a tradition of the period when the main business of legislative assemblies was to fight the crown and resist its exactions, and when constituents were in constant fear of their members selling them out or joining the court party; but it is absurd now, when the sole duty of the legislature is to see that public affairs are properly administered and supply machinery therefor.

We cordially recommend the book to the perusal of those to whom politics is a serious subject. We can hardly call it a plan of reform, because the chance of any adoption of its suggestions is too remote; but it is certainly an excellent and important contribution to the body of grave, we will not say alarmed, reflection which the present working of party government in the United States is causing among all classes and conditions. If the changes it recommends were surer of serious popular consideration we should perhaps indulge in detailed criticism. As it is we shall confine ourselves to remarking that the author ignores one of the most effective causes of the evils he combats, namely, the passionate ambition for political office by which the bulk of men in every community are animated. It is this which does most to make party government what it is. It is this which prevents the administration of any government on a purely business basis. As a matter of fact men do not desire good government pure and simple; they desire as much good government as is consistent with the gratification of their personal ambition, or vanity, or self-interest, or love of their friends, and with their desire to see their enemies humiliated or foiled, and their prophecies, whether of good or evil, fulfilled. The idea that government is business, a most serious business, has lost much of any hold it ever had on the popular mind. To restore it to its proper place among political ideas may seem a long and difficult task, but it is the one to which American reformers must now address themselves, and there is nobody but will feel encouraged about it by the strong and hopeful tone of Mr. Stickney's book, coming, as it does, from a professional man, who has no interest in the subject but that of love of his country.

FROUDE'S CÆSAR.*

MR. FROUDE'S 'Cæsar' shows all his excellences and all his defects as an historian. That he is the most graphic and brilliant of the historians of the day will probably be conceded by all; that he has a genuine historical sense—a capacity to see clearly and appreciate the leading ideas of a period, and to trace their relations—is, we think, no less true, and we shall endeavor to point out his substantial merits in this regard in the work before us. But these high excellences are joined with a carelessness of statement, and a laxity in weighing evidence, that make it impossible to trust him as an historian should be trusted. The historical sense is not enough; it is only a *capacity*. The person who possesses it is able, when he is sure of his facts, to combine those facts into an instructive picture. But without the most painstaking study of the evidence, his combinations will be nothing but possibilities, or at best probabilities; he must have also the industry of the antiquarian joined to a power of clear, logical reasoning, and a conscientious devotion to truth for its own sake; all these qualities are necessary to convert his probabilities into certainties.

Now, Mr. Froude's inaccuracy is, after all that has been said, a constant surprise. One can hardly read a page without questioning some statement—as overdrawn or distorted, even if not positively untrue. To be sure, these errors are often slight, and generally about unessential points of detail, so as not to interfere with the general correctness of his views; nevertheless, when we find that a writer is habitually inaccu-

* 'Cæsar: A Sketch. By James Anthony Froude, M.A., formerly Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879. 8vo, pp. 550.

rate in trifles, we cannot know where it is safe to follow him. He who is not faithful in little things will not be faithful in great things. A few examples will illustrate this fault: We are told on page 24 that Tiberius Gracchus "was chosen tribune in the year 133"; it was *in* 134 and *for* 133. On page 29 precisely the same error occurs in relation to Caius's tribunate. On the next page is the statement: "All cases of importance, civil or criminal, came before courts of sixty or seventy jurymen, who, as the law stood, must be necessarily senators." Now, civil cases never came before such a court; and at the time in question (B.C. 123) there was only one class of criminal cases—those of *Repetundæ* (Extortion in the Provinces)—that was thus administered. It is stated (p. 48): "the Senate might have appointed him [Marius] Dictator, but would not." But the Senate had no power to appoint a dictator, this was exclusively the function of the consul (or magistrate with *imperium*); only once (B.C. 217), in the absence of the consul, a dictator was irregularly elected by the people. It is said (p. 82) that, after the battle of the Colline Gate (Nov., 82), "Sertorius fled to Spain"—where he had been already several months; if he had been still in Italy, perhaps Sulla would not have gained so easy a victory. We read (p. 127) "Cicero was prætor this year, and was thus himself a senator." But a seat in the Senate was given by the quæstorship, which office Cicero had held nine years before (B.C. 75). On page 138, "he [Cæsar] had not aspired to the tribunate." Of course not, for he was a patrician of the bluest blood, and the tribunate could be held by none but plebeians. When Cæsar presents himself for the chief pontificate, he is said (p. 140) to aspire to be "Pope of Rome"!—as if the two dignities had anything in common but their name and their exercise of ecclesiastical functions.

But, in spite of all this blundering, Mr. Froude has made a sketch which is generally correct, not merely in its outlines (the main facts are, of course, undisputed) but in its leading conceptions. Perhaps there is no better—there certainly is no more graphic—sketch of the misgovernment of the Senate and the aspirations of the popular party. The leading politicians, too, are well depicted, except where the writer's eagerness to vindicate Cæsar makes him partial in his judgments; Marius, for example, Cæsar's uncle and the leader of his party, is systematically whitewashed, while Lucius Lucullus, no doubt a thorough aristocrat and pleasure-lover, is, wholly without evidence, represented as being the venal commander described by Cicero in the thirteenth chapter of his oration for the Manilian Law. And, whether he is always right or not, the observations of a man like Mr. Froude upon the fall of the Roman Republic must be worth reading. As to the main purpose of the book, to depict Cæsar as the greatest man of history, and his work as an indispensable and beneficent one, we shall perhaps not differ from Mr. Froude, except in certain limitations. He himself says, in his preface, that "the materials do not exist for a portrait which shall be at once authentic and complete"; much less, then, for a complete survey of his career and work. That Cæsar, as a man, deserves on the whole the praise which Mr. Froude gives him, we have no doubt. As to his work—the conversion of the Republic into an Empire—a distinction must be made. It is not difficult to show that the Roman republic had outgrown its constitution; that stands confessed. It is not merely that the city type was not adapted to the administration of a world-empire; the city constitution itself had long ceased to develop with the growth of the city. The history of the Roman constitution is the history of a series of compromises, by which the most fatal defects were superficially glossed over; new needs were not met by large and statesmanlike measures, but by cheap devices which would help over the immediate crisis, yet would not guard against future mischiefs. The old bottle was made to serve for the new wine, and repeated patching did not prevent its bursting at last. To mention only two of the most glaring cases—what large state could endure a magistracy armed with a medley of powers so enormous and so irresponsible as those of the tribunate; or to have its chief executive authority capriciously distributed among a varying number of consuls, proconsuls, prætors and proprætors? The constitution imperatively needed to be reformed; some systematization and concentration of the powers of government was indispensable; and perhaps the form chosen by Cæsar was the best, as it was certainly the most natural outgrowth of the national institutions. This was, as Mr. Froude very well expresses it (p. 539), "the transfer of the administration from the Senate and annually elected magistrates to the permanent chief of the army"; only he here narrows the scope of the title *imperator* by conceiving it as exclusively military; he should have said, "to a single permanent magistrate."

But this is not an adequate description of the Roman Empire *as it existed*, nor have we in any sense a right to make Julius Cæsar responsible for the institutions established by his nephew. It is a notorious fact that Augustus was a conservative in temper and policy, and that his sympathies—so far as so absolutely selfish a politician can be said to have had any—were not with the revolution by which he obtained his throne. As we said before, our materials are too scanty to warrant us in passing an absolute judgment upon the work and aims of Cæsar; but so far as we do attempt this, we must look simply at what he did, not at what was done by those who came after him. The whole question of the *rightfulness* of Cæsar's rule—as distinguished from its usefulness—depends upon his responsibility in opening the civil war; a question full of delicate and difficult constitutional points, but in which it seems on the whole agreed that the blame is fully as much with his antagonists as with him. This granted, his subsequent career can hardly be called unconstitutional or abnormal. He died before he had completed his work, but all his reforms, all his constitutional changes, were made in due constitutional form. We are apt to forget that the ancient method of revising constitutions was not to call a convention, or even to lay the proposed scheme before a deliberative assembly, but to invest a single man (as Solon or Sulla) or a commission (as the Decemvirs and the Triumvirs) with authority, not merely to draw up a plan of government, but actually to take possession of the government, superseding the ordinary functionaries, and thus themselves to set in operation the machine which they had constructed. This is, to all intents and purposes, what Cæsar did. To be sure, he converted an effete republic into an hereditary monarchy; but this he did by virtue of powers explicitly conferred upon him, and it by no means follows that his monarchy would have been less free than the oligarchy which it superseded.

The fault of most great men and organizers is to take too much into their own hands and leave too little scope for independent action on the part of their subjects. This was where Cromwell and Napoleon failed, and the fatal mistake of the Roman Empire was the same—that it put an end to self-government. This was all the more a crime in that the Romans, by tradition and practice, possessed a vigorous and healthy system of self-government, which the Empire systematically stifled. The concentration of executive authority in the hands of one man was no doubt a great gain; but a true statesman at this crisis would have made it his first aim to revive and purify the institutions of self-government, which had, it must be confessed, sadly deteriorated. "*Omnia erant excitanda*," as Cicero said to Cæsar; and chief of all, the spirit and exercise of free government. Perhaps the task would have been impossible; perhaps, as Mommsen says, an "absolute military monarchy was the copestone logically necessary and the least of evils." It is certain, at any rate, that this is what came; that from Augustus to Diocletian free institutions steadily decayed. But it is one of the chief merits of Julius, one of the things that contrasts him most strongly with others of his type, that while seizing the supreme power of control he yet made a strong effort to revive in the republic a genuine internal life. By his extension of the suffrage and enlargement of the Senate he brought into the active service of the state capable men of all nationalities; by limiting the distributions of corn to persons actually in need, and by extensive colonization, he reduced the numbers of the proletariat—that is, raised paupers to citizens; and, above all, his municipal law organized local self-government in all parts of the Empire, creating a system which subsequent emperors suffered to be neglected and abused, but which, even as it was, did good service in the last days of the Empire. It was Cæsar who organized the Roman Empire—the creative ideas of it are his; but it was not he who made it the agency for destroying all free life.

A Ragged Register (of People, Places, and Opinions). By Anna E. Dickinson. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1879.)—Miss Dickinson's title well enough describes her book. It is a record of her wanderings to and fro in the United States, well spiced with reflections, and it is ragged. We have descriptions of the Yo-Semite country, where Miss Dickinson enjoyed the grandeur of nature and killed with her own hand two rattlesnakes; of New England towns and villages, in one of which she was robbed of a night's rest by a rat drowning in a foot-tub; and of various places between these limits. We have portraits of people who have introduced themselves to Miss Dickinson on numberless railway journeys; who sometimes seem very well-worn types and sometimes very individual indeed; who always engage in discussions with her, are generally uncivil, and uniformly get as good as they send. Of opinions we have a great profusion and a bewildering variety. They are very precisely expressed, they spring from manifest conviction, and they have an air of disposing of their several questions—*e. g.*: "For me, I

think the Chinese are gentlemen. Let them so stand recorded." There are a great many anecdotes such as one would naturally enjoy telling to one's mother, "for whom," as Miss Dickinson says of hers, "the manuscript of this book was originally penned." Some of them enforce the truth that women are or should be abundantly able to take care of themselves, and that at the same time men should display towards them the chivalry of the Middle Ages, when they were but weaklings; others intimate that there are men still incapable of perceiving this. One of them, at least, is extremely amusing—that in chapter thirty-four. Few political allusions are discoverable, although there is, perhaps, an intimation to be heeded in this reference to the late Thaddeus Stevens: "I hope, with all my heart, that when the dark waters close round us again there may be found such another head and hand at the helm." The book appears somewhat late in the season, since it is too slight and, in a certain sense, too unpretentious for other than summer reading; but we believe success may be predicted for it, for, though it has not the narrative interest of the summer series initiated by 'That Husband of Mine,' it neglects none of the arts of rhetoric in its attempt to be vivacious and, so to speak, serio-comic. The reader whom it begins to depress at the fiftieth page will at least remark that at the two hundred and eighty-sixth Miss Dickinson is as fresh as ever. We would say "flippant" if the word would be understood to apply not to the matter, but only to the style. The style is at times strikingly like that employed so graphically by Alfred Jingle; at times it is plainly Miss Dickinson's own—at least, one is puzzled to tell "where she picked it up."

The History of Co-operation in England: Its Literature and its Advocates. By George Jacob Holyoake. Vol. ii. The Constructive Period—1845 to 1878. (London: Trübner & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879. 12mo, pp. 491.)—Mr. Holyoake's second volume is interesting reading. It contains a graphic account, enlivened by a number of anecdotes and personal reminiscences, of the various co-operative experiments in England which began in 1844 with the "Equitable Pioneers of Rochdale." There is, as we remarked of the first volume, too much detail, and it is not always well arranged in the several chapters, although the chapters themselves are well sketched and distinct in their purpose. They are twenty-six in number, some narrative, some discursive, some statistical; and chapter ii. contains the substance of a pithy speech made by the author at Rochdale at the beginning of the successful experiment. Chapter vii., "Nature of the Co-operative Principle," is especially worth study for its elucidation of the principles upon which the movement is founded.

Upon a subject like this it would be very weak praise to say that a book is interesting. It is also very profitable reading. It not only tells the story of co-operation in such a way as to carry conviction; it sets forth its theory effectively and cogently, and discriminates true co-operation from what often passes under the same name, as resting upon an imperfect application of its principles. The author says: "Nothing is more astounding to students of industrial progress than to observe, in conversation among commercial men and politicians, the utter absence of any idea of distribution of gains among the people. The only concern is that the capitalist or the individual dealer shall profit. It is nobody's concern that the community should profit" (p. 453). And, as to the manner in which the profit of the entire community is to be accomplished: "Co-operation is an industrial scheme for delivering the public from the conspiracy of capitalists, traders, or manufacturers, who would make the laborer work for the least and the consumer pay the utmost for whatever he needs of money, machines, or merchandise. Co-operation effects this deliverance by taking the *workman* and the *customer* into partnership in every form of business it devises" (p. 77). The italics are ours. Co-operation, as thus defined, is one form of socialism, taking socialism, with Mr. Greg (as quoted on p. 70), to be "a fraternal union among men for industrial purposes, a working in common for the common good, in place of the usual arrangement of laborers and capitalists, employers and employed." But the "Continental craze" of *Communism* the writer wholly discards. Neither does he apprehend any serious trouble to society from it; and his judgment is entitled to some weight, from his intimate knowledge of the working classes.

It should be noted that "industrial partnerships"—the generally familiar type of co-operation—are reckoned here as only partially co-operative. When it was announced a year or two ago that the co-operative scheme of Messrs. Briggs, of the Whitwood Collieries, had fallen through, by reason of the obstinate adherence of the men to their trade-unions, it was lamented as the failure of a hopeful experiment. It is only fair to say that Mr. Holyoake lays the responsibility for this upon the employers. It had "brought them great gain," he says, "while it lasted," but it was never undertaken by them in any hearty faith, and they were unreasonable in their requirements to the men. This is Mr. Holyoake's view of the affair; at the same time he gives the Messrs. Briggs credit for honest intentions, and recognizes the difficulties in their way. The decisive thing would appear to be that they "were not themselves co-operators," and their relation to their men was always a *patronizing* one.

Perhaps the most vital point in Mr. Holyoake's theory is worked out in chap. ix. ("The Co-operative Workshop"), viz., that in true co-operation capital should be paid only once, and strictly what the use of the money is worth. This payment having been made to capital, in the shape of interest, the profit belongs to the co-operative laborers, with the very important reminder that the higher grades of labor should receive a higher proportion of profit. "The working-class," he says, "are rather apt to fix all salaries at the workshop rate, and begrudge every sixpence over that. For a man's brains, devotion, interest, and experience they award nothing willingly" (p. 127). A second vital principle, that of "admitting the consumer into partnership," was first carried out in the Rochdale store; and in chap. ix. Mr. Holyoake insists upon the same principle being applied to productive co-operation. As a matter of theory it is not so easy to maintain, but he appears to make it clear that it would be a wise piece of policy in production, as it has proved in distribution.

Considering the wide scope assigned to co-operation in this work, and the importance of co-operative productive enterprises, one would expect more than a passing mention (p. 99) of the peculiarly German phase of co-operation, and the Credit Banks of Schulze-Delitzsch; it would seem of the first moment in the discussion. We suppose it is passed over for the reason that this is primarily a history rather than a treatise. In the chapter on "Co-operative Farming," we have a significant expression of Lord George Manners, when he has stated the satisfactory results of a partial experiment of co-operation on his estates:

> "Many will shake their heads and say, 'All very well; but if the next is a bad year, you will have to bear the whole loss.' My answer is, 'Quite true; *but who can say that my loss may not be less than it would otherwise have been, owing to the stimulus which this system can scarcely fail to exert on the laborer in his daily work*'?" (p. 305).

An American correspondent of Mr. Holyoake says (p. 345): "The people of America, I think, are not ripe for co-operation—they have not been *pinched* enough, and the opportunities for individual enterprise are too good." Nevertheless, we wish that this volume—with considerable of its English detail omitted—could be very widely circulated in this country; it could not fail to do good.

Salomon et ses successeurs; Solution d'un problème chronologique. Par Jules Oppert. (Paris, 1877. 8vo, pp. 100.)—The author concludes this little book with the words, "We believe that the chronological problem concerning the kings of Judah and Israel is now solved." We are not in a condition to tell our readers whether this is really the case or not; for the plainest verification of the conclusions reached by the eminent archæologist—so complex and tangled is the subject—would require the labor of months, and the passing of a decision would need either the support of an elaborate dissertation or that of a superior authority. Thus much, however, we can say, not without examination, that we find the author to have applied to his arduous task a vast amount of minute investigation, executed with mathematical precision, and according to the soundest rules of criticism. Of course, he must here and there have recourse to conjectures, but his conjectures are of a plausible kind. His general view of the authenticity of the Biblical narratives concerning the two lines of Hebrew kings may be said to be strongly conservative. He finds it in several important points corroborated, and in no point essentially shaken, by results conclusively obtained from hieroglyphic or cuneiform inscriptions. Wherever discrepancies exist, he thinks the burden of proof, with few exceptions, still lies with the inscriptions, most of which are as yet very imperfectly deciphered and explained, while the harmony of the documents drawn from the chronicles of the houses of Judah and Israel is almost perfect. After having established the fact that, although the Hebrews had an acknowledged era, the starting-point of which was the date, real or falsely reputed, of the exodus from Egypt, the years of the rulers stated in Kings and Chronicles do not coincide with those of the national era, but are to be reckoned from the day of each accession to the throne, and that a given number of years may be precise, or embrace some months less or more than belong to it, M. Oppert by strict computation reduces the whole number of cases in which

the Biblical chronology can be proved to be at fault to the surprisingly low figure of eight. Nor are the errors the correction of which is needed for the restoration of a full synchronistic accord of any particular magnitude. "Ahab did not reign twenty-two years, but twenty-one"; "Menahem did not reign ten years, but at least six months longer"; "Joram could not have reigned eight consecutive years," etc. It will thus not be surprising that the dates as reconstructed by M. Oppert do not materially differ from those hitherto generally given in works on Bible history. The principal of them are: death of Solomon, 978 B.C.; accession of Ahab, 920; death of Ahab, October, 900; accession of Jehu, 887; fall of Samaria, June, 721; expedition of Sennacherib, 700—not in the 14th but in the 27th or 28th year of Hezekiah (the gravest concession to the Assyrian records); accession of Nebuchadnezzar, July, 605; destruction of Jerusalem, August, 587; release of Jehoiachin, April, 561. In order to avoid the difficulty arising from computing months within converging lines of years, M. Oppert uses in his chronological lists an additional column of dates, based on the addition of 10,000 to the years of the Christian era. 9,023 thus corresponds to 978 B.C., and 9,440 to 561 B.C.—the year 10,000 being the same as 1 B.C. There are some sharp remarks in the book directed against the critical methods of over-confident Assyriologists and Egyptologists, and some superficial processes are amusingly illustrated. Of a number of misprints which have struck us, the following deserves to be pointed out as misleading: "*dans* le prophète Isaïe" (p. 68), for *sans*, etc.

Aryan Philology according to the most Recent Researches (Glottologia Aria Recentissima). Remarks Historical and Critical. By Domenico Pezzi, Membro della Facoltà di Filosofia e Lettere della R. Università di Torino. Translated by E. S. Roberts, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. (London: Trübner & Co., 1879. Pp. xvi. 200.)—Prof. Pezzi aims to discuss only those works which treat of the entire Aryan stock of languages and do not confine themselves to any particular branch of that stock. He also says that he does not intend to notice those works which treat of the connection, real or supposed, between the Aryan and the other families of languages, though in fact he devotes considerable space to the connection between the Aryan and Semitic tongues. By the great majority of philologists it is believed that all the languages usually included under the term Aryan (Indo-Germanic, Indo-European) are descended from one common tongue spoken, in a period long anterior to any historical record, by people dwelling somewhere in Central Asia. Prof. Pezzi endeavors to give a sketch of the various speculations which have been put forth during the last dozen years in regard to the character of this primitive language, to which he gives the name *Proto-Aryan*. Of the unsatisfactory nature of these speculations our readers can form a notion when we tell them that they include every variety of opinion between the extremes of those who deny the existence of any such primitive tongue, and those who have attempted to construct a continuous text in the very words which they suppose were used by that primitive but problematical people. The book commences where the history of philology was left by Benfey and Schleicher about 1867. It gives, perhaps, as good an account of what has been attempted rather than achieved since that time as it is possible to crowd into rather less than two hundred rather small pages in rather coarse print. It is divided into two parts, of which it may be said that the first contains the details and the second the general conclusions drawn from them. To the general reader the details will appear somewhat dry, and to the philosopher and man of science the general conclusions will offer the appearance of a set of somewhat vague and wholly unsettled problems. Nearly half a century ago Bopp, in the preface to his great work on the comparative grammar of the Indo-Germanic languages, said, in substance, that the question why in almost all these languages the root I meant *to go* and the root STA meant *to stand*, was one which he would not attempt to answer. We are no nearer the answer to-day than we were then. Where he left the question there it remains.

When some years ago M. Wurz made the assertion, in the opening of his 'Histoire des Doctrines Chimiques,' that chemistry was a French science, he raised the ire of a large number of the scientific men of other nations. But we think hardly any one would venture to dispute the proposition that philology is a German science. We have taken some pains to estimate the comparative numbers of books in different languages cited by Prof. Pezzi, and we find that four-fifths of them are written in German, while of the remaining fifth a considerable portion are by authors who, though writing in other languages—for example, Max Müller in English—are nevertheless Germans by birth and education. Our own Prof. Whitney, of Yale, of whom Prof. Pezzi makes frequent and honorable mention, although a full-blooded Yankee, is, we suspect, more at home, scientifically speaking, in Berlin than in New Haven, and finds it easier to treat a philological subject in German than in English. The principal value of the present work will, we think, be that it will serve as a sort of bibliographical guide to what may be called the speculative philology of the last twelve years.

Lectures on the History of England. By M. J. Guest. With maps. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 582.)—These lectures were prepared by a teacher for the use of her pupils with the object—certainly the first of all objects in teaching history—"to awaken a real and vivid interest." They lay no claim to original scholarship; they are worked out from materials furnished by others, especially Mr. Green, to whom the author particularly expresses acknowledgment; but they fairly deserve the credit of accomplishing what they set out to do. For young people beginning the study of English history the book is exceedingly well adapted. Its peculiar merit is its suggestiveness. It aims, and we think successfully, to interest the reader in the movements and the personalities of the history, and to stimulate him to read for himself. It abounds in citations from contemporary writers, and in details of a homely and graphic nature. We will mention in illustration the description given of Henry II. in a contemporary letter (p. 171), and the account of the daily life of the Earl of Northumberland (p. 329). Compare also the Anglo-Saxon list of months (p. 94) with its descriptive terms ("Windy-month," "Wine-month," etc.) with the *Pluviose* and *Fructidor* of the French Revolution.

It must be admitted that the author is not always happy in her citations, often giving us second-rate authorities where better were accessible. This fault is seen in the passing of judgments rather than the depicting of periods; contemporary writers are always welcome, but when it comes to telling us what people of another age have thought of a man or an institution we are entitled to the opinion of the persons best qualified to form one. We notice that, on page 453, Mary, Queen of Scots, is spoken of as undoubtedly implicated in the Babington plot; if we are not mistaken, the best evidence exculpates her from this. The book somewhat lacks proportion, fully two-thirds of it being taken up with mediæval history. We could not well wish this part shortened, and, on the other hand, to have entered with equal detail into modern events would have made the book inconveniently large. The modern portion, therefore, must be taken as hardly more than a sketch, and the reader must be content to give less time to the great civil war of the seventeenth century than to the blind fighting of the Wars of the Roses. This is certainly a fault, if an unavoidable one.

A Continental Tour of Eight Days, for Forty-four Shillings. By a Journeyman. (London: Sampson Low & Co.)—This eight days' tour implies several things besides those which it directly tells. A Journeyman who is so watchful of his health, and reckons up so soundly advantages and disadvantages that seem of small moment, has attained a kind of training which may be otherwise arrived at, but which is almost necessarily given by fixed, limited circumstances. He has about eleven dollars to spend for his "outing," and he weighs the exact amount of sea-air, variety, good food, and physical gain which he is to get for that sum. Any variation from the schedule is noted, any good hint is carefully booked, because next year again he will have but eleven dollars to spend, and he means to get the utmost out of it. The book hardly gives as many details as might be desirable (why not print the author's accounts?), and the journeyman hand appears in a want of grouping and perspective; but it is a good little book, and might well be helpful, if we Americans were not compelled to traverse so many leagues before we can reach variety, and if it were not assumed by those who provide for the public that quiet, cleanliness, and reasonable hours can only be desired by travelling millionaires.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Beedham (B. H.), List of Caxton Reproductions, swd	(Jonathan S. Green)	
Fantasma: Poetry	(Ramsey, Millett & Hudson)	
Fiske (J.), Darwinism, and Other Essays	(Macmillan & Co.)	$2 00
Fitzpatrick (W. J.), Life of Charles Lever, swd	(Harper & Bros.)	15
Freeman (E. A.), History of the Norman Conquest of England, Index Volume	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 50
Holtzendorff (Dr. F. von), Handbuch des deutschen Strafprozessrechts, Vol. II., Part 3, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Wesen und Werth der öffentlichen Meinung, swd	(Gustav Hümmer)	
Tales of European Life, swd	(A. K. Loring)	15
Tollin (Rev. H.), Charakterbild Michael Servet's, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Yonge (Miss C. M.), History of France	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 11, 1879.

The Week.

THE New York Republican Convention met at Saratoga on Wednesday week, and all went off exactly in accordance with the programme. Mr. Conkling was there looking his best, and all the henchmen reported for duty promptly. There was much discontented and insubordinate talk among the Reformers and Administration Republicans during the two or three days previous, but it quickly subsided as soon as Mr. Conkling arrived and fixed his eye on them. They also brought three or four "dark horses" with them, which they led about in the corridors of the hotels, and asserted they were ready to back to any amount; but when Conkling saw them they pretended they knew nothing about them —that they were the horses of a strange dealer which they happened to be looking at just as he came in. There does not appear to have been the slightest doubt of the success of Cornell, Mr. Conkling's candidate, from the beginning; in fact, all the arrangements were made beforehand. No introduction or eulogy of the candidate was necessary, and none was offered. Everybody knew Mr. Conkling's wishes, and that was enough. For the same reason Cornell was not cheered when nominated on the first ballot, any more than a horse is cheered which wins a race. The applause was given to the owner and trainer. There was nothing to be said of Cornell except that he was personally honest, had been dismissed from office by Mr. Hayes as an enemy of civil-service reform, and was a favorite adherent of Mr. Conkling's. The rest of the ticket is, with the exception of the State Engineer, more than usually good; but then the other offices to be filled are unimportant compared to the governorship.

The platform declares that the Republic is a nation and not a league, and is, as the Republicans say, "supreme within its own constitutional sphere," and castigates the Democrats; declares that to refuse supplies to compel the consent of a co-ordinate branch of the Government is "revolution," and accuses the Democrats in Congress of "revolutionary attempts" and of "nullifying schemes," and again castigates them; approves of "free and pure elections," and pronounces any attempt to repeal the national election laws "a conspiracy" to overthrow the safeguards of free suffrage; bestows "hearty approval" on President Hayes for his veto messages; repudiates military interference with elections, but maintains that when Republicans use soldiers at the polls it is "to protect the ballot-box from the interference of force and fraud," while the Democrats bring "armed clubs" to the polls to "intimidate the citizens," and "remain silent when the assassin's bullet seals the fate of political independence"; castigates the Democrats again for "partisan purposes," "revolutionary methods," "disturbing measures," and "dangerous designs" "under the sway of those who were lately in rebellion, and seek to regain in the halls of legislation what they lost on the field of battle"; approves of the resumption of specie payments, and disapproves of "debasing the standard, depreciating the paper, or deteriorating the coin"; protests against putting Confederate soldiers in offices taken from "old Union soldiers"; points with pride to the reforms in the State Prison and Canal management effected by the Republicans, and pronounces those who claim these reforms for the Democrats "public impostors"; declares that the system of taxation ought to be reformed, and would have been reformed before now, under a commission created by the Republicans, if their righteous designs had not here also been defeated by the Democratic Governor; approves of the supervision and regulation of railroads, which is apparently the only good thing the Convention proposed or had ever heard of that the Democrats had not diabolically tried to hinder or mar.

It will be observed that there is only one mention of President Hayes and the Administration, and this very cold and guarded, and that no measure of any kind in Federal legislation is supported, the greater part of the platform being taken up with denunciation of the Democrats in Congress, although there is this year no Federal election. Only one question of State concern—the supervision of the railroads—is alluded to except for the purpose of pointing abuse of the Democrats. In fact, the platform is a thoroughly Stalwart document, in that it proposes nothing except that the Democrats should not get the offices and should not be allowed to legislate, and affirms nothing except that the Democrats are bad fellows, and that the South is still animated by the spirit of rebellion. The two principal speeches—indeed, the only ones—those of Mr. Conkling and Vice-President Wheeler, were in the same strain and covered the same ground, the latter especially being very violent. In so far as the Stalwart idea of the duty of a party in power can be gathered from them, it would seem to consist in the distribution of offices among "workers," the carrying of elections by "workers," and an annual meeting in each State to denounce the opposition and show that *all* its aims are highly criminal in character, and have the air of having been concocted in a penitentiary by the bad element among the convicts.

The most curious part of the performance is the perfunctory joy with which all parties profess to receive the result. All have gone home "to work heartily for the ticket," and Cornell is to direct the canvass with his accustomed skill. It is admitted that there may have been some grounds for dissatisfaction with the way the nomination was made, but then everybody must see the necessity of presenting a united front to the enemy this year—the implication being that there are certain years in which discontent may be allowed to show itself at the polls, but this is not one of them. Next year, it has been suggested, reformers can, if they please, oppose the Machine, but if they were to do it this year unknown consequences of a grave character would follow. The New York *Times* has an amusing story of "a gentleman of the utmost respectability" and of "marked ability," "wise, able, and eloquent," and "known to be true to the party," somewhere near Albany, who desired to "attend to his political duties," and to serve as a delegate at the Convention. He is promptly defeated at the primary, for "the sole reason that he would not" pledge himself to vote in the Convention for a certain man, and afterwards, if necessary, transfer his support according to the instructions he might receive from the political hack who controlled the party machinery in his district. The gentleman was simply an impudent theorist, and got his due. What had his "wisdom" or his "respectability" or his "eloquence" or his "faithfulness" to do with the matter, this year anyhow? Next year will be the great year for wisdom and ability at conventions.

Both California and Maine have gone Republican at the State elections held on the 3d and 8th instant respectively. In California, Perkins, the Republican candidate for Governor, naturally ran somewhat behind the rest of his ticket, owing to the union of the Democrats and New Constitution party upon Glenn. But his majority is large enough to indicate the utter demoralization of the Democrats and the virtual extermination of the "Honorable Bilks." The Workingmen gain the most substantial benefit from the election, perhaps, as they secure two of the three Railroad Commissioners, whose powers are great, and who can only be removed by a two-thirds vote of the Legislature. They also elect Kalloch mayor of San Francisco, and in dividing the other city offices with the Republicans rather get the better of them. The latter elect all four of the Congressmen, however, and a majority in the Legislature which chooses a United States Senator, and thus place Califor-

nia "in the Republican column of Congress." As there were five State tickets in the field and eighty-seven offices to be filled in San Francisco alone, there is still some guesswork about the result, which will not be positively determined before the official canvass. In Maine, also, the returns are unusually slow in coming in. It appears at present that Davis has no majority, though a considerable plurality over Smith—Garcelon having made a wretched run—and will be elected by the Legislature, which is likely to be Republican in both branches; altogether a decided Republican gain over last year. The vote was the largest ever cast, and will probably reach 140,000. The constitutional amendment providing for biennial elections and legislative sessions was carried. Mr. Blaine estimates Davis's plurality over the Greenback candidate at 20,000, and over Garcelon at 40,000. The Greenbackers seem to have gained from the Democrats but lost as much and more to the Republicans. One thing is clear, that the currency issue and not the bloody shirt occupied the voters.

During this week and next in Massachusetts the half-dozen conventions which represent the discordant politics of that State will meet, and from their proceedings some idea may be formed of the probable result of the November election. Since the withdrawal of Governor Talbot the Republicans have been involved in a conflict of personal claims to the succession which has been marked by unusual persistency and acrimony, and has led some of the party press into precautionary denunciation of the crime of bolting. The hand of Butler is more or less discernible in the quarrel (for it is almost that) between the friends of Mr. Long and Mr. Henry L. Pierce. His quondam organ, the Boston *Traveller*, is now working hard for Long, and reports Butler himself as saying that he could beat Pierce rather more easily than any other candidate. The danger that the Republicans will take advice of Butler is, of course, not very great under any circumstances, and especially when, in the very act of making his boast, he opens on Mr. Pierce's character with a battery that ought to have been masked till after the nomination. He accuses Mr. Pierce of having engaged near the close of the war in a contraband trade with the rebels through the lines, and has brought to light proceedings had in 1873 by one of Mr. Pierce's associates against their agent in the business, which ended in a decision that the trade was illegal, and that no contract based upon it could be enforced. Mr. Pierce states that he has only just learned of the facts brought out in these proceedings, to which he had refused to be a party, that he never suspected that his money (which had been advanced at the request of a Republican friend) was being used improperly, and that his character as a Union man is too well remembered to be affected by such a charge. His word has never been impeached, and cannot be now, on the imperfect evidence adduced; but the Long men, and the Butler men, and the men who are Butler all the time and Long when it suits them, will use this reminiscence for their common purpose, at least up to the adjournment of the Republican Worcester Convention.

Mr. Garfield explained the other day to a *Herald* reporter, with the aid of a diagram, that the chief cause of uncertainty in forecasting the result of elections in Ohio was the movement of population. He estimated that while Ohio has received from the East about 750,000 of her population, she has parted with 770,000 to the West, and in like manner has acquired 25,000 from the South while retaining but 20,000. The voters that come from the East are apt to be laborers attracted by the mining and manufacturing demand, and are consequently Democratic "at first"; those from the South of course adhere to the same party. But Mr. Garfield seems to have underrated this Southern accession. A well-known correspondent of the Cincinnati *Commercial* reminds him that by the census of 1870 there were no less than 138,000 Southern-born residents of Ohio, part of an increasing movement northward which has been going on for at least seventy years. Comparing the statistics for other States, it appears that the Southern emigration to Indiana and Illinois was considerably larger than that to Ohio, and that regarding the whole of both sections, "where one Northern man goes South to live, *five* Southern men move into the Northern States and stay there" What the approaching census may have to tell of this movement will be awaited with great interest, and not for political reasons only. Mr. Garfield opened another vista to curious speculation when he stated that the Western Reserve contributed more than a third of its strength to the Greenback party in Ohio. They were stalwart Republicans until carried away in 1872 by Greeley, since when they have been like sheep without a shepherd. Mr. Garfield now expects the Republicans among them "to be drawn back into our ranks by sheer party magnetism, assisted by their resentment of the revived Democratic extreme State-sovereignty doctrines."

The Cincinnati *Gazette* keeps up its fire upon the new Governor of Kentucky by asking daily whether or no he is the Blackburn who attempted to introduce yellow fever into the North during the civil war. It has now what it calls a "Blackburn department," wherein it prints communications, extracts from other papers, and investigations by its own reporters. One of these has made a polite call upon Governor Blackburn in order to offer him the opportunity of denying the ugly rumors which have found their way into the columns of the *Gazette*, but the Governor failed to take advantage of it, and has indeed preserved a uniform silence upon the subject. Another, no less a trained investigator than "H. V. B.," has unearthed the report to Secretary Seward of the United States Consul at Bermuda in 1864, which implicates some Dr. Blackburn or other in very infamous business. The *Gazette* protests that it is "surprised and pained" at certain unwarrantable intimations that it is "unfriendly to Governor Blackburn and the State of Kentucky," but still regrets its inability to get any light upon its constant conundrum from either of them. The *Courier-Journal* cannot be persuaded to contribute any information; but we believe a beginning has been made in inducing one Democratic journal in Kentucky to echo the *Gazette's* daily question. The Chicago *Tribune* is, however, a stanch ally, and the *Journal* shows its friendliness by printing the interrogation occasionally. On the other hand, since Secretary Sherman's plea for a closer union between Kentucky and Ohio, the Cincinnati *Commercial* seems disposed to silence its contemporary. "The trouble with the Cincinnati *Gazette* touching the Governor of Kentucky is on the increase," it says flippantly.

Mr. Field has returned to his attack upon his late "legislative ally" in a letter to the editor of the *World*, answering, as he says, "some very plain questions" addressed to him by the latter, who seems anxious that nothing to Mr. Tilden's disadvantage shall be unwisely hushed up. The letter is plaintive in its appeal to one's sympathies, but it is chiefly designed to show that the writer mistook the character of his ally, which appeared in Mr. Field's first interview. It seems clear that when Mr. Tilden whispered in Mr. Field's ear at the latter's residence, on the eve of his departure to Europe to visit his daughter, that elevated-railroad stock was "booming," he was expressing personal rather than convivial hilarity. And Mr. Field's failure to perceive this, and his consequent inference that Mr. Tilden would be guided by him in the disposal of his stock as to time, place, and price, will be regarded by none more than by Mr. Tilden's enemies as inexcusable weakness. The reporters have as yet not been able to draw any reply from Mr. Tilden, who is probably taking time to prepare a defence against the main accusation of the letter, namely, its implication that Mr. W. T. Pelton, in whose name Mr. Tilden's stock stood, is still honored with the intimate counsels of his uncle. We have heretofore pointed out that Mr. Tilden exploded the wicked-partner theory by reducing it to the absurdity involved in supposing so experienced and discerning a person as himself capable of being imposed upon by persons like Weed and Woolley and Pelton. But the fact that at the time of the cipher-despatches exposure this theory was his defence, will, we should say, make it particularly difficult for him to defend himself successfully now against the

charge of having restored to his confidence a partner whose wickedness he has publicly deplored.

Although no new shipments of gold were made during the week from London to New York, the arrivals here since we last wrote were no less than $5,760,000. Including this sum and the amounts on the way, not far from $20,000,000 gold has been gained from Europe, and this, too, before the cotton exports have been much felt in the foreign exchange market. It seems a reasonable calculation that fully as much more gold will be received during the remainder of the year. It is most fortunate for the money market that so much has come already, for otherwise it would have been in a distressing condition, as the borrowing demand has been greatly increased by reason of the rise in prices at the Stock Exchange, the creation of new collateral, and the enlarged volume of business, while New York bank facilities have been much reduced since 1873. During the week the ruling quotation for demand as well as time loans was 5 to 6 per cent., U. S. bonds and railroad bonds were firm, and the speculation in stocks was "strong to buoyant," notwithstanding the high prices current at the beginning of the week. The volume of mercantile business, judged by Clearing-house transactions, is nearly one-third larger than a year ago, and several branches of industry, like iron-making, are strained to the highest pitch of activity. The silver market has been dormant, the London price ruling at about 51⅛*d.* to 51¼*d.* per oz., and in New York the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar ranging at 86¼ to 86½ cents, closing at $0.8623.

We have discussed elsewhere the news from Afghanistan. The way in which Lord Lytton, the Governor-General of India, under instructions from home, forced a quarrel on Shir Ali, the late Amir, was by demanding that he should receive a resident ambassador at Kabul. He refused on the ground that the mere appearance of being controlled or overlooked by a British agent in his own capital would ruin him with his subjects, and that he could not answer for the safety of such an agent. No attention was paid to this, and his successor was compelled to receive one. This, combined with the fact that he had to go to the British camp to make peace, put Yakub Khan, in the eyes of the Afghans, in the position of Shah Soojah in 1839—that is, made him appear a foreign tool. His troops have accordingly mutinied, and, joined by the mob, have stormed the British residency and slaughtered the Minister, Sir Pierre Cavagnari, and his escort of British troops, seventy-seven persons in all. At this writing it seems likely that Yakub Khan, to ensure his own safety, has joined the insurgents, and the war will have to begin again.

The lesson of the tragedy of 1841 was that there is nothing the Afghans will not sooner submit to than anything like a sacrifice of their political independence; that the Amir is not a real despot, holding undisputed sway, and able to answer for his subjects, but simply a sort of suzerain ruling a number of turbulent tribes whose first allegiance is paid to their chiefs; that treaties with him, therefore, containing conditions which are likely to run counter to the popular sentiments are of no value, and that the only way of retaining influence in Afghanistan is to avoid all appearance of meddling, while privately keeping the Amir in good humor by presents and other favors. This lesson was acted on by the Indian Government from Pollock's retreat down to the accession of the Beaconsfield Ministry and the inauguration of "the Imperial policy." The inflated novelist who then took charge of the Empire determined to disregard it, and sent out a brother novelist and poet, nearly as inflated as himself, to discipline the Afghans and acquire a "scientific frontier," and we see the result. As to the future, of course Kabul will now be occupied; it was easily occupied in 1839 and 1842. The Afghans make no stand in the open field, but it can hardly be that the British public will allow the Premier to work out his plot any further. They must by this time have had enough of him.

The end of the charges against Captain Carey, of the 98th Regiment, who was with Prince Napoleon when killed, is very curious and hardly more creditable than the charges themselves. The court-martial, which appears to have lost its head as completely as the public at home, found him guilty of misconduct before the enemy, and sentenced him to be dismissed the service because he did not go back to rescue the Prince (though it said nothing about his not rescuing the two troopers who were also killed), and there was an answering groan of indignation all over England. It is now admitted, however, that Carey was not on duty at all; that the Prince, though he held no English commission, was in command of the party; that it is the duty of a reconnoitring party not to fight, but to fly; and that Carey did nothing wrong. So the proceedings of the court-martial have been quashed, and he has been ordered to return to his regiment after he has paid a long visit to his family. In fact, he was received on his return as a popular hero, and it only remains for Dean Stanley to offer to inter him in Westminster Abbey to make the affair a complete illustration of what appears to be the growing mercurialness of the English temperament. Apropos of the Prince, there is in a recently published letter of Prosper Mérimée, who was an old friend of the Empress, an account of an interview with her at the Tuileries in September, 1870, just before her downfall, but when the end was certain, in which he says: "Elle n'avait plus la moindre illusion, et disait que ce qu'elle désirait pardessus tout pour son fils, c'était une vie heureuse et sans ambition." Unhappily she got over this resignation when she reached England, educated him as an intriguing pretender and a thorn in the side of his country, and spent her money supporting Bonapartist newspapers in France.

There have been rumors, more or less definite, ever since Prince Bismarck obtained the support of the Ultramontanes in Parliament, and Dr. Falk resigned, that he was negotiating a peace with the Pope; but it looks somewhat as if he had started them himself, and as if peace was really no nearer than ever. The Vienna *Correspondance Politique*, a semi-official sheet, has a letter from Rome which professes to tell the story of the negotiations which Monsignore Roncetti was sent as nuncio to carry on. The writer says that Bismarck is firm in refusing to surrender the state control of religious corporations, or the obligatory university education for priests, or the obligatory communication by the bishops to the Government of all their appointments, or the State Ecclesiastical Court at Berlin, which has jurisdiction of clerical offences against the law, or the obligatory return by the bishops of all fines above a certain amount inflicted on priests. As these are the principal matters in dispute, it cannot be said that much progress has been made towards a settlement. In fact, it would appear that all Bismarck offers is to fill the places of the dead bishops and let the exiled ones come back to their sees.

There is a singular but instructive contest pending in Belgium between the Catholic clergy and the state. The Liberals, having now a majority in the Parliament, have determined to take the public schools out of the hands of the priests, who, since 1842, have had complete control of them. Under the law recently passed religious instruction is to be given in the schools at a certain hour, by priests, to those children whose parents shall call for it, but beyond this the clergy is to have nothing to say to the management. The bishops, however, have not only forbidden the curés to give such instruction, but have directed them to refuse the sacraments to any teacher who attempts to supply their place by teaching the children the catechism. It is reported that in some dioceses the bishops have gone still farther, and have directed that absolution shall be denied to all masters of primary schools serving under the new law, and to both the teachers and pupils of the normal schools. This report is not thoroughly authenticated, but the Ultramontane papers have not as yet denied it. The affair is useful, as showing what the Catholic clergy will do when circumstances are favorable, and how thoroughly conditional their liberalism is apt to be.

THE NEW YORK MACHINE TRIUMPH.

IN spite of the threatenings of the mutinous Republicans, there never has been much doubt that the late Convention at Saratoga would nominate Mr. A. B. Cornell, if Mr. Conkling insisted on it. The only question was whether he would insist on it, and the chances were all in favor of his doing so. There was nothing in his career to justify the belief that he would be prevented by a regard for the success of the party. He has never shown any hesitation in leaving the party to its fate at any election which was not likely to affect him personally. This year his personal position made it extremely desirable that he should produce some striking proof of his power, both by way of avenging himself on the Administration which had deprived him of the New York Custom-house, and by way of showing that the recent scandal has not damaged him politically. For this purpose he could not have hit on a better thing than the nomination of Cornell for the governorship of New York. The greater Cornell's unfitness for the place, judged by the ordinary standards, the more valuable is the nomination as a proof of his patron's ascendency. There was, therefore, every reason for expecting Mr. Conkling to insist on it, and he did insist on it, and carried his point after the usual amount of babble among his opponents about other candidates. There was nothing in the history or condition of the opposition to him to make him waver for one moment. The Machine which he controls has now been in operation for several years, and is probably the most perfect instrument of its kind in existence. He constructed it with great care during the Administration of General Grant, who put into his hands the whole patronage of the Government for that purpose, besides fortifying him with every other mark of confidence. The accession of President Hayes and the withdrawal of the Custom-house have not broken it up, or even slightly deranged it, for reasons which we set forth last winter when commenting on Mr. Conkling's triumphant re-election to the Senate, but which will bear repeating.

Mr. Hayes was elected as an ardent civil-service reformer, and was to aim at a "thorough, radical, and complete reform." It was this more than anything else which brought down on him from the very first the hostility of the old party managers. They pretended that it was his desertion of the freedmen, but it was in reality his violation of the rules of the game in his mode of filling the offices from the Cabinet down. His Cabinet was made up in complete breach of the established usages, and his great offence at the South was his giving so many good offices to persons who not only had not worked for the party, but had really never belonged to it. Now, if he had carried out the reform policy thoroughly and consistently, and made no departures from it, two results would have followed. In the first place, the zeal of the Independents, whose influence was acknowledged both on the platform and in his letter of acceptance, would have been still further kindled. They would have felt that they had at last got a champion of their ideas; that by standing by him they could open a considerable future for these ideas, and if not build up a party on them, at all events secure for them a firm and permanent foothold in the Republican party, and make opposition to them in the party discreditable and impolitic. In the second place, his policy would have made such an impression on the public mind that the Democrats would not only have found it unassailable, but would have been compelled at all events to feign acceptance of it, as the rule of their conduct also, whenever they got into power; so that, altogether, it would have assumed in all eyes the air of something permanent, of a return to the early and better practice of the Government—at a time, be it remembered, when legislation was no more favorable to the purity of the civil service than it is now—the air, in short, of a solid and fixed improvement in the machinery of administration from which any succeeding President would hardly have ventured to depart.

But President Hayes did not do this. He has unquestionably made improvements in the civil service, which we do not mean to belittle; but side by side with these improvements he fell into some of the very worst practices of the old régime. He used the offices lavishly to reward party and personal services. The dispute about his title ought to have made him exceedingly careful about using Government patronage to reward persons to whom he was indebted for his accession to the Presidency, and this is true whether such persons acted ministerially or judicially. But he showed no more hesitation than Conkling or Blaine would have shown, in providing for nearly every one of them, good, bad, or indifferent, by means of offices, the disposition of which, as he acknowledged, was committed to him as a solemn trust. This was a great mistake. It had various grave consequences, but the gravest of all were the diffusion among the real friends of civil-service reform of the belief that, having been again deceived, they were pursuing a chimera, and the diffusion among the politicians of the belief that such changes as Mr. Hayes had made in the direction of reform had taken no hold of the popular mind, and were not permanent, and would be disregarded by the next Administration, whether Republican or Democratic.

It is to this last that the continuance of Mr. Conkling's strength is due. No one can deny his skill as a Machinist, and the party believes that as soon as Mr. Hayes goes out the Machine will work again with the old gearing; that the Custom-house belt will be again put on the wheel, and all go on as before; and that if his successor is a Republican, Mr. Conkling will again wield his old power in the State. Men who care, therefore, for political activity, and fancy they have a political future, refuse to quarrel with him. He is to them still the coming man, and when they find him bent on any scheme, they sooner or later support him in pursuing it. This is the whole secret of the two recent degrading exhibitions in the politics of the State—his unanimous re-election to the Senate by the party majority in the Legislature, and the total collapse of the opposition to his putting his chief henchman in the chair which Seward and Marcy and Dix have filled. The Republican papers all acknowledge that without his support Cornell would probably not have received one hundred votes, so that we are driven to the conclusion that one man has nominated the Republican candidate, and that the meeting of the convention and the balloting were in reality mere forms which might have been dispensed with, and that the work might have been done by a letter to the newspapers from Mr. Conkling. The final touch was given to the scene by the failure of the Convention to applaud the successful candidate when his nomination was announced. The cheers were reserved, and appropriately enough, for his master.

Whether Mr. Cornell can be elected will, of course, depend a good deal on what the Democrats do. But the argument by which condonation, connivance, or approval have been claimed for all other errors and shortcomings of the Republican managers during the last ten years—"the bloody shirt" and the wickedness of the Democrats—is as strong for his election as for anything else, and the speeches of Mr. Conkling and Mr. Wheeler showed that their reliance on it is as great as ever. If it is successful this time, it will undoubtedly send Mr. Conkling to the Presidential Convention next year with greater prestige than before, but it will also commit the Republican party to a decided return to all that is worst in its history and composition. It will strengthen all the evil influences in the Convention to know that "the pivotal State" of New York is in such hands and can be carried by such means.

The readiness with which the Independents, or Reformers, or "Administration Republicans," or whatever one pleases to call them, have fallen in with the Stalwart view of the proper work of the party, is of itself, even if he had not had abundant experience of their timidity and vacillation, sufficient justification of the small account in which Mr. Conkling holds them. It was plain from the first month of Mr. Hayes's Administration that if they conceded that denunciation of the South (for legislation about the South, be it remembered, is admitted to be at an end) was the chief and proper business of Republican politicians, their rôle was ended. In this business the Stalwarts cannot be excelled, and it furnishes them with an abundant excuse for the neglect of everything else. A Reformer waving "the bloody shirt" is, in the nature of the case, a

ridiculous spectacle, and nobody enjoys it more than Conkling, and yet, with strange fatuity, for the last three years Reformers have been deliberately trying to show that they could wave it as well as anybody. The appearance of Messrs. Garfield and Foster as Stalwarts has been a somewhat discreditable performance, but not half as bad as Mr. Sherman's attempt to outrun the whole field by declaring that the question whether the Federal Government should supervise elections was more important than the condition of "money, property, and labor." That question has, of course, a certain importance. Now and then, as at this moment in South Carolina and Mississippi, it may be desirable that the Federal Government should be able to supervise elections when certain districts are in a disturbed condition, but it could only have supreme importance in case the majority of the States, at least, became too turbulent or corrupt to conduct elections at all; and in that case where should we get the pure and good men for the Federal Government who would see that right was done? Where does the Federal Government get its morality, as well as its physical force, but from the States? There is no school for Federal statesmen except the school of State politics; and whenever State politics become generally so depraved that the State authorities cannot be trusted to conduct elections fairly, we may rely upon it the Federal Government will not trouble itself with the task. It will find shorter ways of evolving law and order. The great interests of this country, as of all countries, are, and must ever be, "money, labor, and property." On these its morality, its strength, and its future depend. A party which ostentatiously neglects them, or pushes them into the background, for the purpose of indulging in declamatory vituperation of communities which it does not control, must of necessity be led by tricksters and machinists.

THE REVOLT IN KABUL.

IT is difficult to overestimate the gravity of the news which has been received from Afghanistan, of the rising of the troops and populace at Kabul against Yakub Khan, and the massacre of the entire British Embassy, including its chief, Sir Pierre Cavagnari, so conspicuous in the late operations. The effect of this tragedy on both Indian and British politics is likely to be serious in the highest degree. As regards Indian politics, it means that the occupation of Afghanistan with a considerable force will now be deemed necessary, and that the expense of this will fall with crushing weight on the already greatly embarrassed Indian treasury.

It is a difficulty, too, from which there is no escape without the loss of that prestige in the eyes of the natives which is one of the conditions on which the Indian Government exists. In fact, one of the strongest objections to the policy of annexation or extension of the frontier line is that the Government cannot anywhere afford to be beaten or to be compelled to retreat, for fear of being lowered in the estimation of the bulk of its subjects, and therefore ought not to expose itself to slights or indignities where it can possibly avoid it. It will not only have to go to Kabul, but stay there; for one of the unfortunate positions taken in the controversy with the late Amir Shir Ali was that there must be a British Resident in Kabul to watch the Russians, and, in fact, superintend the Amir's foreign relations. What has happened now shows that this Resident must have an army for a body-guard, and that no ruler set up by the English, or supposed to be in the pay or under the influence of foreigners, is likely to be much stronger or better able to assert his authority than the unfortunate Shah Soojah, who was put on the throne by a British army in 1839 and killed when the British were driven out two years later.

Our correspondent, himself an Indian officer, writing in the *Nation* of last week on the present condition of India, made a singularly shrewd estimate of the situation in Afghanistan when he said:

"Afghanistan, rent asunder by internal dissensions, is fast tumbling to pieces; and Yakub Kahn and Major Cavagnari are at this moment in precisely the same position in Kabul as were Shah Soojah and Sir William Macnaghten in 1840. It will be little less than miraculous if the former Englishman succeed in escaping the violent death which fell upon the latter."

An army for a body-guard at Kabul, however, means the occupation of the whole country, the garrisoning of the principal towns, and the policing of the great lines of communication—in other words, the occupation and government of the country; and there is no difference of opinion as to its being the most difficult country to govern of its size in the world. The Indian revenues already are unequal to the demands of peace; there has been a heavy deficit during the past year, necessitating a loan from the Home Government; the depreciation of silver, in which the taxes are received, shows no sign of coming to an end, and the loss on exchange in paying the interest on the debt held in England is therefore heavy. What is worst of all, however, is the fact that the limit of endurable taxation has been reached; there appears to be no difference of opinion on this point among competent observers.

How the Ministry will face the crisis, however, it is hard to see. It is not possible to postpone a dissolution of Parliament beyond next year, so that there will not be time in the interval for the Afghan difficulty to be got out of the way. The achievement of the "scientific frontier," of which Lord Beaconsfield boasted recently at the Lord Mayor's dinner, was due to a series of apparently lucky accidents and blunders—that is to say, it could not have been obtained if Shir Ali, instead of offering a vigorous resistance, had not fallen sick and died. Nor could it have been obtained if the Russians had not substantially got all they wanted under the Treaty of Berlin, and therefore abandoned their intrigues in Afghanistan. The independence of Bulgaria, the virtual independence of Rumelia, and the virtual surrender by the Turks of their right to occupy the Balkans, together with the retention of the claim for a war indemnity, came so near the original provisions of the Treaty of San Stefano that there was no longer any motive for stirring up the Afghans, and Shir Ali was left to get out of his scrape as best he could. But it turns out that his objection to receiving a Resident—that it would discredit him with his own subjects—was not a mere pretext. It was based on a better appreciation of the situation than his son, Yakub Khan, seems to have possessed. The "scientific frontier" has, therefore, vanished. The frontier of Herat and of Balkh, which the British were bound to defend if attacked, by the treaty with Yakub Khan, and which therefore became the real frontier of British India, is not a scientific frontier, but a remote and very difficult and costly one, and up to it the British must apparently now go, not to repel an attack from Persia or Russia, but in order to keep order in Afghanistan itself. In other words, the object of the late war has not been achieved, and the boasting of the Premier at the Lord Mayor's dinner turns out to be empty.

The gain for the Liberals is obvious enough. They have all along maintained that the wisest thing to be done with Afghanistan was to let it alone; that there was no meddling with it at all without meddling a good deal; that the agreement made with Russia in 1868, to treat it as outside the sphere of international complications, was the best possible arrangement, and that the best frontier India could have was the one she had before the late war. The late tragedy, which repeats the lesson of 1841, must powerfully support this view in the eyes of the voters, enforced as it is by the badness of the times. Nearly all the most eminent Anglo-Indians concurred in it, and especially the late Lord Lawrence, one of the highest authorities, if not the highest authority, during his life; but nothing availed against the Premier's self-confidence and the desire of his colleagues to carry out, as Lord Salisbury says, the policy which has been the real policy of England since the days of Elizabeth. This sort of talk was very potent two years ago, and if the murder of Sir Pierre Cavagnari had occurred then there is little doubt it would have roused the Jingo enthusiasm of the period to boiling point. But there has been within the year a complete loss of interest in foreign affairs. The course of events in Turkey, in Cyprus, and in Africa has brought nothing but disenchantment. Some things which then stirred men's blood now excite a smile when mentioned, such as the

protectorate of Asiatic Turkey and the acquisition of Cyprus. In Afghanistan alone was there any appearance of success in carrying out the ministerial programme; but the Afghan policy too must now be set down in the list of ministerial failures. The revolt in Kabul, instead of rousing enthusiasm, will probably only deepen reflection, and bring home more surely than ever to the bulk of Englishmen a sense of the tremendous responsibility entailed by the possession of India.

It will probably also help to bring the public to something like a final decision of the precise shape which the foreign policy of England is hereafter to take. This question has never been settled since the rise of trade and commerce, and the growth of the public conscience after the peace of 1815, made the rôle of a mere bully distasteful to an increasing portion of the community. The path traced out by Cobden, or the Manchester school—that of a peaceful trader—was never really acceptable to the great body of the people. It involved much too wide and sudden a break with the great traditions of English history, and seemed to many who had no sympathy whatever with a hectoring or aggressive demeanor to involve the waste and loss of an influence which, whatever objections there might be to the mode in which it was acquired, might be made to work immense good for less fortunate divisions of the human family. So that when Lord Beaconsfield first began to swagger, before his real aims were known, he touched the imagination of great numbers to whom the England which he has since conjured up, fighting right and left for "British interests," and prepared to sacrifice 30,000 Bulgarians sooner than suffer a diplomatic check in the harem at Constantinople, was inexpressibly odious. It was these, doubtless, whom Sir Charles Dilke had in his mind the other day, when he said that it would not do for the Liberals to extinguish Jingo enthusiasm; that the task before them was to direct it rightly—that is, so to use it as to make English influence the result of a better thing than naked displays of power; that is, of sincere sympathy with all "who are desolate and oppressed," or nobly ambitious. If the foreign policy of the country passes into the hands of this class, they will certainly begin the work of reform as any prudent philanthropist would in private life, by establishing a stern proportion between means and ends. They will see that the world has grown too big and populous and rich for England any longer to play the part in it she once played. Other people have got ships and men and money, too, and the cruelty and injustice of promising what cannot be performed, and meddling where one cannot mend, has been wonderfully illustrated by every one of Lord Beaconsfield's late enterprises abroad.

THE PEOPLING OF HAWAII.

THE Hawaiian aborigines are decreasing; the total population of their islands is increasing. The movement of the population in the Hawaiian group, as shown by the census of December last, will not, indeed, attract attention on account of its magnitude. The lately-published account of that enumeration would not fill more than three of the 2,326 pages which are required for the ninth census of the United States; the ratio of these numbers nearly represents that of the island to the American population. Yet the transformation of the Hawaiian has something of the interest of a chemical experiment in which the combinations go on without disturbance and swiftly; and the smallness of their scale renders them, to use a convenient Baconianism, a more maniable subject. The total island population is now scarcely 58,000; but for the first time since the European occupation of the group it is increasing—in what way and with what promise we will show briefly.

The repopulation of Hawaii might be called a problem of three bodies. Three races are mainly concerned in it—the aboriginal Polynesian, the Chinese, and the Anglo-Saxon. The first, as a pure race, are still losing ground for reasons which we have lately pointed out (*Nation*, July 24, 1879). It is, however, an error to expect their extinction in the course of a few years, even should their present rate of decrease continue. Calculating a diminution of ten per cent. for each of seventeen sexennial periods following the census of 1878, there would still remain in 1980 an aboriginal population of 7,347. Its numbers, though always lessening, would, theoretically at least, disappear no sooner than a conchoid curve would meet its asymptote.

The Chinese are rapidly gaining ground, by immigration chiefly as yet. The whites are increasing with moderate rapidity both by immigration and by the multiplication of their descendants of unmixed blood. A fourth class, however, seems destined in the natural order of development to become the dominant one in the Islands, though it is not as yet very strong numerically—it is the half-breeds. The table annexed will indicate the movement of each of these classes:

Population of the Hawaiian Islands.	Dec 27, 1872.	Dec 27, 1878.	Differences.
Total population	56,897	57,895	1,088
Number of Aborigines	49,044	44,088	—4,956
" Half-breeds	2,487	3,420	933
" Chinese	1,938	5,916	3,978
" Americans	889	1,276	287
" Britons	619	883	264
" Portuguese	395	436	41
" Germans	224	272	48
" French	88	81	— 7
" other foreigners	364	666	302
Total number of foreigners	5,366	10,477	5,111
Number of Hawaiian-born, of foreign parents	849	947	98
" native males	26,130	23,388	—2,742
" native females	22,914	20,700	—2,214
" all children under six years of age	6,869	7,608	739

The ratios of decrease of the total population by periods have been as follows: 1850 to 1853, three years, 13.10 per cent.; 1853 to 1860, seven years, 4.70 per cent.; 1860 to 1866, six years, 9.67 per cent.; 1866 to 1872, six years, 9.62 per cent.

From this it appears: 1. That the decrease of the aborigines, amounting to more than ten per cent. during the six years from 1872 to 1878, has been more than compensated by an increase in all of the other leading elements of the population, the gain in the total amounting to 1.91 per cent. 2. More than half of the numerical gain is credited to the Chinese; but this, as the census figures do not inform us, is due in main part to the immigration of Chinese laborers, who have been brought over from San Francisco in large numbers to work upon the sugar plantations since the reciprocity treaty of 1876 with the United States went into effect. For thirty years past, however, Chinese merchants and sugar-planters have formed a much-respected class of island residents. Never having been outlawed, like the Chinese in California, they have thriven in business and have settled permanently on the islands, often marrying the native women. As lately as March, 1876, a Government paper stated that "even the lower orders of Chinese are, we believe, reckoned by the Hawaiian women to make more faithful and attentive husbands than the similar class of Hawaiians." They sometimes even educate their children in the Christian religion. But the island Chinese—if a digression may be permitted—keep up a heathen respect for their ancestors. The present writer has often seen them finding their way in the spring to the graves upon the slopes of the hills near Honolulu, and depositing upon them their pious offerings of food, sweetmeats, and colored candles. It must be added, however, that practices more reprehensible and less pagan than these have been observed among the later Chinese immigrants; notably that the laborer, after marrying and accumulating his savings, would sometimes desert his Hawaiian wife and children and return to China, perhaps to a wife and family of an earlier date, to enjoy his little independence. This practice became, indeed, so frequent that it had to be repressed by law, with the result of encouraging the growth of the half-breed population.

3. The whites, American and European, supply the dominant element in the business and the religion of the islands, and take also a considerable part in their politics. They are distributed in the census under several items. The American and the British-born residents number 1,276 and 883 respectively; the "Hawaiian-born of foreign parents" (mostly American parents), 947. With other white foreigners the sum total of European birth or descent will not be less than about 4,000; and their sexennial increase has been about 25 per cent. In the numerical repair of the population the whites thus rank next after the Chinese. But the immigrant population is comparatively unstable in either case. That is to say, the American, European, or Asian-born resident may at any time return to his own country, and frequently does so; while the half-breed quits the island scarcely oftener than the aborigine himself. One might say that complete foreign parentage prevails against nativity, but that nativity and one aboriginal parent prevail as against one foreign parent. It need scarcely be added that in the islands, as gene-

rally where a more civilized is crossed with a less civilized race, the aboriginal parent is always the mother. As for the aboriginal Hawaiian, he never quits the islands permanently; and his leaving them temporarily, even as a foremast hand on a whaling ship, is permitted only under legal restrictions.

The immigrants, therefore, are likely to be in themselves a somewhat less important element in the rebuilding of the Hawaiian people than might be supposed from the census figures. The American merchant, physician, planter, returns with his savings to the United States; the American missionary too returns; but commonly without any savings, and to no asylum. A considerable part of the children also settle in the fatherlands, in the spirit of country lads who seek careers in the city. But with the second generation of unmixed descent a considerable increase of the white population may be expected. The resident children and grandchildren of American Protestant missionaries already number several hundreds, and early and fruitful marriages are scarcely less common among them than they were among their New England ancestors in the seventeenth century.

4. The half-breeds, though fewer in numbers as yet than either the whites or the Chinese, form under the present conditions the strongest element in the growth of the population. Theirs is no mere residence; it is an indigenous and permanent growth; more than this, it is an adapted growth. The half-breed does what the aborigine cannot do: he adjusts himself to the changed conditions of life around him; he is healthy and fertile. His Hawaiian mother generally dies young; his white or Chinese father perhaps deserts him; but he retains a firm foothold upon the soil. The children of white fathers by native women are of an energetic but somewhat volatile character; those of Chinese fathers have often a less active temperament, but are susceptible of a good degree of education and even of refinement. Both prefer the Hawaiian to the paternal languages. "Some of the largest families which have been borne to Hawaiian women have been by Chinese fathers," says the report just mentioned. The extreme fertility of the Polynesian-European cross has needed no further proof since the peopling of Pitcairn's Island, where indeed extreme fertility accompanied the closest in-and-in breeding. The "plantation," again in Bacon's phrase, of 1789 consisted of nine English sailors and nineteen Tahitians, six men, twelve women, and one infant—twenty-eight souls in all—of whom all the men but one were dead, either of disease or at each other's hands, by the year 1800. The accession of four "outsiders" only to the colony is recorded (1823 to 1832); but in 1856 the colony numbered 194 persons. It should be remembered, however, that no attempt to change the Polynesian conditions of living, at least as regards the women, was made during the first generation in this little community. They led the Polynesian life of license. The Europeans killed first the native men, and then each other; and it was not until all the males but two were gone that the survivors, Smith and Young, turned their hearts to religion and "diligently sought for the Bible and Prayer-book," for which they had not had any occasion before. The swarming children of that earlier and turbulent time were brought up under strictly Christian principles; and as the little island grew crowded they had to discourage early marriages. The Hawaiian half-breeds take equally kindly to civilization.

We have compared the movement of the Hawaiian population to the processes of a chemical experiment that has been thus far undisturbed. What disturbance of the movement, social and physiological, may come at any day from abrupt interference, as by foreign annexation or seizure, or by the importation of foreign labor, now greatly in demand, cannot of course be foreseen. But in the absence of such incident forces it seems that the repair of the island population is likely to come mainly from the half-breeds. Under present conditions Hawaii, like Chiloe, Brazil, and parts of Fiji, would replace its people with a mixed race, in which the white, the Chinese, and the Polynesian blood would be mingled. The blood of the pure Polynesians is thus fading as much as perishing. Judge Fornander, an American of thirty-four years' residence in Hawaii, dedicates his recent book on 'The Polynesian Race' (London, 1878) to his daughter Kaonohiulaokalani "as a reminder of her [Polynesian] mother's ancestors." The aboriginal Polynesian will be sought for in vain; but the strain, as in this case, will not be absolutely lost; it will have blended with stronger currents.

THE OPPOSITION LEADERS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, August 23.

THE close of the session leaves the Government weakened, but it can scarcely be said to leave the Opposition strengthened. What the former have lost the latter have not gained. It is not in politics as in the physical world. There forces are simply transferred or transformed. Here they seem, at least, to be spent. As Conservatism always profits by the public indifference and apathy, the balance of advantage arising out of this state of things will too probably remain with Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues. The fault, to speak the truth without reserve, lies mainly with the leaders of the Opposition, and may be distributed in about equal proportions between Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington. Mr. Gladstone's incessant and passionate activity wearies and estranges those whom it is his business to win. His denunciations and arguments are like too powerful shocks from too strong a battery, which exhaust instead of stimulating. Lord Hartington, on the other hand, fails to stir any active force at all. This apathy and Mr. Gladstone's overpowering excitement contribute equally to the same undesirable result:

> "Professus grandia turget;
> Serpit humi tutus nimium timidusque procellæ."

Both fail to captivate.

It would be too much to say of Mr. Gladstone, as Victor Hugo said of the first Napoleon, that he *gêne Dieu*. Mr. Gladstone's eminent virtues and his affectation of the part of a sort of terrestrial and human Providence to England may be endured. There is some reason, however, in the complaints which are made, not only by adversaries but by friends, of Mr. Gladstone's recent tone and language. He does not, indeed, after the fashion of Alexander, in Dryden's lines, "assume the God, affect to nod, and seem to shake the spheres." He is too humble and Christian for that. His fulminations are rather papal in their tone than pagan. Occasionally his denunciation of his adversaries seems to require that sort of check which the lines suggest:

> "Let not this weak, unknowing hand
> Presume thy bolts to throw,
> And deal damnation round the land
> On each I judge thy foe."

Mr. Gladstone is always careful to say that he never imputes motives, but he lets it appear, or rather in spite of all his efforts he cannot help it appearing, that he thinks his adversaries very bad men. Mr. Gladstone is essentially a theologian among politicians, and the theological temper is apparent in his denunciations. Like *Sir Fretful Plagiary*, when he is most excited he protests that he is perfectly calm. His angriest denunciations are accompanied with the assurance that they are the deliberate and well-weighed expression of his most mature convictions. His extremest exaggerations are followed or preceded by the statement that he is prepared to make them good in detail, word by word, and syllable by syllable. This is a phenomenon of temper rather generally human than peculiar to Mr. Gladstone, but it is a misfortune to see it exhibited in so extreme a shape and with such uninterrupted repetition by a man of his high character and historic fame. He still lives in a region of clouds and tempest. The ampler ether, the serener air, into which advancing years should raise a man he has not yet attained. The calm equity, the habitually gentle and indulgent judgment, are lacking which suit his experience and which would give additional gravity to an occasional severity of judgment. As it is, Mr. Gladstone's censure too habitually seems to spring rather from an excited temper than from a calm and fair estimate of men and things. There can be no doubt that men are getting tired of these displays. If Mr. Gladstone does not *gêner Dieu*, he bores the British public. His occasional writings and speeches—I do not, of course, use the word occasional in the sense of infrequent—seem to spring from a temperament which must express itself, from impulses which must find a vent, rather than from any urgent necessity making their utterance a duty. They are not confined, as all the world knows, to politics. Literature and art and theology, social conduct and domestic economy, suggest to Mr. Gladstone improvisations, both on the platform and in the periodical press, which are perfectly wonderful as examples of versatility and readiness, but which cannot be said to possess any permanent or intrinsic value. With immensely quick faculties of observation and thought, with interests to which scarcely anything human is foreign, with a memory at once ample and minute, Mr. Gladstone has acquired in the intervals of a busy public life an immense variety of opinions upon almost every topic which interests mankind. But the engagements of his public life have not allowed him the leisure to reduce those opinions to principles, to connect them with each other in an orderly and logical fashion, or to give them that form which raises their expression to the rank of literature. His various writings and addresses, so far as they lie outside the range of political debate, give little more than the haphazard notions, about things in general, picked up during a long life by a man actively

engaged in business of a special sort. This phenomenon is a very common one. The ideas about all kinds of topics which shrewd and intelligent men engaged in active life express at dinner-tables and in their private correspondence are often very interesting and suggestive; but they would not bear publication. Unfortunately, Mr. Gladstone does publish these incidentally and accidentally acquired opinions and half-formed impressions, hastily clothed in language which an unexampled copiousness of words suggests to him with a facility too great for happy choice or careful artistic effect. Mr. Gladstone's essays and addresses, outside the limits of contemporary politics, are for the most part the table-talk of a very able, variously, and of necessity superficially, informed and incessantly active mind upon all sorts of topics. If they had been collected by some assiduous admirer of the Boswell order from his casual conversation they would have possessed very great interest and permanent biographic value. Reduced by himself to writing, and published as contributions to controversy, they do not rise to the level of the professional magazine. Mr. Gladstone's reputation as a scholar and as a man of varied thought and cultivation would unquestionably have been higher if he had never written a line for publication.

In English politics, in spite of representative institutions and the ultimate power of general public opinion, individual character is an immense force. Personal government in one sense of the word will always exist. Unfortunately for the Liberal party, its leaders are less interesting persons than their opponents. Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury, in spite of many faults which a cool criticism detects, impress the imagination of their countrymen more powerfully, or, at any rate, take their superficial fancy more pleasingly, than any of their rivals. The strange curiosity which Lord Beaconsfield excites, the sympathy due to the courage with which he has fought his way and held his own, his self-command and self-restraint, and his whimsical cleverness, have a charm of their own. Lord Salisbury's heroic vein is often mere swagger and bluster, and his sarcasms have the coarseness of stage repartees; but he is, at any rate, trenchant and decisive. When an effect is made, few people will stop to analyze the worthlessness of the elements of which it consists. If Mr. Gladstone had understood how much more the half sometimes is than the whole, if he had practised some economy of his intellectual resources and personal appearances, if he had known the degree in which reserve and reticence not only stimulate interest but are essential to that personal dignity which no statesman in England, or anywhere else, can safely lay aside, he might have held his own against any antagonist in public opinion; but he has wasted and is wasting these elements of popular influence and legitimate moral ascendency. Lord Granville is rather a politician of society than of the great world. He rather greases the wheels of the political machine than contributes to the forces which propel them on. He is a man, probably, of finer taste and more delicate discernment than the late Lord Palmerston, whose good-humored jocosity he imitates. But there was a force behind Lord Palmerston's occasionally somewhat coarse bluster and his very bald jokes which the public does not recognize behind Lord Granville's more urbane raillery, and his more suave and fluent eloquence. Lord Granville seldom makes a speech which does not contain several good jokes and more than one apposite and telling anecdote. But the humor is usually a little in excess of the substance of the speech; the sack is out of proportion to the bread. If it may be said without offence, Lord Granville a little over-does the comic business. He is in danger of sinking the part of the hero of the Liberal stage in that of the first funny old man. If he could communicate to Mr. Gladstone a little of his playful and airy detachment in minor matters, or Mr. Gladstone could contribute to him something of his earnestness on grave things and his grasp of great questions, two at least of the elements essential in a successful political leader would be combined.

Lord Hartington's straightforwardness and a certain homely good sense, negative and slow indeed, but valuable as a check upon rash courses and heedless enterprises, are very good qualities in the leader of an established and secure majority; but they are not those which win victories against great odds, and convert minorities in the country and in Parliament into majorities. Lord Hartington wholly wants initiative, and he follows where he might at least seem to lead simply by his being a day or two, or occasionally only a few hours, too late in making up his mind. His conduct on the flogging question was an instance. In that matter, as in some others, he yielded, after a vain and public struggle, to the youngest but most active of the three members for Birmingham, and gave occasion to the Tory joke—it was Mr. Beresford Hope's, I believe—of his being the Vice-Chamberlain of the Liberal party. Mr. Bright and Mr. Lowe are rather surviving names than surviving powers. Mr. Bright retains much of his old eloquence; but he has not that general political knowledge and that acquaintance with administrative detail which are necessary to leadership. A certain roughness, partly due to temperament, partly acquired in the work of political agitation, partly, perhaps, attributable to the Quaker habit of bearing truthful testimony to the faults and to the faces of friends and foes, would make him impossible as a leader, even if advancing years, and energies declining more rapidly than his years advance, did not otherwise put such a choice out of the question. Mr. Bright has elevated a natural gift of personal rudeness to the level of a fine art, and the consequence is a personal dislike towards him which to a great extent undoes the influence that his great oratoric powers and his unselfish and consistent career have deserved. Mr. Lowe has been never more than a guerilla warrior, and seems of late to have lost his firm grasp even of the few and narrow principles which he used to apply at once with logical and rhetorical effect. If he has not retired from public life, public life seems to be retiring from him. With these men in the front rank of the Liberal party its leadership appears to be in suspense. The hour, perhaps, may bring the man. Whether it is to be Mr. Forster or Sir William Harcourt, Sir Charles Dilke or Mr. Chamberlain, or some yet undiscovered hero, is a secret of the future.

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JULES SIMON AND THE FERRY LAWS.

PARIS, August 22, 1879.

I ONCE met one of my friends, a very humorous journalist, who informed me that he had just arrived from Vienna, where he had been studying the politics of Austria. "How did you manage, as you don't know German?" "Oh!" said he, "I followed the military bands." In Paris the best method for a foreigner not acquainted with our language would be a daily visit to the kiosks, where the newspaper venders exhibit the caricatures. A superficial inspection would prove to him that the man of the day, the best-abused man of the season, is M. Jules Simon. "Comment en un plomb vil l'or pur s'est-il changé?" Two years ago, on the 16th of May, on that famous day which marked a period in our political history, Jules Simon was dismissed almost contemptuously by Marshal MacMahon, and his forced retirement was followed by a dissolution. Who deserved better than M. Jules Simon the support of the Republican party? The success of this party in the general elections was almost a personal success for him: his policy was vindicated, the country stood by him. Still, when the retirement of Marshal MacMahon took place, as a logical consequence of the general elections, and after a period of uncertainty during which the power of the Marshal was little more than nominal, the name of Jules Simon remained in the background. It seemed as if he alone could not recover from the blow of the 16th of May. Another man had become the acknowledged leader of the Republican party, another man had canvassed the country and roused the popular passion—the very man who had once been the adversary of Jules Simon at Bordeaux. When peace became necessary after the capitulation of Paris, the Provisional Government sent Jules Simon to Bordeaux, and ordered that general elections should take place in France, even in the provinces occupied by the Germans. When Jules Simon brought the decree of the Government to Bordeaux, Gambetta, who had during the siege of Paris assumed the position of a dictator, thought for a moment that he could continue the war, and tried to hinder the elections. He meditated for several days a *coup d'état* at Bordeaux; with his friend Ranc, with Spuller, and a few others he made all the preparations for resisting the decree signed by Jules Favre, by Simon, by the other members of the Government. It is well known that the interference of Prince Bismarck put a stop to these designs; Jules Simon and Thiers, who stood by him at the time, triumphed over the resistance of Gambetta. The elections took place; Thiers was made chief of the Executive power, and peace was signed. Gambetta, whom Thiers publicly called at that time a *fou furieux*, retired in disgust to San Sebastian in Spain, and remained there during the French Commune.

Ever since that time there has been a deep feeling of enmity between Gambetta and Jules Simon, and this enmity has now become quite apparent. Gambetta has given in France the signal for the *Kulturkampf;* he said in his last manifesto at Romans, "le cléricalisme, c'est l'ennemi." M. Jules Ferry may be considered as his lieutenant; Spuller and the physiologist Paul Bert (who writes the scientific articles in the *République Française*, which was long edited by Gambetta) are Gambetta's intimate friends. Jules Simon has taken his stand against Article vii. of the Ferry laws, and he advocates the principle of free teaching. I do not be-

lieve that he has chosen this position merely as a strategical one. He may have been deeply wounded by the ingratitude of his party; he had been the principal victim of the 16th of May, and he had been completely forgotten by the *triomphateurs*. It seemed as if his political friends could not forgive him the anxieties of a long electoral struggle. Still, the motives of M. Jules Simon must be of a higher order. He is himself a very distinguished professor of the University; he has been a disciple of Cousin, he has long professed philosophy in our higher schools; but in all his books—and he has written many—he has always given himself out as a perfect Liberal. Liberty for all has been his motto during a lifetime—liberty of teaching as well as liberty of thinking. He believes in the excellence of truth, and does not believe in the efficacy of persecution. He has a perfect right to say now that it would be a *shame*—he constantly uses this word—if, after having supported the principles of liberty when they were weak, the Republicans abandoned it now that they are strong and believe that the country is on their side. His opposition to Article vii. of the Ferry laws (the article which forbids all the members of unauthorized congregations to open schools) has been fatal to the law in the Senate. The Chambers were adjourned for three months before any public discussion could take place in the Upper Chamber, and in the Senatorial committee which was appointed on this subject the majority pronounced itself adverse to the article. This vote, which was given almost on the eve of the separation of the Chambers, does not involve the vote of the Senate. The result is therefore still quite unknown, and during the recess there is naturally a constant agitation in the country. The anti-clerical papers keep up an incessant fire on the unfortunate Jules Simon; he is represented in the caricatures in the costume of a Jesuit, and, as I have said, he is just now the best-abused man in France.

What will be the result of this agitation? I confess that I would not venture to prophesy it. The anti-clerical agitation is entirely artificial; it was not rendered necessary by any encroachment of the Church, or by any open attack on the Republican Government. One of the leaders of the Republican party, to whom I remarked that since the Republicans had had the majority after the 16th of May, they could not accuse the Church of having made France anti-republican, confessed that his friends had not much to complain of in respect of the Church; but he thought that something was needed in order to keep together the various factions of the Republican party. He argued that the 363 deputies who had stood together against MacMahon were divided in their political tendencies; they were all, or almost all, afraid of the Commune; they had to find some common ground on which they could stand together, and Gambetta, who is the leader of the majority, could only find the clerical question. France was completely surprised by his declaration of war against Catholicism. Though he called it clericalism, it is clear that Catholicism and clericalism are the same thing in a country where the immense majority of the population is Catholic. The French clergy has really given no serious offence to any Government for a long time; it has followed the rule, "Render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's." Some of its members may have a sentimental attachment for the House of Bourbon—a French priest can hardly forget that Saint Louis was a king of France—but did the clergy make any serious opposition to the Republic of 1848? Did they refuse their homage to Napoleon III.? During the invasion of France our priests behaved with much patriotism, and when the Commune broke out in Paris the Communists chose many of their victims from the ranks of the clergy.

It has been found so difficult for the supporters of the Ferry laws to bring serious accusations against the clerical teaching, that they have had to fall back on books of casuistry published in the seventeenth century; they read chapters of the 'Provinciales' of Pascal; but these old folios of casuistry are as much forgotten now as the books of the University of Paris which were in use in the lifetime of Abélard. Jules Simon, who is much more versed in French literature than M. Ferry, has chosen his opportunity with great art. He cannot be accused of harboring dark designs against the Republic—he is a Republican of long standing; he cannot be accused of being a clerical—he has always been known as a philosopher; he belongs to no church; his religious feelings are of the rarefied and idealized sort, which are neither Catholic nor Protestant, nor even Christian. He is as much in harmony with Plato as with Saint Paul. He is not so much of a Christian as Renan. All his philosophical works show him to be a mere Theist; and it may even be said that his Theism is not very remote from Pantheism. Such is the man who says to the Republicans: "Do not turn the Jesuits by force out of their schools." They can give him the hat of Basile in the caricatures; everybody knows that he is not Basile.

It is undeniable that the opposition of Jules Simon to the Government has produced a great effect on the country. I am inclined to believe that the majority of the people is on the side of toleration, and would prefer the policy of Simon to the policy of Gambetta and of the Government. But it must not be forgotten that no people is so politically timid as the French people; no people is naturally so little inclined to opposition when the Government seems a little determined. The ministers have all spoken strongly in the Councils-General, which are just now convened, in favor of the laws on education; they have tied their fate to the fate of their colleague, and with him they will stand or fall. The Councils-General have even been invited by the Home Minister to pass resolutions on the subject of these laws. Last year the majority of these Councils were still Conservative, and many resolutions were passed in favor of the liberty of teaching. I am sorry that I cannot yet give you a precise account of the declarations of our Councils-General. They are now just beginning their sessions, and a few days must elapse before the great question of the day is finally discussed by them. It would seem at first that the Councils-General must speak this year as they did last; but the political pusillanimity of the provinces is such that one year's tenure of office of the present Cabinet must already have worked great changes, not in the feelings, perhaps, but in the expression of the feelings of the respectable Councillors who represent the departments. The Government must not be offended, even if the Government is wrong: such is the state of mind of the great majority of those who call themselves conservative in the provinces. This spirit of submission made it possible for Napoleon III. to rule so long without meeting any opposition, and to engage France in many wars; and the misfortunes of 1870 have not changed this instinctive feeling of the Conservative party. This party will always cling to anything that has the appearance of an established power. It will be hard for M. Jules Simon, who is out of office, to triumph over his friends in office. Perhaps a compromise will be found at the end of the parliamentary recess, but what this compromise could be I confess I cannot well imagine.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your suggestion that "a less formal system of organization of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, such as that of the German Association of Naturalists, would be found beneficial," may be followed up with further suggestions on the same line—*e. g.*: 1. That the Association should print only the addresses of its President and Vice-Presidents, or such other addresses, lectures, or reports as the Association itself provides or calls for, along with a brief abstract of proceedings. 2. That the money thus saved be devoted to furthering hopeful researches, or facilitating the publication elsewhere of the best papers brought before it which may need such aid. It is, of course, understood that the greatest benefit of the meetings comes from personal conference of the members, both in the general sessions and especially in the sections, and in their presentation and discussion of the scientific work done during the preceding year.

A. G.

THE ONEIDA COMMUNITY'S CHANGE OF BASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in last week's *Nation* on Oneida Communism shows the penetration and sagacity which a reader of your paper from the beginning naturally expects; but you have been slightly misled by the Froudes and Macaulays of the daily press. It is unfortunate, if they must chronicle an internal cause for the late action of the Community, that they are obliged to fabricate one by piecing together old notes and conjectures, for they must try again. I explicitly deny that, "self-appointed" or otherwise, I have led any movement in the Community which has extorted this concession from my father, with whom I have been in substantial agreement for some time. We have had trouble from time to time for several years on account of my tendency towards what he calls "Positivism," but I have never allowed these differences to force me into any party antagonism. Your conjecture of collusion between the opponents of complex marriage in the Community and the clergy is unfounded.

Yours respectfully,

Theo. R. Noyes.

Oneida Community, Sept. 8, 1879.

MR. HULBERT'S APPOINTMENT BY THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My eye has just fallen upon a paragraph in your paper of August 28 which does great injustice to the parties involved. You are aware that statements often get into the papers which are painfully inaccurate, when not wholly false, and which, in their celerity of movement, defy all attempts at their arrest. Such is the item to which you have referred as going the rounds of the papers concerning my son in his service for the Bureau of Education at Washington, and upon which you have animadverted with such caustic severity. I have not made haste to correct the misstatement for the reason, suggested in your criticism, that it carries on the very face of it proof of its own falsity. I am surprised that a paper of the character of your own should put a moment's confidence in such an absurdity, and then advance, without enquiring into the truth of the rumor, to your ungenerous personal assaults. It is not true that my son has received what may properly be denominated an *appointment* by General Eaton; much less is it true that he has been sent forth "as a travelling commissioner to go to Europe and examine the systems of education in Great Britain and the Continent." But it is true that, having an half-formed purpose to visit England, and possibly the Continent, and to defray his expenses by his own exertions, that purpose was made complete by the Commissioner's engagement of his services in behalf of the Bureau while travelling in the *rural sections* of England, and for the period of *two months;* and for this service he does not receive a compensation which will more than cover one-half of his expenses. General Eaton has not provided "a chance" for my son to travel in Europe at the expense of the Government. As to whether the Commissioner is "guilty of an outrageous piece of favoritism" in engaging my son to render a responsible service, limited as to place and time, for a simple pittance in compensation, and whether there has been such an unworthy "connivance" as that which you charge upon the Commissioner and myself, and whether I have acted a part unbecoming my official position, I will leave for the public to judge.

Respectfully yours,

C. B. Hulbert.

Middlebury College, Vt., Sept. 2, 1879.

[Yes; but why should a young man who has just left college, who knows nothing of England, and cannot have much, if any, experience of systems of education, be employed on a public service which, if worth doing at all, ought to be done by a thoroughly competent person and in the best possible manner, even for two months and even in "the rural sections of England," and even for half his expenses? Why should official weight and character be given to his reports on education in any part of the world? The story, as circulated, is undoubtedly a great exaggeration, and does injustice to Mr. Hulbert; but if we cannot rely on college graduates to refuse even countenance to abuses, great or small, of the public patronage, on whom can we rely?—Ed. Nation.]

CIVILIAN APPOINTMENTS IN THE ARMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 7th of August, remarking upon the list of civil appointments to vacant second-lieutenancies in the regular Army, you say: "It is well known that the first or 'orderly' sergeants of the companies of the line perform virtually all the official work of their companies beyond certain signatures and parade posturings." The *Nation* is usually so correct in its statements that it is painful to see it falling into the error so common to uninformed civilians, that Army officers are ornamental appendages with no labors or duties connected with their positions. The remark must have been hasty and ill-considered, for heretofore the *Nation* has not been slow to acknowledge the services of the poorly-paid and hard-worked officers of the Army.

The duties of a first sergeant are responsible and important, but they are strictly those of an enlisted soldier, are subordinate in their nature, and are confined to such details of administration as can best be performed by a soldier who lives with, and is in constant association with, other soldiers. His duties require but a very limited amount of education, but require habits of self-control, of honesty, firmness, and impartiality, which entitle those who worthily occupy the position to much respect and confidence. They are duties which could not be performed by a commissioned officer, but yet it is necessary that they should be constantly supervised by one; and if it were possible for a company commander so to neglect his duties as to leave the virtual performance of all of the official work to his first sergeant, the fact would at once become evident in the non-effectiveness of his company. Under our present system of inspections and responsibility it is not possible for an officer thus to neglect his duties and retain his position. If a moment's consideration is given to the multifarious nature of the wants and needs of a company, be it infantry, cavalry, or artillery—its equipment, its discipline, its instruction, and its command—it should be evident that the company commander must have official work, and plenty of it, "beyond signatures and parade posturings," which cannot be delegated to the first sergeant.

I believe the fact that so few non-commissioned officers are appointed to second-lieutenancies is due rather to a want of material than to any disposition on the part of line officers to ignore the claims of deserving men. If the class of men spoken of by the *Nation* existed, it would seem that the company commanders, with whom the recommendations originate, would prefer, for their own comfort, the appointment of well-instructed soldiers to that of green civilian youths, who can be of but little use until they have served for some time. But the fact is that the number of non-commissioned officers fit for promotion, deplorable though the fact may be, is extremely small. In the vast number of cases where there is sufficient education and ability, the soldier is unfitted by habits of dissipation. In my own regiment there have been two recent cases where it has been found necessary to cancel the recommendations for this cause.

The cause of the want of character in the enlisted men may, I think, be found in our vicious system of recruiting; in which the officers are located in the slums of large cities, and, of necessity, pick up a large percentage of the vicious and depraved, who degrade the service and discourage the respectable class from entering.

The real evil in the appointment of these civilians is the method of their selection and the very slight educational requirements.

A Line Officer from the Ranks.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of August 7 you say, with reference to appointments in the Army, that "when commanding officers of military subdivisions and members of boards find that they cannot secure the appointment of their own friends and relations in civil life through the rejection of soldiers, there will be plenty of the latter who will pass the required examination," etc. Will you kindly specify what commanders of military subdivisions or what members of boards you refer to, for if you have no facts to sustain your innuendo you are unjust, while if you have any it will be of advantage to the service, and indirectly to the country, to name the offenders. You are probably ignorant of the nature of the examinations passed by such non-commissioned officers as have been rejected, but your ignorance on the subject gives you no excuse for making unfair reflections.—Yours with due respect,

A Member of a Board.

[To this we reply that it is not possible to enter into the consciences of the five hundred members of boards and commanding officers recently connected with the examination and recommendation of candidates for promotion from the ranks of the Army, or to expose the motives of any of them in any particular case. Neither the endorsements of the commanders nor the actual examinations of the boards are made public; but if they were, the former may be, and often necessarily are, expressed in terms of personal opinion not within the range of criticism; and the latter, unless conducted altogether by written questions and answers, or phonographically reported, would prove nothing. There is, however, no injustice in drawing from the only facts that are officially published deductions applicable not to persons but to whole classes of public servants and to a general system, though we freely admit that the wording of the observation to which our correspondent objects was unfortunate and liable to misconstruction. We remarked, wholly without reference to individuals, upon the grand result of a perfunctory compliance with a statute of the United States preferring soldiers, next after the graduates of West Point, before civilians, which ended in the appointment of four enlisted men (exclusive of two or three from the Signal Service, whose cases are under special law and in another category), and a preliminary list of twenty-three civilians, a number of whom are officially designated by the

War Department as relations of Army officers, as if that were the avowed motive for their selection. It is not essential to a comment regretting this result that any of the successful civilians should be proved to be the actual blood relatives or personal friends of any particular officers charged with the duty of examination and recommendation. Commissioned officers pride themselves upon constituting one military family, with close ties offensive and defensive, and, besides those on the favored list, there were several hundred unsuccessful civilian applicants, in some of whom some officers among the hundreds concerned probably took a natural interest. It must be noted also that the list of twenty-three forms only the advance of the civilian invasion, as the soldier element is supposed to be exhausted for an indefinite time to come.

The matter is one too comprehensive and serious to be disposed of by, or to be allowed to degenerate into, a personal controversy, as it affects the relations of the whole body of officers to the whole class of soldiers. It is either true that there exists among commissioned officers of our Army a strong prejudice against promotion from the ranks, with the hope of, and apparently recognized claim for, favor to "the military family" in the filling of vacancies—the whole tendency being to influence, perhaps unwittingly, the discharge of a duty imposed by law; or, on the other hand, the personnel of the rank and file of the Army of the United States is abominably bad and hopeless. There is something wrong about one of the two classes, if not about both. Twenty-five thousand men are now in service, any of whom can be appointed by his immediate commander to the grade of non-commissioned officer and be eligible under the law for examination as second lieutenant. If during many months only four out of these thousands have been found to be fit by general education and moral character for that promotion, having already the military skill not possessed by civilians, there is surely something radically vicious in our present system. The fact is the more surprising when it is officially asserted, and is obviously true, that the recruits to the Army during the last five years have shown a high standard both in education and morals. It is quite possible that few applications were actually made and pressed by enlisted men for the examination in question, but that explanation would be a fatal admission, suggesting the cause to be that the soldiers are generally impressed with a feeling that it would be of no avail for them to combat the prejudice before referred to. It is probable that if, by an amendment to the present law, suggested in our remarks, the selections for vacancies should be strictly limited to actual soldiers, after exhausting the Military Academy, those soldiers would be offered an honorable incentive which would redeem them from their present miserable condition. If their past failure is wholly due to defective education, that could readily be supplied by the military schools of all well-ordered posts, and if it is their moral character that constitutes the objection, ambition is more likely to improve it than despair. So that while it is neither practicable nor profitable to charge criminal malfeasance in the matter under discussion upon any particular officer or in any special case, all the facts publicly known corroborate the statement made by us, that when officers find that no vacancies can be filled from that class outside of the ranks which is now actually favored by the appointing power, and in which they take a natural interest, there will in fact be found plenty of soldiers who will pass the required examination, even if the latter shall be rendered able so to do merely through the working of a more judicious system, and through release from a possibly unjust suspicion of prejudice.—Ed. Nation.]

THE INDEPENDENTS IN THE COMING CANVASS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of August 21 you echo the enquiry, which had already been made by *Harper's Weekly* and the Boston *Herald*, as to what has become of the Independents of 1876. As one of that body, and a not inactive participant in the Fifth Avenue Hotel conference, I have waited with some curiosity for any response your enquiry might call forth. None seems to have come—at least you have made none public; and yet the enquiry was certainly a most pertinent one. Under ordinary circumstances the Independents ought to make their presence felt in the discussion which precedes the Presidential canvass. Then the party lines are forming, and their formation can be influenced. After they are formed the Independent can do little more than join himself to the one side or the other.

The question, however, naturally suggests itself, Are the existing circumstances ordinary? I think they are not. They are wholly different from what they were in 1876. In May of that year I attended the Fifth Avenue conference, and in November I voted for Mr. Tilden. Little confidence as I then had, and less as I now have, in Mr. Tilden personally, I regret that he was not inaugurated, as he certainly was elected. Under his skilful and cunning manipulation, the Democratic party, rendered timid by the possession of power, would have become highly discreet and conservative; while the Republicans, transformed into an energetic and aggressive Opposition, would both have prevented any serious public harm and educated the country to better things. The greatest boon this country can now hope for is just that—a weak Administration and a powerful Opposition.

The total incapacity for political leadership and the absolute genius for blundering which the Democratic party has displayed during the last three years are qualities certainly not calculated to allure recruits. As a force in opposition it now is, as for eighteen years it has been, a complete and utter failure. In itself this is a small matter, but unfortunately in all free countries it is to the Opposition that you must look for the aggressive enunciation of principles. Political parties should come into power not to hold the offices but to carry out a public policy which has been matured while the long struggle for power was going on. It was so with the Republican party in 1861. This the modern Democratic party has never been able to appreciate. Accordingly it has had no principles whatever, and has none now. A reed shaken by the wind, it has relied for a return to power on the popular discontent with the long-continued rule of the Republican faction. The one idea of its leaders has been to catch votes, and to do this they have not hesitated shamelessly to consort with every political strumpet who has flaunted through the land. Greenbackism is the last.

These are not ordinary circumstances. The strength of the Independent rests in the fact that party leaders believe that, under certain conditions, he will assuredly join their opponents. This is the ground he stands on. By their course during the last three years the Democratic leaders have done their very best to cut this ground out from under our feet. On the other hand, during these years Mr. Hayes's Administration has been thoroughly clean and respectable. Under such exceptional circumstances as these how can the Independent be otherwise than silent and quiescent? If, for instance, the understood candidate of the Administration, Secretary Sherman, should next year be nominated for the succession on the financial and business issues, I take it there is very little doubt that the Independents will quietly fall into line and vote for him. On the other hand, should any of the "Stalwarts" receive the nomination, there can be as little doubt that such of the Independents as do not stay at home will vote to put the Republican party in opposition.

Is not this view of the situation sound? and if it is sound, why should the Independents bestir themselves? They are there, and every party leader knows they are there. The only difficulty is that, until instructed by the elections in Maine and Ohio, the Republican leaders are not sure that the Bourbons of the war issues are not a more numerous element for conciliation; while the Democratic leaders incline to think that the Greenbackers count more votes. With each it is a pure question of vote-catching. They will make up their minds presently in the light of the election returns. Meanwhile, in the even balance of parties, things seem to be going on very comfortably. The Republicans seem likely to be beaten in New York, and the Democrats in Ohio. Both results are desirable, as the first will smash the Republican machine, and the last the Democratic-Greenback alliance. Then we shall see clearly. If the Republicans make respectable nominations and put themselves on the business issues, well and good. If they fail to do so, the alternative is not a very dreadful one. With a powerful and aggressive Opposition, led by incomparably the best parliamentary ability in the country, even Democratic stupidity in power could not in four years do any considerable public harm. In every way it would be far less politically dangerous than four years more of what the Grant régime was. Times of bad administration are times of active political discussion; and, looking to the best results ten years hence, it may well be doubted whether any intelligent Independent would now feel called upon to lift a finger to put

one of the two political parties in power, or keep the other out, as the end of all the President-making which the coming year is to witness.

I sincerely hope, however, that in response to your enquiry I shall not be the only one of those who met at the Fifth Avenue who is now heard from. A.

Boston, September 7, 1879.

Notes.

A. WILLIAMS & CO., Boston, have just issued a facsimile, at scale, of Hales's large map of that city in 1814. The details are carried so far as to indicate by the mode of etching the public or private character of the buildings, and their construction of wood or otherwise. In point of outline and general topography this map marks the division between old and new Boston, and possesses a high degree of interest for all students of the city's history.——Some maps in the seventh annual report of the Boston Board of Health, which reaches us at the same time, show forcibly the consequences of the growth of population in the last half-century. The dependence of the health of the city on a connection of its sewage system with that of its suburbs in the watershed of the Charles and the Mystic was undreamt of in 1814, but here proves to be a fact calling for immediate recognition. The Board makes some practical recommendations about inspection of all drainage plumbing, and traces in a striking manner the relations between diphtheria and unsanitary premises.——Mr. Ervin T. Case's 'Battle of the Mine,' in the Rhode Island series of personal narratives of the rebellion (Providence: S. S. Rider), to which we have often alluded, is one of the most graphic yet published. Slighter, yet not wholly valueless, is Mr. Edwin Metcalf's reminiscences of service with the 3d Rhode Island. "Rhetorical finish is of no consequence," doubtless, in these familiar papers, but perhaps the proof-reader should be allowed greater license than to pass such expressions as (p. 28) "I don't know as I asked myself . . . but I recollect very well of thinking."——The late General Hood is said to have left a manuscript history of the war, which he had intended to publish this autumn. It is to be hoped the report is true.——The seventh Congress of Women is to be held in the Capitol at Madison, Wisconsin, on Oct. 8–10. The topics for discussion embrace the fields of science, education, and social science, and the number of speakers set down under each increases in the order just given. Five doctresses are among them, besides nine married and three single ladies. Mrs. Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi will discourse on the Physical Basis of Mind; Mrs. Anne Mitchell Macy on Children's Books; Miss Abby W. May on the Work of Women on School Boards; Miss Charlotte E. Finch on Girton College; Miss Lavinia Goodell on Women in the Law; Mrs. Julia Ward Howe on Women in Western Europe, and there are numerous other pertinent subjects announced to be treated by less well-known names.——The following English announcements we take from the *Athenæum*: 'England: its People, Polity, and Pursuits,' by T. H. S. Escott; 'Morocco,' from the Italian of Edmondo de Amicis; 'American Painters,' by G. W. Sheldon; 'With the Armies of the Balkans and at Gallipoli in 1877–78,' by Lieut.-Col. Fife-Cookson; 'Natural History of the Ancients,' by the Rev. W. Houghton; and a 'Biographical Dictionary of Scotchmen,' by Joseph Irving, which may deserve a place beside Mr. Alfred Webb's 'Compendium of Irish Biography.'——In the same issue (Aug. 23) Dr. Schweinfurth furnishes the *Athenæum* with an interesting account of the travels of Dr. Wilhelm Junker on the upper Nile. This well-qualified explorer was able to correct Schweinfurth's own itinerary, and his discoveries along the divide between the Nile, the Albert Nyanza, and the head-waters of the Welle are of the first importance. At this writing he should be on his way to the Monbuttu country again.——The report prematurely made in the latter part of May of Prof. Nordenskiöld's safe arrival in Eastern waters has now come true. The *Vega* was released on the 18th of July, and passed East Cape into Behring Straits on the 20th. After some dredging in those northern waters, Yokohama was reached on Tuesday, September 2. It is a singular commentary on the supposed perils of Arctic navigation that this unprecedented voyage was achieved without loss of life or property, while the ship *Nordenskiöld*, sent eastward to the *Vega's* relief, was lost off Yesso a fortnight after the former had entered the Atlantic.——Of Prof. Daniel Sanders's 'Ergänzungswörterbuch' ('Dictionary of the German Language' supplementary to all existing dictionaries, including that of Grimm), which has been already mentioned in the *Nation*, the first two parts, comprising the letter A and a small portion of B, have appeared.——Part 6 of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' (B. Westermann & Co.) continues the history of Greece to the battle of Mantineia and enters upon the Macedonian period. The illustrations of statuary and architecture are as numerous and as well executed as usual, and include the great Attic poets, historians, and orators of the time. Maps of Attica and Laconia are added.

—Recent bulletins of the Treasury Department contain decisions of Secretary Sherman upon certain art matters that are interesting. The customs officers at this port having charged a duty upon engravings printed in this country from an American plate, but sent abroad for the signature of the artist who painted the original picture, appeal was taken to the Secretary. The decision was sustained on the ground that the engravings return in a different condition and with an increased value. This has led to the suggestion that foreign autographs, especially those of crowned heads, for collecting which some persons have a mania, ought not to be allowed the benefit of the free list, as they are at present, unless the receiver is prepared to make affidavit that they are not imported for sale. In Philadelphia Miss Sarah Hecker has been obliged to pay a higher duty on some pottery she imported because it had been decorated abroad, and so came under the head of decorated china-ware. In her appeal to the Secretary she set forth that this decoration had been done by an American artist, and that, therefore, her pots and jars should have been admitted as undecorated pottery, the duty on which is low. Her appeal, it is needless to say, was not sustained, and American artists residing abroad may heed the hint thus given them and take care to paint only on American material if they do not wish to be suddenly summoned some day to pay the same duty as that charged on foreign pictures. The law, again, now allows the free importation of "cabinets of coins, medals, and all other collections of antiquities, specially imported and not for sale." The last clause was added in 1874, and has, no one needs to be told, a prohibitory effect in many instances. Museums and galleries are proverbially poor, and it is impossible for them to watch European opportunities to enrich their treasures. Such duties as have recently been imposed on classical antiquities will, of course, prevent their importation with any chance of disposal to any of the museums or private galleries. But it is evidently in vain to rely for relief on "a liberal spirit of interpretating the law," as the appellant usually does. In the words which generally deny his appeal, "relief must be sought from Congress."

—The latest report of the excavations carried on at Olympia by the German commission under Prof. Curtius chronicles among the discoveries made in April the finding of three heads and three torsos in marble, besides numerous inscriptions. The commission is now principally interested in completing the groups of the east pediment of the temple of Zeus. The first found was the head of Kladeos, a river god, which exactly fits the torso found in the first year of the excavations. The whole figure is described as the type of the Greek youths of the best period, but conceived in a somewhat ruder spirit than that of the best statues. The entire left leg of an aged man "seated in a meditative posture" was found at the east end of the Altis, though belonging to the western pediment, a circumstance of importance in connection with the investigation hereafter of the west-end débris. The massive legs and right hand of the colossal figure of the west pediment were discovered about 170 metres from the body. Among the metopes found was a fragment of the helmet of Geryon, a head of Hercules, looking to the right and the third of the kind found last spring. Most of the other important fragments belong to the Roman epoch: a nearly perfect head of Faustina, the wife of Antoninus Pius; a draped and headless figure supposed to be one of the statues of empresses by Metroon; and a number of nude torsos, the remains of idealized portrait-statues apparently, which were dug up from the ruins of a cottage built on the side of the Leonidaion. One of the most important inscriptions discovered is on a pedestal erected by Mummius "to efface the sad memory of the destruction of Corinth by fire." Another is signed by a Macedonian artist, Herophon, hitherto unknown; still another is on the pedestal of the statue of Alexander the Great's messenger, Philonides, mentioned by Pausanias.

—No. 57 of the supplementary numbers of *Petermann's Mittheilungen* contains an exhaustive statistical account of the production of precious metals from the time of the discovery of America to the year 1875, by Professor Soetbeer, of the University of Göttingen. The author mentions in his introductory notice the great difficulties of his task, and acknowledges that many of his figures can only be proximate. Nevertheless, they are as exact as it is possible to make them, no doubt, and are

both valuable and suggestive. There are no trustworthy data down to 1568, when the Frenchman Jean Bodin gave his details of the importation of precious metals from the New World. All later publications on the same subject gain in interest and trustworthiness as the knowledge of the countries in question extends over a wider range. Details of value are found in Sancho de Moncada's work on the same subject (Madrid, 1619), in Ussariz's celebrated 'Teoria y practica del commercio y de la marina' (1740), and in the Abbé Raynal's well-known 'Histoire philosophique et politique des établissements des Européens dans les deux Indes' (Geneva, 1782). Humboldt's statements and statistics on this subject are contained in chapter xi. of his 'Essai politique sur le Royaume de la Nouvelle Espagne' (Paris, 1811). They are distinguished from previous similar publications by a careful enquiry into the product of a few of the most important mining districts during certain limited periods. His figures regarding the gold and silver products of the countries over which he travelled in the beginning of this century, as well as the aggregate amounts of precious metals that had come into the markets of the world from the South American mining districts since their discovery, have been quoted again and again to this day as trustworthy authority. We cannot, however, follow Prof. Soetbeer in his exhaustive critical examination of the sources and material from which his own and other statements have been drawn, and merely give in a tabular form the results of his laborious enquiries:

View of the aggregate Amount of the Production of Precious Metals in the World from 1493 *to* 1875.

(The weight is in kilogrammes : 1 kilo.=2.20 lbs. avoirdupois. The value is in German marks : 1 mark=about 23.84 cents.)

Country.	Weight.		Value.		
	Silver, Kilogr.	Gold, Kilogr.	Silver in 1,000 Marks.	Gold in 1,000 Marks.	Total Value in 1,000 Marks.
Germany	7,904,910	.....	1,422,884	....	1,422,884
Austria-Hungary	7,770,135	460,650	1,398,624	1,285,214	2,683,838
Other European countries	7,382,000	.....	1,328,760	....	1,328,760
Russia	2,428,940	1,033,655	437,209	2,883,897	3,321,106
Africa	.....	731,600	.....	2,041,164	2,041,164
Mexico	76,205,400	265,040	13,716,972	739,462	14,456,434
New Granada	.....	1,214,500	.....	8,388,455	3,388,455
Peru	31,222,000	163,550	5,619,960	456,304	6,076,264
Bolivia	37,717,600	294,000	6,789,168	820,260	7,609,428
Chili	2,609,000	263,600	469,620	735,444	1,205,064
Brazil	.....	1,037,050	....	2,893,370	2,893,370
United States	5,271,500	2,026,100	948,870	5,652,819	6,601,689
Australia	.....	1,812,000	.....	5,055,480	5,055,480
Sundries	2,000,000	151,600	360,000	422,964	782,964
Total	180,511,485	9,453,345	32,492,067	26,374,833	58,866,900

making in American money a grand total of about $14,716,725,000. The gold product in Germany and other European countries, as well as the silver product in Africa, New Granada, Brazil, and Australia, is included in "sundries."

—Prof. Soetbeer divides the 362 years from 1493 to 1875 into twenty-five periods of different lengths. In the first (1493–1520) Austria-Hungary ranks first with a total production of the value of 9,900,000 marks. Africa comes next with a gold product of 8,370,000 marks ; the West Indies next with a yield of 2,232,000 marks. In the second period (1521–1544) the South American countries come into consideration for the first time : Mexico with a total of 1,198,000 marks ; New Granada with 5,580,000 ; Peru with 6,867,000. In the third period (1545–1560) Potosi in Bolivia heads the list with 35,766,000 marks, almost one-half of the aggregate yield of the world, which amounts during the sixteen years to 79,830,000 marks. Forty years later, from 1580 to 1600, Potosi produced the enormous sum of 49,122,000 marks out of the whole world's total product of 95,992,000. The beginning of the eighteenth century witnessed the development of the rich Mexican silver-mines, which from 1701 to 1720 yielded 163,800 kilogrammes of silver out of an aggregate of 355,600 for the entire production, while New Granada yielded 5,000 kilogrammes of gold out of a total of 12,820. A century later (1801–1810) Mexico reached the fabulous amount of 553,800 kilogrammes of silver, of the value of 99,864,000 marks ; New Granada producing during the same period 5,000 kilogrammes of gold, Brazil 3,750, Chili 3,110. The United States appear for the first time in the period 1821–1830 with the modest figure of 110 kilogrammes of gold of the value of 307,000 marks. This is increased for the ten years following (1831–1840) to 850 kilogrammes, valued at 2,372,000 marks. The last years of the following decade revolutionize the gold market by the discovery of the California gold-mines, and the United States take the second place with a gold product of 17,600 kilogrammes (next to Russia with 22,515 kilogrammes). In the five years from 1850 to 1855 the United States yielded the greatest amount of gold ever produced in any country during the same period—88,800 kilogrammes, valued at 247,752,000 marks, or nearly one-half of the total gold product of the world, which amounted during these five years to 197,515 kilogrammes. A formidable rival sprang up in the same period, Australia producing 67,700 kilogrammes. The production of these five years has never been reached since in the United States. In the following five years (1856–1860) Australia stands first with a total of 86,700 kilogrammes of gold ; the United States next, with 77,100 kilogrammes. The following period (1861–1865) is that of the first development of the silver-mines of Nevada, the United States producing 174,000 kilogrammes of silver against 6,200 kilogrammes for the five preceding years, and second only to Mexico with 473,000. The last period of Prof. Soetbeer's estimate (1871–1875) shows a total production of 1,969,425 kilogrammes of silver, and 170,675 of gold. Mexico comes first with a silver product of 601,800 kilogrammes ; the United States next with 564,800 kilogrammes ; Bolivia next with 222,500 kilogrammes. The principal gold-producing countries are : Australia with 59,900 kilogrammes, the United States with 59,500 kilogrammes, Russia with 33,380 kilogrammes. A final table in Prof. Soetbeer's book gives a view of the production of precious metals during the twenty-five years from 1851 to 1875 :

Country.	Weight.		Value.		
	Silver, Kilogr.	Gold, Kilogr.	Silver in million marks.	Gold in million marks.	Total val. in million marks.
Australia	.....	1,812,000	.....	5,055.5	5,055 5
United States	5,271,500	1,840,500	948.9	5,135.0	6,083.9
Mexico and South America	18,570,500	231,935	3,342.6	647.1	3,989.7
Russia	397,790	694,080	71.6	1,936.5	2,008.1
Other countries	6,763,745	177,850	1,217.5	496.2	1,713.7
Total	31,003,535	4,756,365	5,580.6	13,270.3	18,850.9

—Prof. J. D. Butler writes us from Madison, Wis., under date of August 30 :

"The Genoese ambassador in England mentioned in your last number was by no means the only European who at no time deceived himself about the causes or chances of our Revolutionary struggle. Another noteworthy instance is Frederic the Great. The father of Sir John Moore, 'interviewing' that monarch in the summer of 1776, thus writes :

"'He said there were accounts from Holland that the English troops had been driven from Boston, and that the Americans were in possession of that place. I told him that our letters informed us that the army had left Boston to make an attack with more effect elsewhere. He smiled and said : "If you will not allow the retreat to have been an affair of necessity, you will at least admit that it was *tout-à-fait à-propos*." He observed that it was a difficult thing to govern men by force at such a distance ; that if the Americans should be beat (which appeared a little problematical), it would be next to impossible to draw a revenue from them by taxation, etc. He concluded by saying: "*Enfin, Messieurs, je ne comprend pas ces choses-là, je n'ai point de colonie: j'espère que vous vous tirerez bien d'affaire, mais elle me paroit un peu épineuse.*"'

This testimony from the first soldier in Europe has not, I think, been before drawn out of the obscurity of a forgotten volume of travels."

—We find in the *Perseveranza* of August 17–19 some interesting speculations on the future distribution of languages and nationalities on the globe, by E. Littré. He imagines Strabo, at the time of the greatest expansion of the Roman Empire, conjecturing that the world, or at least the ancient world, would ultimately be filled with the Latin name ; and yet nothing of the kind has occurred. The globe then had neither been traversed nor measured, and the unknown portion was too vast. In our time calculations can be made without risk of being confounded by the discovery of new regions, or new races of mankind. M. Littré begins with what he calls the Britannic group, and concludes that at no distant day the English-speaking peoples will number three or four hundred millions. The race which immediately challenges comparison with it is the Chinese, already arrived at that figure. So long as it remains inferior, in point of science, to the nations of Europe, M. Littré expects no great modification in its conditions. Perhaps he underrates the readiness of the Chinese to leave their native country, though he pays in passing a compliment to President Hayes for maintaining the sacredness of treaties against the "unbridled liberty" of Congress. Of the obstacles to their assimilation with the peoples who receive them he makes no mention. Russia is his third colossus, and his fourth the Spanish race, to which he consigns without a rival all of South America, except Brazil and the European colonies on the northeast coast. No other European race can dream of competing with these, unless it be Portugal. He assumes it as

certain that the vast territory of Brazil, capable of sustaining a hundred millions of inhabitants, will be all placed to the credit of Portugal in the partition of the globe. That one destiny and one nationality will finally unite the Brazilian littoral with the valley of the Amazon is, it seems to us, scarcely more than a probability. Germany has no chance in the contest; France can do nothing unless by encroachments on northern and central Africa. In the East, British rule in India may so leaven with science the native subjects that independence will be the result, in which case the Indian race must be counted one of the chief factors in the problem. Modern science might even revive the Arab influence over a wide area, but the Turks have had their day. Anglo-Saxon, Russian, and Spanish fecundity will eventually make the Christians outnumber all other religionists. The full development of Russia and the United States menaces possibly the independence of the non-expansive European States, and is quite likely to alter their rank in the scale of greatness. M. Littré hopes, however, that the progress of civilization will provide the same safeguards for the life of states that it has done for the life of men. The seat of the highest culture may, as was fancied by the author of the 'Vestiges of Creation' ("a remarkable book, written some twenty years ago in the United States by an Irishman"), some day be transferred from the banks of the Seine to beyond the Hudson and the Susquehanna; but there is no evidence that the result for Europe will at all resemble the effect on Babylon, Syria, Asia Minor, and Egypt of the passage of civilization from the East to the West.

HERBERT SPENCER'S DATA OF ETHICS.*

THE facts of evolution have crowded upon the thinking world so fast within the last few years that their philosophy has fared rather hard. Chaotic cohorts of outlandish associates, the polyp's tentacles, the throat of the pitcher-plant, the nest of the bower-bird, the illuminated hind-quarters of the baboon, and the manners and customs of the Dyaks and Andamanese, have swept like a deluge into the decent gardens in which, with her disciples, refined Philosophy was wont to pace, and have left but little of their human and academic scenery erect. Many of the previous occupants, though broken-hearted at the desecration, have submitted, in a sort of pessimistic despair, to the barbarian invaders. Others, temporarily routed, are uncertain what to do. The victors meanwhile, intoxicated with success, assume, for the most part, that Philosophy herself is dead, or that, if she still has vitality enough left to continue propounding any of her silly conundrums, she will be shamed to silence, as now one, now another, of the conquering ragged regiment stands forth to face her down. We are the truth and the whole truth, they cry. Emotion, in short, has paralyzed reflection on both sides, as it always does in sudden revolutions. But when the newcomers grow accustomed to their situation, and the original possessors get better acquainted with their strange bedfellows, things will settle down on very much the old basis. Mr. Spencer's successors will probably not feel, as he now does, that the study of the habits of filthy savages is far better than that of the lives of illustrious Europeans; and it will then be seen that questions as to the fundamental elements of existence, the fundamental grounds for belief, and the fundamental reasons for action and endurance, remain to be discussed as subtly after as before we learned that each phenomenon was evolved and had a peculiar history of its own.

The question about action is the most urgent of all, and it is therefore matter of rejoicing that such an incarnation, such a perfect sawmill, we were going to say, of evolutionism as Mr. Spencer should have seen fit to publish his Ethics in advance of their proper place in the work to which he has devoted his life. He has been led to do this, he tells us in his preface, from the fear that failing health may perhaps force him to leave unexecuted that final part of his immense task to which he has always regarded all the rest as subsidiary. "My ultimate purpose, lying behind all proximate purposes, has been that of finding for the principles of right and wrong, in conduct at large, a scientific basis." He adds that the volume now published, though it cannot, of course, contain all the specific conclusions to be set forth in the entire 'Principles of Morality,' of which it forms a part, yet implies them in such wise that definitely to formulate them requires nothing beyond logical deduction. These two hundred and eighty pages contain, then, the essence of Mr. Spencer's life-long meditations on human life. It is easy to feel, in the carefulness of the composition, the wealth of illustration, and clean-cut perspicuity of the style, that the author has done his very best to make the form worthy of the matter, and to render the book, if possible, a popular classic on the subject of which it treats. Such being the case, we shall best fulfil our reviewer's function by endeavoring to give as faithful a report as possible of its contents, unmixed with criticisms which, made on such a work in so brief a space, could not but appear shallow, or even impertinent.

Mr. Spencer's fundamental ideas are very simple. In the first place, we must, he says, in order to discuss rightness and wrongness in human conduct, have a fixed point from which to make our measurements. Such a point may be called Absolute Ethics, the conduct of the perfect man. But an ideally perfect man cannot be conceived to exist except in an ideally perfect social state. An absolutely just or perfectly sympathetic person could not maintain himself in a tribe of cannibals. To lay down the conditions of this perfect social state is then the purpose of the present volume. First and foremost, then, it is the state towards which evolution inevitably tends. This all-important assumption is one which Mr. Spencer takes no pains to justify here. Probably the inductive proof of it will be given in the unpublished volumes of the 'Principles of Sociology.' The deductive proof would probably run somewhat in this way: All social discord is friction; all friction makes resistance; all resistance ends, if prolonged, by stopping motion. The motions of society will thus perforce come to run exclusively in lines without resistance —that is to say, that the tendencies of each social unit will eventually harmonize with and be aided by the movements of the other units, and of the whole. If we grant that this is the inevitable upshot, we must see that this final condition is the one of all most favorable to extent of life, for not only is, by the hypothesis, every incompletely evolved degree of life accompanied by some murderous friction, but Mr. Spencer shows, in a chapter on "The Evolution of Conduct," that, taken in a broad sense, all action is for the maintenance of life, and that those forms of action which prevail where by common consent existence is most evolved (as in pacific and industrial human societies) are also those where life has the greatest length and "breadth"—by which latter word Mr. Spencer means variety, "depth" being a dimension for which no equivalent exists in his scheme—and where it is least exposed to waste or sacrifice.

Consequently, then, the perfect state, the definitively final state, and the state of maximum vitality are all synonymous terms. Every step towards one of these ends is a step towards the others. But what general end guides the steps of human beings? Happiness or pleasure—this is the universal object of pursuit; and Mr. Spencer shows that even those ethical theories whose avowed first principle is not "hedonistic," really do make conduciveness to happiness or unhappiness the test by which conduct shall be judged virtuous or the reverse. Does, then, the line of greatest happiness coincide with the three other lines of tendency which we have traced, so that those who pursue happiness will find that at the same time "evolution," perfection, and the maximum of this earth's life have been added to their portion? Most emphatically so, says our author; and whatever appearances may speak to the contrary do so only because they are interpreted in the light of too narrow an experience. This is another cardinal pivot of his doctrine, and is so important a matter that it is to be regretted that he has not gone more thoroughly into its discussion. He seems to content himself with a brief repetition of the theory advanced in his 'Psychology,' that any creature which should be made happy by actions noxious to its welfare, and unhappy by useful conduct, would end by expiating with its life its ill-adjusted æsthetic constitution. We find many misadjustments, it is true, in human beings, but these, like the love of murderous "sport" in industrial communities, are survivals from an older predatory social state, and are already dying out; or else, like drink, theft, murder, etc., are causing their unfortunate subjects to perish more rapidly than the rest of mankind.

Thus, little by little, none but life-subserving tendencies to behavior will remain. In a number of chapters Mr. Spencer tries to show what the complexion of the behavior must necessarily be among mankind if life is to flourish in a maximum degree. It must not be anarchic, nor, when social states are formed, must their mutual attitude be that of war. Though self-regard be for each individual the primary virtue, yet it must be so transmuted by sympathy that we shall preserve ourselves for the sake of our uses to mankind. Altruism and egoism will, however, be so justly balanced that "each takes care that others shall have their altruistic satisfactions; the highest altruism being that which ministers not to the egoistic satisfactions of others only, but also to their altruistic satisfactions. Far off as seems such a state, yet every one of the factors counted on to produce it may already be traced in operation among those

* 'The Data of Ethics. By Herbert Spencer.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.

of highest natures. What now in them is occasional and feeble may be expected with further evolution to become habitual and strong; and what now characterizes the exceptionally high may be expected eventually to characterize all. For that which the best human nature is capable of is within the reach of human nature at large. . . ." Although latent ideas will exist of the evils which non-conformity with perfect rectitude will bring, "these will occupy the mind no more than do ideas of the evils of starvation at the time when a healthy appetite is being satisfied by a meal." Nay, more; Mr. Spencer's is usually reckoned a dry sort of imagination, but can we longer so consider it when we read his Fourier-like account, in §94, of the way in which our facial expressions, our bodily movements, and our vocal cadences will become transfigured after our feelings have become all sympathetic, and there is no longer any utility in concealing any part of them from our companions?

Mark that in this perfectly-evolved condition all our virtue is to flow spontaneously from our natural constitution. There will be no self-compulsion in our justice, nor shall we be aware in the midst of our righteous behavior that we are acting for any ulterior end other than the love of the behavior itself. Increasing the total amount of vitality on earth will be far from the thoughts of most of us, unless, indeed, perchance the theory as well as the practice of evolution shall have become ingrained into the nervous systems of us all. This matter of blind spontaneity in virtue, resulting from the *means* acquiring an intrinsic attractiveness which makes it an immediate object of pursuit, and drives the *end* out of consciousness altogether, is much insisted on by our author as distinguishing his own from other ethical systems. These all, however, embody portions of the truth, and this is how he briefly awards to each its share:

"The theological theory contains a part. If for the divine will supernaturally revealed we substitute the naturally revealed end towards which the power manifested throughout evolution works, then, since evolution has been and is still working towards the highest life, it follows that conforming to those principles by which the highest life is achieved is furthering that end. The doctrine that perfection or excellence of nature should be the object of pursuit, is in one sense true; for it tacitly recognizes that ideal form of being which the highest life implies, and to which evolution tends. There is a truth, also, in the doctrine that virtue must be the aim; for this is another form of the doctrine that the aim must be to fulfil the conditions to the achievement of the highest life. That the intuitions of a moral faculty should guide our conduct, is a proposition in which a truth is contained; for these intuitions are the slowly organized results of experiences received by the race while living in presence of these conditions. And that happiness is the supreme end is beyond question true; for this is the concomitant of that highest life which every theory of moral guidance has distinctly or vaguely in view."

If now I, a defective and imperfectly evolved creature, full of joy of battle and other survivals from a savage state, say to Mr. Spencer: "I know nothing of your highest life, or, knowing, despise it"; and if I add to my other riotous deeds the sneering at evolution and the writing of sarcasms on its eventual milk-and-water paradise, saying I prefer to go on like my ancestors and enjoy this delicious mess of fears and strivings, and agonies and exultations, of dramatic catastrophes and supernatural visions, of excesses, in short, in every direction, which make of human life the rich contradictory tissue of good and evil it now is, how shall Mr. Spencer reduce me to order or coerce me to bow the knee? He is impotent over me by any theoretic appeal, and frankly confesses as much. Moral *obligation* he admits (p. 127) to be a transitory element in the moral life, and he tries with considerable originality to show how the sense of it arises by association of wrong conduct with external natural penalties and social restraints. With advancing evolution and increasing, orderly spontaneity, the coerciveness of the *ought* will little by little disappear. Even now I *ought* to do a thing only on *condition* that I dread certain consequences from the not doing of it. If I do not happen to dread them, I go free. This polemically weak point Mr. Spencer shares with all hedonistic or otherwise confessedly subjective systems of morality. His only superiority over them is this: that he has one more material bribe to offer me in behalf of virtue than they, one more bugbear to deter me from the path of vice. Your way will inevitably fail, he can say. Evolution's fatal tide will leave you naked, and high and dry, unless you join it. But if I am so ill-conditioned as to prefer remaining alone as a spectacle of impotent perversity to the ages, his *arguments* are at an end, and he must resort to brute force, if to anything, in order to lead me at his chariot-wheel.

And here comes in the peculiar personal bias of Mr. Spencer in this ethical matter. Whereas to all other evolutionary moralists the *status belli* has received a new consecration from the new ideas; whereas in Germany especially the "struggle for existence" has been made the baptismal formula for the most cynical assertions of brute egoism; with Mr. Spencer the same theories have bred an almost Quakerish humanitarianism and regard for peace. Frequently in these pages does his indignation at the ruling powers of Britain burst forth, for their policy of conquest over lower races. Might, in his eyes, would hardly seem to be right, even when evolution is carried on by its means. And this brings us to the only criticism we care to make: We can never on evolutionist principles altogether bar out personal bias, or the subjective method, from the construction of the ethical standard of right, however fatalistic we may be. For if *what is right* means *what succeeds*, however fatally doomed to succeed that thing may be, it yet succeeds through the determinate acts of determinate individuals; and until it has been revealed what *shall* succeed, we are all free to "go in" for our preferences and try to make them right by making them victorious. Now, it may be strictly true that, as Mr. Spencer says, no preference of ours possibly *can* succeed in the long run, unless, with its other contents, it be also a preference for peace, justice, and sympathy. But we still are free to decide *when* to settle down on the equitable and peaceful basis. A postponement of fifty years may wipe the Sioux and Zulus out of the game, and with them the type of character which they represent. Evolutionists must not forget that we all have five fingers merely because the first vertebrate above the fishes *happened* to have that number. He owed his prodigious success in founding a line of descent to some entirely other quality—we know not which as yet—but the inessential five fingers were taken in tow and preserved to the present day. So of minor moral points; we have to decide which of them the peace and sympathy shall take in tow and carry on to triumph. What kind of fellows shall we be willing to be peaceful with, and whose sympathy shall we enjoy? An unlettered workingman of the writer's acquaintance once made the profound remark: "There's very little difference betwixt one man and another, but what little there is is *very* important." Shall we settle down to peaceful competition already now with the Chinese? shall our messmates in the millennial equilibrium be of the fat-minded Esquimaux type? or shall we put up with some generations more of *status belli* in order to get a good congenial working majority of artists, metaphysicians, wits, and yearners after the ineffable with whom we may live contented? According to evolution each human type and exemplar of character has small beginnings, like everything else. The "best" is that which has the biggest endings. Mine may have these if I get ahead and violently crush yours out *in time;* yours, if I let the precious occasion slip and you outgrow and suppress me. For the conditions which once produced me, just as I am, may never recur again.

Mr. Spencer has forgotten to consider this inevitable field of warring antipathies, in which each must just fight doggedly and hope the event may prove him right. Or probably he has not so much forgotten as contemned it in his vast dream of universal fatalism. His work contains masses of strikingly-expressed criticism and illustration of the incoherence of our actual ethical standards. It is certain to form a powerful centre of crystallization for the fluid thought of recent days, and is, it seems to us after this first perusal, decidedly the most noteworthy production of its energetic author.

SEELEY'S LIFE AND TIMES OF STEIN.*

II.

PROFESSOR SEELEY has discovered a great historical revolution. Side by side with the English and the French Revolutions we must now, on his view, place "a third revolution not less important than either, which is the Spanish Revolution." Its importance consists, first, in its having given a new character to the struggle against Napoleon; secondly, in its having inaugurated the movement in favor of oppressed nationalities which has changed Italy into a nation and Germany into an empire. That any theory propounded by a man of Mr. Seeley's knowledge and talent contains elements of truth and deserves consideration, may be assumed as a matter of course; and whoever reads the 'Life and Times of Stein' will see that the book brings into prominence matters, such as the moral influence exerted throughout Europe by the Spanish insurrection, which do not always receive due weight at the hands of historians. But when every concession which is due to Mr. Seeley's learning and ability is made, the question still remains, What is the real worth of his discovery? has he revealed a new aspect of history, or has he sim-

* 'Life and Times of Stein; or, Germany and Prussia in the Napoleonic Age. By J. R. Seeley, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge.' London, 1879. Boston: Roberts Bros.

ply exaggerated a truism till it appears like a paradox? After careful consideration of Mr. Seeley's work candid students will, we are convinced, find it impossible to answer these questions in a way satisfactory to the professor's admirers. The discovery of a "Spanish Revolution" as full of import as the great French Revolution is certainly of more solid value than the discovery that Cobden was as truly an historian as Macaulay. But the introduction into history of a new revolution is, after all, an achievement due rather to literary ingenuity than to historical insight. For the account given of the Anti-Napoleonic Revolution, in so far as it is more than a statement of facts known to all persons and fully appreciated by all competent students, rests on a very one-sided version of the struggle against Napoleon, and on a very doubtful estimate of the importance and character of the movement which, according to the tone of Professor Seeley's work, was first revealed to the world by the Spanish insurrection, much as the first French Revolution was made patent to the world by the fall of the Bastile.

That Mr. Seeley's version of the contest with Napoleon does not square with all the facts of the case is, we think, obvious. The steadfast resistance of the Spanish nation to the imperial invader was undoubtedly an important and startling phenomenon, but the Spanish people were not the first to reveal the difference between a nation and a state. The whole contest between England and Napoleon exhibited to the world the force derived from national spirit. It was England, not Spain, which first pitted the strength of united patriotism against the gigantic force of imperial power. It was England, not Spain, which stood in the way of Napoleonic policy. The war in the Peninsula derived its permanent importance far more from its affording a field for the display of Wellington's generalship than from the strength of the insurgents, and at least one competent critic has doubted whether British resources might not have produced more speedy results if they had been employed nearer the centre of the imperial power, instead of being to a certain extent cooped up within the limits of Spain. The soldiers who cheered the English general as "the chap who knew how to leather the French," saw clearly one aspect of the war which Professor Seeley shows a tendency to overlook. Years of warfare had revealed to one general, at least, the secret of success. Napoleon trained up, so to speak, his own destroyers. From the minute when it was made manifest that tactics could be found which baffled the armies of the Empire, the charm was broken, and it became all but certain that the number of Napoleon's foes would at last crush the power even of his genius.

Nor, taking Professor Seeley's own account of the Anti-Napoleonic Revolution, does it appear that in Spain, Germany, or Russia popular insurrection achieved as much as is even by ordinary writers put down to the credit of popular enthusiasm. The people rising "as one man" is an impressive idea, but those who count on the effectiveness of patriotic insurrection should remember Palmerston's dictum, that if the people rise as one man they are extremely apt to be at once knocked down as one man. Palmerston remembered the Napoleonic wars, and drew from his remembrance the indubitably right conclusion that trained armies, not popular enthusiasm, are the one means of resisting a power based on military force. National enthusiasm no doubt contributed an element of importance to the struggle with Napoleon, but after all he fell before the combined states of Europe, and was but very indirectly the victim of aroused national feeling; and if the Napoleonic Empire fell partly because it outraged the growing sentiment of Spanish and German patriotism, it owed its fall at least as much to the conservative forces which had always opposed the Revolution. It was no mere accident that the ruin of the Empire led to the restoration of the Bourbons. The diplomatists who met at Vienna aimed, in the main, first, at guarding against future French aggressions; and, secondly, at restoring what may be termed the principle of legitimacy. The one thing they did not regard was national aspirations, and this oversight in the long run broke up their arrangements and gave birth to the doctrine of nationality, which has disturbed and remodelled the states of Europe during the last forty years. It is, however, of great importance to recollect what Mr. Seeley seems practically to overlook, that the enthusiasm for nationality was excited far more by the settlement intended to prevent the revival of Napoleonic power than by the aggressions of Napoleon, and that the revolution of the nineteenth century, if so it may be called, has its parentage not in Germany or in Spain, but in Italy, and that its heroes will always be, not Stein or Fichte, but Mazzini, Cavour, and Garibaldi.

That the movement in favor of nationality which has colored the politics of the nineteenth century cannot, even if Mr. Seeley be right in connecting it with the Spanish insurrection, be placed on anything like the same level as the French Revolution, may not be at first sight obvious to all our readers, but is nevertheless a position in which persons who weigh carefully the true character of political, social, or moral changes will, on reflection, acquiesce. The nature of the so-called French Revolution is obscured by the name which the greatest of all changes since the Reformation has received. The revolutionary movement in France was a part, and not, perhaps, in the long run, the most important part, of a general revolution throughout Europe, which may, in very general terms, be described as the effort of the European world to shake off the influence of feudalism. From its very birth the revolutionary spirit broke down national barriers and divided nations into parties, zeal for which overpowered local patriotism. Burke who denounced, the revolutionists who applauded, De Tocqueville who criticised, the Revolution, each at any rate perceived that, to use Burke's language, it "broke the locality of public affections," or that, to cite De Tocqueville's words, "*elle a formé au dessus de toutes les nationalités particulières une patrie intellectuelle commune, dont les hommes de toutes les nations ont pu devenir citoyens.*" Hence followed the result, which Mr. Seeley hardly appears to appreciate, that the Napoleonic Empire, the defeats and successes of the governments opposed to France, form only episodes in a movement of which the course has not yet run out. Hence, further, the Revolution influenced different countries at different dates. The ideas which have worked visibly in France since 1789 moulded the course of English politics in 1832, still convulsed Europe in 1848, and cannot yet be said to have lost their power. To judge of the Revolution viewed as a great effort to emancipate mankind from moral and intellectual prejudices, and from political oppression, it is vain to look at single events marking its course. To estimate the great changes of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries by the Reign of Terror, by the pacific triumph of 1830, or by the follies of 1848, is as vain as to test the merits or defects of the Reformation by the massacre of St. Bartholomew, by the defeat of the Armada, or by the horrors of the Thirty Years' War. All that mankind can as yet say is that a great effort to realize great ideas has caused some great calamities, and has not yet been crowned with complete success.

The moment the Revolution is regarded as a whole, the impossibility of balancing against it the movement in favor of nationality becomes apparent. This movement, whatever its worth, was to a great extent an effort of reaction. Admiration is due to Spanish patriotism, but it was mainly the patriotism of ignorance, and one may be permitted to doubt whether the worst effect of Napoleonic rapacity was not that in Spain it forced virtue and patriotism into an unnatural alliance with dulness and fanaticism against enlightenment and improvement. To the German war of liberation it is possible to give far more unmixed sympathy, principally because the enthusiasm which resisted the tyranny of Napoleon was also aroused against the still baser despotism of petty German potentates; but those who mark the really brutal language in which a person so eminent as Stein could in his old age address gentlemen engaged with him in public business, may feel that the revolutionary doctrine of so-called equality needed after the Napoleonic wars, as it probably still needs, to be impressed on Germans trained under the influence of feudal ideas. The nationality movement, again, never could from its nature be a universal movement. It has no application to a country such as England, nor had it till 1870 any application to France. The doctrine of nationality is, in short, either, as it was in Italy, a form under which people protest against oppression (in which case it may ally itself with revolutionary dogmas), or it is a reactionary movement against not only the errors but also some of the truest conceptions of the eighteenth century. The cry for nationality, if made an end in itself, may rouse race against race, on the ground, not of resistance to oppression, but of some supposed right to constitute a nation. Compared with the so-called French Revolution, the movement termed by Professor Seeley the 'Spanish Revolution' sinks, even when looked at as a whole, into comparative insignificance. The great Revolution is a European movement in favor, in the main, of rational principles applicable to the whole civilized world. The nationalist movement is either the revolutionary spirit under a disguised, and in some sense improved, form, or it is a reaction, which no doubt has a side of romance, but which from its nature appeals to local feelings, and therefore to what may be termed limited principles; which leads its votaries to aim rather at romantic ideals than at the attainment of good government; which may aid the cause of freedom in Italy, but which may foster military government in Germany or aggression in Russia. The revolution, in short, which Professor Seeley has discovered is, to speak plainly, no discovery, and has, further, no claim to be compared in importance with the great revolutions of the world.

THREE BRITISH VIEWS OF AMERICA.*

NOTHING could better illustrate the change which has taken place within comparatively few years in the attitude of the educated British public towards this country than these three books. They are, to be sure, written by British Liberals, who have for some time now had an interest in manifesting a certain American bias; whose American bias is, indeed, more or less the logical outcome of their distinctive principles. After Mr. Bright's championship, and considering the enthusiasm for "popular institutions" of the more radical of his party, it is not surprising that we should have gained so many advocates and admirers among his countrymen as to account for the conservative indignation awakened by Mr. Gladstone's recent article on "Kin Beyond Sea." But the Englishman may usually be so completely trusted to maintain the bias of patriotism that one is not altogether prepared for the heartiness of appreciation, the unprejudiced investigation, the evident predisposition towards not only our political "institutions," but our habits, manners, character, and institutions of all kinds, exhibited by Mr. Dale, Sir George Campbell, and Mr. Saunders in about equal proportions. Of course they by no means see everything in rose-color, and of course discrimination is quite as characteristic of their examination as candor is of their temper; but that their temper should be so unlike that one not unfrequently notices in English papers—for example, in the comments on the speeches of Rev. Mr. Talmage, recently—and yet so far removed from anything sentimental on the other hand, is matter for some surprise, perhaps, as well as for satisfaction. Sir George Campbell especially takes great pains to controvert, or rather expose, Mr. Trollope, who was prejudiced in his account of us possibly by a sentiment of filial piety. He notes, with well-bred astonishment that they should have been made, a score of Mr. Trollope's misconceptions and misreports and is as emphatic as any American could desire in his condemnation of them. And in each of these volumes we are a long way not only from the temper of the 'American Notes,' which was to have been expected, but also from the much more recent provincialism—still characteristic of serious English periodicals—of supposing even geographical blunders concerning "the States" trivial which, if made concerning the centre of Africa, would be deemed unpardonable.

Mr. Dale and Sir George Campbell spent but two months here; Mr. Saunders a much longer time, and so was enabled to make his examination more complete and searching. Mr. Dale's book, indeed, is entitled 'Impressions' with accurate modesty. He appears to have visited out of New England only the larger cities of the North, and to have been excellently taken care of by the ministers of his own denomination in New Haven and elsewhere. Sir George Campbell certainly made the most of his time, and took an extended trip through the South, making it a special point to investigate the relations of the whites and blacks and the condition, social and political, of the States which had recently "thrown off the carpet-bag rule" when he visited them. Mr. Dale considers, in four separate chapters, "Society," "Politics," "Popular Education," and "Religion," respectively, and his conclusions are of a general and comprehensive nature. Sir George Campbell's survey was perhaps as cursory—at least, one infers it to have been necessarily so from the far larger field which he covered in the same time; but he has an extraordinarily acute power of observation, he is an unusually experienced traveller, who was but yesterday "round" at China, and he confines himself to strict reporting and the simplest inductions, without attempting to systematize his inferences into the shape of a parliamentary commission's practical report. This last is done by Mr. Saunders much more thoroughly than by either of the other writers. He does, indeed, permit himself an abundance of general observations, but he made the subject of government, its comparative cost, extent, and practical workings here and in his own country; the system of bank management, the temperance question, the railway question, the land question, matters of especial and systematic investigation. We should say that his book was the most valuable from a political and industrial point of view; Sir George Campbell's from a social and literary, possibly human, standpoint; and Mr. Dale's for its educational chapter and the conciseness of its summing up.

Mr. Dale thinks us "a very reserved people," except in the matter of religion, which he found many persons—chiefly evangelical and accustomed to prayer-meeting frankness, perhaps—ready to talk about. As a rule, he concludes we are undemonstrative, which he attributes to New England influence, and not given to making a fuss, which he thinks due perhaps to the military discipline we got during the civil war. We are so apt to ascribe social demoralization to that event that we are inclined to doubt this, though the explanations of Sir George Campbell and Mr. Saunders, who note the same trait, are not perhaps more satisfactory. Sir George Campbell thinks it possibly due to direct English influence, and Mr. Saunders to the marching to the sound of the piano practised in the public schools—a form of discipline hardly old enough, we imagine, to have yet had universal influence. "To an English radical," Mr. Dale observes, "the conservatism of the people generally is very striking." He thinks that transported to England they would, after speedily disestablishing the national Church, join the ranks of the Conservative party. Mr. Saunders, on the contrary, says that the American would be very likely to look at the question of disestablishment in a practical way. "He would make himself acquainted with what the Church was doing, how far the work was useful, and what it cost the state; and it would be upon a balance of advantages to the community that an American would decide for or against disestablishment." Mr. Dale also thinks we have an almost superstitious respect for the rights of property. Mr. Saunders, on the contrary, says: "Public interests are regarded as being of far more importance than the rights of property, or private rights of any kind." Mr. Dale even finds a distrust of popular institutions "far from uncommon among the wealthier and educated classes." As to politics, he says: "America is the paradise of Home-Rulers"; he deplores the condition of the civil service—from responsibility for which he relieves Jefferson on the authority of Mr. Parton, by the way—credits Mr. Hayes with excellent intentions, but says Mr. Conkling's course illustrates "the magnitude of the task which the President has undertaken." As to the tariff, he makes the neat observation that "the unquiet ghosts of Lord George Bentinck's speeches are still 'walking' in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey." He views with some trepidation the hostility of "the Roman Catholic hierarchy" to the public schools, but still thinks its defeat certain, as any other result "would imply a complete revolution in the spirit and temper and habits of the nation." The subject of education, as we have said, he treats exhaustively; he notes the lack of grammar-schools, which he deplores, but thinks the elementary schools far in advance of those of England, though he finds much to criticise in our elementary education—among other things, that "the teaching is too good," the teacher does too much, with result of too much memorizing and too little discipline. His chapter on "Religion" is very nearly all sympathetic praise. One paragraph is worth quoting:

> "Our temper is, therefore, a 'militant' temper. I do not think that among my friends in America there was really less of Evangelical zeal, but they seemed to be less impressed by the constant presence of hostile forces which it was their first business to subdue. They were under less tension. They had more religious rest. They seemed to live at home—not in a camp. To me there was something very charming in the change."

And, remembering that Mr. Dale comes from Birmingham and is so expert in ecclesiastical and other controversy, there is something very charming, we may add, in this testimony.

Sir George Campbell is not what one would call a literary artist; there is a kind of frankness of attitude and hearty, good-humored disregard for the graces of composition in him which makes his book lacking somewhat in proportion and arrangement. Part of it is lectures delivered familiarly to various Scotch audiences, part is an article republished from the *Fortnightly Review*, part selections from a very copious journal which he kept during his trip. Despite this, or possibly owing to this, his book is an effective one. There is, for one thing, no possibility of suspecting it of any *arrière-pensée*. One goes along with the writer as trustfully as if he were having the same actual experience. Furthermore, Sir George Campbell's perceptions being as acute as his temper is candid, one feels the unlikelihood of his being humbugged by any one—a danger to be avoided certainly in a tour through the South—or misled by anything; seriously, that is to say. And as he has a quick eye for what is picturesque, and is, perhaps, a good deal of an artist by disposition without suspecting it or evincing it in his style and manner, his observations have an interest that is at times even vivid, as well as an air of trustworthiness. He sets out by telling his readers that our manners and language are based upon a foundation almost entirely English, and that what are called "Yankeeisms" are really obsolete English expressions. Naturally, too, he "found that an immense number of the best and most prominent men wherever I went claimed Scotch descent," and regrets that the founders of the Republic "didn't introduce a little Scotch cooking"; he found even oatmeal called "Irish oatmeal," and presumably came across no "haggis" at all. Speaking of other races and the emigration from New England

* 'Impressions of America. By R. W. Dale.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.
'White and Black. The Outcome of a Visit to the United States By Sir George Campbell, M.P.' London: Chatto & Windus; New York: R. Worthington. 1879.
'Through the Light Continent; or, the United States in 1877-8. By William Saunders.' London, Paris, and New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1879.

westward, he thinks "it would be a very curious thing if Puritan New England became a Roman Catholic Irish colony," as indeed it would. The typical "Daisy Millers" were all in Europe when he was here; the independence of "our girls" he decidedly likes, and "American women are among the nicest of their sex." The typical Yankee was "just a month fra Glasca." Political meetings are so orderly as to be dull. The cities are too big; in connection with which he appositely remarks: "I am almost tempted to say that for every man who works with his hands there seem to be two who seek to live by speculating upon him." No one sees America who does not see the small farmers who are the backbone of the country. Higher education somewhat disappointed him; "there is still a good deal of Latin and Greek taught." In rascality we are about on a par with England, though we sometimes punish our rascals "more adequately." He does not think that religion is "suited to the genius of the people of America, white or black"; from which opinion Mr. Saunders as well as Mr. Dale dissents. All three note a national preference for dearness over cheapness, which leads Sir George to advise winning a fortune here and spending it abroad.

This brings us to the most valuable part of his book, his statement of the condition of the South—especially valuable to an American. "I think the tone and temper of the people of the Southern States is very highly to be praised," he says at the outset; but his praise is by no means indiscriminate. The rapid civilization of the blacks through their political education surprises him, and he contrasts it with the slow improvement of the white serfs of Europe. In industrial arts, however, they have made, he says, almost no progress whatever. They are "inaccurate," "lacking in mechanical skill," do not make good factory operatives, and so on. Mr. Saunders notes, by the way, that where from any cause, such as climate, they do not come into direct competition with the whites, necessity has educated them to an equality with whites, even in factory labor. The notion that the blacks are improvident, in raising only enough to eat, Sir George says is false. On the contrary, they raise what will bring them the most money, and import bacon and corn from the West. However, they live too freely to save money to buy land and make themselves independent, as they might. Their migratory tendency he explains on the ground that they did not feel free till they had changed their place of living. The best class of the blacks is to be found in South Carolina, where more has been done for them and where they have done more for themselves. Beginning under unusual disadvantages, they now make a living where the whites could not—*e. g.*, in growing Sea Island cotton. The general condition of the negroes throughout the South is good, and the industrial relations between the races unstrained. His advice to the blacks is to "stay at home and make the best of an excellent situation," and to the whites, "Do all you can to keep this people, conciliate them, and make the most of them." As to the matter of carpet-bag rule and its succession of "bull-dozing," the writer manages to steer a very successful middle course between the "shot-gun" Scylla and the Stalwart Charybdis, it seems to us. At any rate, he preserves a quiet, "low tone" in treating the matter, which, if it pleases men of neither extreme, gives no comfort to their respective opponents, and furnishes small material for stump-speeches in Maine or Georgia.

Mr. Saunders's book is, as already mentioned, exhaustive, and has a permanent value. We have left ourselves only space enough to speak of a few of its more salient points; some of its statistics are worth giving. In considering the liquor question he finds that 47,000,000 of people here consume £93,000,000; whereas 33,000,000 in the United Kingdom consume £142,000,000; according to the alcoholic test—that is, taking the alcohol in spirits at 50 per cent., in wines at 15 per cent., and beer at 5 per cent.—we consume 1.024 gallons of alcohol per head, against 2.37 in Great Britain. In another view we do not justify this showing, as Great Britain drinks 40,000,000 gallons of spirits against our 58,000,000; Great Britain's consumption of beer and wine being 3½ times ours. The taxation for our 3,500,000 square miles is £59,750,000, or 25*s.* 6*d.* per head, for support of the general Government; Great Britain, to govern 121,000 square miles, £70,000,000, or 43*s.* a head. Our entire taxation, general, State, and municipal, is 44*s.* 6*d.* a head, and Great Britain's is 67*s.* 10*d.* a head, which is 52 per cent. greater in proportion to population. The three largest items of expenditure in both countries are given as follows: Great Britain, interest and charges on debt, £25,000,000; army, £15,645,700; navy, £10,586,894. United States, interest and charges on debt, £19,000,000; army, £5,867,-145; navy, £2,837,476. Details of comparison between this country and his own Mr. Saunders gives in great abundance. Our roads are much worse, a disadvantage partly overcome by the numerous "tramways." Great Britain is better prepared to repress violence, but on the whole order is better preserved here; life and property are equally secure in both countries. We spend twice as much for public education. Our public offices are arranged more simply, our officials are more prompt, and hence department transactions are easy for laymen; whereas "no civilian would go to a public office unless he was too poor to obtain legal help" in England. The cost of government here is increased, of course, by the large extent of territory; but, even if the army and navy of Great Britain were abolished, there would still be spent, for a more compact population, £40,000,000 more than we expend, as compared with population. The statistics collected as to the cost of railways furnish an excellent argument against the building of railroads by Government. The policy of giving away land is strongly reprehended. The national banks are highly eulogized; our savings-banks are called "very peculiar and dangerous institutions," and it is noted that in England the latter, which are under Government superintendence, are the more secure, while other banks are subject to disastrous failures; and that with us the converse is true. In fine, there are few chapters in the book from which an American may not obtain both instruction and food for reflection.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Burnett (Mrs. F. H.), Haworth's: a Tale	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) $1 50
Earl of Mayfield: a Tale	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 50
Greene (Lieut. F. V.), The Russian Army and its Campaigns in Turkey in 1877-78, 2 vols.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Hardy (T.), Distracted Young Preacher, swd	" " 25
Morgan (H. J.), Dominion Annual Register and Review, 1878	(Dawson Bros.)
Morley (J.), Burke	(Harper & Bros.) 75
Oncken (W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Part 6, Greece, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Reybaud (Mme. C.), Uncle César, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
Stickney (A.), A True Republic	(Harper & Bros.) 1 50
Strahorn (R. E.), To the Rockies and Beyond	(New West Pub. Co.)
Resources of Montana Territory, swd	(Helena)
Williamson (J.), Fern Etchings	(J. P. Morton & Co.) 7 50

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 18, 1879.

The Week.

THE long-pending conflict between the two sections of the State Democrats, the Tammany party, headed by John Kelly, and the Robinson party or Tildenites, as they are supposed to be, came to a head at the nominating convention at Syracuse on Thursday. In spite of several furious speeches against Governor Robinson—in which the only charge made was that he had disorganized the party by his removals of city officers—it was plain that his nomination was a foregone conclusion. Whereupon, amidst great disorder, the Tammany delegates, numbering seventy-two strong, withdrew from the convention to a hall of their own, where they nominated John Kelly for the Governorship. The Robinson men, whose Machine worked beautifully, thereupon nominated him for the Governorship, and Mr. Clarkson N. Potter for the Lieutenant-Governorship. The bolters were led out by Messrs. John Kelly, Dorsheimer (the present Lieutenant-Governor), David Dudley Field, and Augustus Schell. Kelly made a speech denouncing Robinson, acknowledging that he did not expect to be elected himself, but promising to defeat his enemy. It would probably be difficult to discover, either in ancient or modern history, a more corrupt and rascally political constituency than that which Kelly now heads, and its separation from the decent element in the party must be regarded by every one as a distinct gain for the whole community. The journey by which Mr. Dorsheimer has, after starting from Grant, reached Kelly through Greeley and Tilden, is in many respects equal to the 'Odyssey,' and could be only fitly described in an epic poem. The cycle of his political experience must now be complete; there can hardly be anything beyond Kelly to which he can look with hope or affection. And Kelly has David Dudley Field too, in many respects the noblest Roman of them all.

The platform asserts the political principles laid down by Washington and Jefferson; holds to the Constitution with the amendments; condemns centralization; pronounces the United States a nation to the extent defined in the Constitution; deprecates feuds, and strife, and "passions of the past"; demands honest elections and honest counts; denounces "the encroachments of capital" and "the despotic greed of corporations"; approves of gold and silver coin, but rebukes the Secretary of the Treasury for his "favoritism" and his "so-called syndicates"; looks with "shame and sorrow" (this appears to have been received with perfect gravity) "on the disgraceful repudiation of their professions of civil-service reform by the Executive and his supporters"; condemns the electioneering of Federal officers; congratulates the people of the State on the payment of the State debt and the reduction of expenses; applauds the Democratic State officers; calls for railroad reform; and winds up by a categorical demand for equal burdens on property, and prohibition of discrimination on railroad freights, of the competition of prison with free labor, and of Federal supervision of elections. It is a much better drawn platform than that of the Republicans, as entering more into details and giving more attention to State concerns. It distinctly pledges the party to the prevention of electioneering by Federal officers. This, no doubt, does not amount to much, but it is more than the Republicans ventured on, or could venture on, inasmuch as their candidate, if he represents any political principle at all, represents the principle that Federal electioneering is a Federal officer's principal work.

What the effect of the split will be in the party at large remains to be seen. That it has caused some trepidation is shown by the fact that the National Executive Committee is going to meet and discuss it. There is a strong desire prevalent, apparently, in the West and South to get rid of Tilden, but this does not seem to be possible. He owns the Machine, which he has constructed with much care and at great expense, and thinks, very truly, that at this important crisis in the history of the party it would be very injudicious to dispense with him and try a new man with very inferior apparatus, particularly as the Republicans in his own State have decided to fight a Machine battle. We wonder whether he personally shares "the shame and sorrow" of the Convention at the spectacle of Mr. Hayes's failure to carry out his promise of civil-service reform? If so, he must with his sensitive nature be fairly bowed down by it.

An excellent address to the Republicans of New York has been circulated during the week, calling upon them to scratch the names of Cornell and of Soule, the candidate for State Engineer. It opposes Cornell on the grounds of his having, as chairman of the State Committee, manipulated votes to secure his own nomination; because of his want of fitness for the office; "because he was nominated not in the interests of the Republican party but in order to demonstrate who controlled it," an undeniable proposition; and "because he is a notorious opponent of President Hayes and of administrative reform." Mr. Soule's election, it is declared, "would give practical encouragement to canal corruption." The address points out the danger, in case the appeal for "harmony" is listened to, and no protest is made now, that "the machine element will force upon us, in the supreme issue of 1880, a candidate who will be defeated by the disheartened apathy of his own party"; that the attempt to thwart this element in primaries and conventions has always proved abortive; and that "the one way for the ordinary citizen to oppose the machine politician, with his professional skill, is to make his trade uncertain, by giving him practical notice that a bad candidate may be defeated by those independent votes within the party which he chooses to defy." The Independent Republican Committee, as the promoters of the address in this city call themselves, offer to supply at cost Republican ballots with the names of Governor and State Engineer in blank, and invite correspondence "with a view to a more general organization after this election."

The other political movements of the week may be briefly summarized. The Wisconsin Democrats are at a loss for a candidate for Governor, Mr. Alexander Mitchell, who was nominated for that office last week, having telegraphed from Europe an absolute declination. Mr. Mitchell is said to be "probably the richest capitalist in the entire Northwest," and so much the best candidate his party could have selected that his refusal to run leaves them in distress. The Wisconsin Democracy does not deserve much sympathy, however. Being elated two years ago with its reduction of the Republican majority, it imagined that all it needed to carry the State was the Greenback vote, which it accordingly solicited with a rag-money platform. The result was disastrous, and this year it resolved that "the constitutional currency of the country and the basis of all other should be gold and silver coin," which, perhaps, was as far as it could go with any show of consistency. The Maryland Republicans held their Convention on Friday, adopted verbatim all of the Saratoga platform which relates to national affairs except the section referring to Democratic ill-treatment of "old Union soldiers," declared that the people of Maryland would "never condone the fraud that was perpetrated by the Democratic party in the election of 1875," and nominated Mr. James A. Gary, of Howard County, for Governor, ex-Postmaster-General Cresswell declining to have his name brought before the Convention. The Massachusetts Greenback-Labor party met in Faneuil Hall Friday, and, after a tumultuous session, nominated General Butler for Governor and Wendell Phillips for Lieutenant-Governor, and adopted a platform which is a marvellous mosaic. It asserts that "the Greenback philosophy has been grandly vindicated" by the stoppage of contraction in

1878 and the receiving of greenbacks for customs duties, which perhaps would indicate that Secretary Sherman's popularity is increasing in an unexpected direction if it were not followed by the observation that "the coin resumption of the Republican party is a sham and a delusion." Kearney will read with surprise that his Eastern friends believe "labor-saving machinery is a boon of God to the sons and daughters of toil," though they want "the contract system of convict labor abolished." It seems a little singular that there should have been some slight and temporary objection to a resolution calling upon the Government to make up to "the soldier" the difference between the gold value of his pay in 1864 and that of "the bondholder's dollar" with interest. To pass this required a good deal of reciprocal personal abuse.

The supporters of Mr. John D. Long for Governor of Massachusetts proved to be a decided majority of the delegates to the Republican Convention at Worcester, on Tuesday, and he is accordingly the candidate of the party. The platform begins with an assertion of national supremacy in protecting the rights of citizens, especially at the polls; accuses the Democrats of having revived sectional animosities, and of attempting to establish by legislation the doctrine of State sovereignty defeated in war; congratulates the Republicans on resumption, and demands that the paper and coin circulation of the country be kept on a par with the gold standard of the world; praises President Hayes for his late vetoes and for his pure administration, and promises him support in his efforts to carry out the principles of civil-service reform embodied in the Cincinnati platform and in his letter of acceptance. What we may call the contemporaneous exposition of these resolutions showed that the first two were the only ones of any importance to the Convention, and presumably to the party. Ex-Governor Bullock, the chairman, and Senator Hoar made the only two speeches of the occasion, and declared the coming election a part of the Presidential election next year, and the Southern question the main one in both. Each speaker, in his own way, addressed himself to the Stalwart sentiments of the Convention to the exclusion of every other consideration. We are to have, therefore, in Massachusetts, as in Maine, the spectacle of a nominal contest over war issues on the stump, and a real division on the financial issue at the ballot-box. A less wholesome condition of politics has seldom been seen there.

A remarkable recommendation from the State Department has lately been published concerning the Weil and La Abra claims against Mexico, on which the Joint Commission made awards of nearly $1,200,000. In the distribution to other claimants of the instalments paid over by Mexico, Congress authorized an investigation of the charges of fraud in those two claims, and directed that "if the honor of the United States, the principles of public law, or considerations of justice and equity" appeared to require that the awards should be opened and the cases retried, the moneys to the credit of those claims should be withheld and the awards "set aside, modified, or affirmed," as decided upon such retrial. This course was in accordance not only with the suggestion of the umpire, Sir Edward Thornton, that "no government would insist upon the payment of claims shown to be founded upon perjury," and with the action in the analogous cases of the Gardner claim under the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, and the claims against New Granada, but with the position assumed by the United States in protesting against the late fishery award. It amounted to a notice to the class of claimants who rolled up an aggregate of $470,000,000 of claims against Mexico that international commissions, limited in their duration and necessarily defective in their modes of investigation, cannot continue to be a successful field for speculation, and that, under the pretence of the finality of their awards, our Government will not knowingly enforce unjust claims against a friendly power.

After examining the newly-discovered proofs filed by Mexico, Mr. Evarts concluded that neither the principles of public law nor considerations of equity and justice demanded a new trial by an international commission, but that the honor of the United States did require a thorough investigation of both claims; and as the Executive had not the facilities for making such investigation, he recommended that the proofs be sent to Congress "for the exercise of their plenary authority in the matter." In the Abra claim, however, he states that the main imputation is of "fraudulent exaggeration" of damages, that in his opinion the proposed investigation should be confined to that question, and that upon a "careful estimate as to any probable or just reduction" he thinks it would be safe to distribute the three instalments (nearly $150,000) already paid to the credit of that claim. The Government would thus hand over to persons who appear to be at least liable to the charge of "fraudulent exaggeration" a large sum with which to urge before Congress the other three-fourths of their claim, upon the "estimate" of an officer not specially authorized by law to make one, and who anticipates the result of an investigation which he expressly declares the Executive "is not furnished with the means of instituting and pursuing." Nor is this all. The charges of Mexico against the claim—which, together with the proofs, were published at the time its re-examination was ordered by Congress—in fact are, not only that the ores of the Abra mine, for which the umpire awarded $100,000 and interest, were worthless, but also that the company abandoned the mine for that reason voluntarily and without any interference. In recommending an investigation of the apparent "fraudulent exaggeration" of the claim the Secretary admits that Mexico has made a *primâ-facie* case as to the first part of the charge, but having done so he unaccountably disregards the presumption thence arising as to the voluntary abandonment of the unproductive mine. Should the latter ground of defence, which is a natural consequence of the former and inseparable from it, be substantiated by the investigation recommended, the entire claim must be unjust, and the "honor of the United States" would surely require, in accordance with the precedent in the *Caroline* claim against Brazil, that the money paid out by the State Department should be repaid to Mexico out of the National Treasury.

The almost instant acquittal of Gully, one of the notorious "Chisholm murderers" of Kemper County, Mississippi, has been accepted by the Republican press unanimously, so far as we have seen, as an evidence of the blindness of Southern justice in political matters. This may not argue a wise and temperate judgment, and it does not, indeed, take account of the long-standing feud which led up to the slaughter of the Chisholms; but the Southern Democrats certainly have themselves to blame for any misinterpretation of the event. Gully was indicted and prosecuted for a particular crime—the murder of Miss Cornelia Chisholm—and it is possible that he may have been guiltless of it. But the circumstances of the trial indicated that he would be acquitted whether guilty or not. What we have not noticed in the comments on the verdict, and what we are glad to see mentioned by General Woodford, who accompanied Mrs. Chisholm to Kemper County as a kind of body-guard, is the fact that a sincere effort was made by the State authorities to secure justice in the case, in accordance with the promise made by the Governor two years ago. General Woodford says the jury was fairly drawn; that Judge Hamm did his duty "fearlessly and justly," and Ford, the District-Attorney, his "well and bravely"; that the latter was assisted by eminent and able counsel, and that all was done that could be done to secure Gully's conviction. This is far better news than much that we had from the South while there was "a strong hand at the helm" at Washington. "In 1879," says General Woodford, "at least the forms of law are observed and an orderly trial is held. This was not an investigation before a partisan Congressional Committee, but it was a thorough and deliberate trial, conducted in due form of law by a Democratic District-Attorney before a distinguished and learned Democratic judge." The progress indicated in this implied contrast is not only substantial but promising.

A number of gentlemen constituting a "Congress of the National League" held a convention in Cincinnati on Saturday and Sunday for some purpose not very distinctly defined, and perhaps somewhat general in its nature. Mr. Elizur Wright presided, and Professor Toohey, of Boston, Mr. Parker Pillsbury, Mr. Wakeman, of this city, and Elder Evans, of the Shaker settlement at Lebanon, were prominent actors. Colonel Ingersoll was perhaps the most animating figure, however; he "brought his better half," as one of the delegates said, adding: "I know of no other two hemispheres that compose a grander globe." The call for the convention had been addressed to all those who were oppressed by the grinding tyranny of the Sabbatarian spirit which permeates our modern society, and comes to the surface in various shameless ways, from openly resting one day in seven to frowning upon the distribution of obscenity through the mails. Of this offending, President Hayes was declared to be the head and front, and he was charged with "having allowed himself to be bull-dozed by the clerical party" out of executing his intention to send Colonel Ingersoll to Berlin, "because Ingersoll is an infidel." To this influence also were ascribed the choice of Foster over Taft by the Ohio Republicans, the action of Governor Talbot, of Massachusetts, in signing a petition against the pardon of the notorious Bennett, and, "the last crowning act of infamy," the refusal of the President to grant the said pardon. The sessions were spirited, and the members, united only by the negative tie of grievance, naturally somewhat unruly. Various speeches were delivered expressing sympathy with Bennett, denouncing the frightful obscenity of the Bible, and urging the repeal of "the Comstock law" and of the laws against profane swearing, inasmuch as "the punishment of heresy and blasphemy should be left with God, the only being supposed to be injured." It was announced on Sunday that the convention had been "captured by Socialists" before its adjournment, but there does not seem any good reason to fear this; at least the individual liberty of the League's members was not rigorously restrained, and in any event very little was done except to postpone the consideration of effective relief measures till next year.

The importations of gold continue to be the main feature of the financial situation. These since our last issue have aggregated about nine million dollars, making with previous receipts a total since the middle of August of some $22,000,000. Since we last wrote, about $6,000,000 more gold has been started to New York, mainly from Paris, and the calculation that $40,000,000 to $50,000,000 will have been received here from Europe by the first day of January next does not now seem unreasonable. There is a suspicion, however, that the business has of late been somewhat overdone, bankers having ordered gold in anticipation of a supply of cotton bills, which is this year from three to four weeks later than last year. Large as have been these importations, they have only been sufficient to offset the demand for currency on the New York banks, and it is instructive to reflect upon what the New York money market would have now been if no foreign gold had been received. At the Stock Exchange speculation has gone on as if the gold received were a surplus, and would make what was good much better, and all manner of wild schemes have flourished. Of course, the rise in many stocks has been well founded, but on the other hand the shares of companies which are yet in the hands of receivers and can only be made valuable by a miracle, have been "ballooned," until it has come to be a saying that forged certificates, if started in price below ten dollars per share, can be "bulled" successfully to twenty dollars a share. The silver market was dull and steady throughout.

The news from Afghanistan grows worse every day. It was at first believed or hoped in India that the attack on the embassy at Kabul was a sudden outburst of fury on the part of mutinous soldiers and the mob, and that Yakub Kahn was deeply grieved by it and tried to prevent it. But this theory had to be given up before the news that there were signs of a general rising among the tribes, and that Yakub Khan had apparently no authority over anybody. Later accounts point to his complicity with the massacre, or at all events his subsequent acquiescence in it, and it is now reported that Kabul is covered by a considerable Afghan army. Though this is said to be sensation, General Roberts, who commands the British avenging force, evidently cannot advance with the army now at his disposal, and will have to wait for reinforcements, which come tardily, and for means of transportation, which are deficient owing to the enormous destruction of camels by the late expedition. The snow falls in the passes early in December, and after that communication becomes difficult or impossible, so that it may be said that he must be in Kabul and have made himself comfortable in winter quarters by the first of December at the farthest. He can probably do this, but it is an arduous enterprise, and its success will not solve the problem. For after having taken Kabul the question presents itself, Can the Indian Government afford to conquer and occupy Afghanistan; and if not, who is to rule it in a manner satisfactory to England? Yakub Khan, as an instrument of British policy, has broken to pieces.

We are yet without full accounts of the effect of the disaster on English opinion; but the damage it has done to the Jingoes merely by discrediting their prophets must be enormous. One has only to read the article of Sir Henry Rawlinson, in a late number of the *Nineteenth Century*, to see that the party will not be again able to raise its head in the press. Sir Henry is an old Indian officer. He served in the Afghan war of 1839, and has for thirty years been a high authority on the affairs of Central Asia, and has been one of the great guns of the Ministry in the defence of their Afghan policy, and a great Russophobist. In the August number of the *Nineteenth Century* he tramples the Liberals in the dust. "We were told," he says, "that our so-called Jingoism in the East would inevitably lead either to national disaster or national bankruptcy; and now, because these sinister predictions have not been realized, but, on the contrary, a short, inexpensive, and not inglorious campaign, skilfully conducted and bravely supported, has been crowned with a peace promising substantial results," etc., etc. It is easy to see that he and others like him can be of no further service to the Ministry.

It will also be very interesting to see what the effect of the news will be in Russia. An expedition under General Lazareff, who died recently while on the march, started some time ago across the Black Desert for the chastisement, it was said, of the Turkomans, a peculiarly ferocious tribe who prowl on the borders of Persia. There has been great fear in England that this expedition would diverge to the east and seize on the oasis of Merv, and a question was asked on the subject in the House of Commons some weeks ago, but Mr. Stanhope said that the Russian Government had promised not to go to Merv. Recently, however, and before the news of the late disaster at Kabul, the St. Petersburg semi-official papers have been asking, in a very suspicious manner, whether the British success in Afghanistan has not changed the aspect of affairs, and whether it would not be in the interest of both countries for the Russians to take Merv, and thus virtually bring the frontiers of the two empires into contact, and root out the intervening barbarism. Merv is not over twelve days' march from Herat.

No little excitement has been caused in Italy by an unexpected article in the Austrian *Military Gazette*, written by Colonel Haymerle, brother of the Austrian ambassador to Italy, which assumes that the agitation for *Italia irredenta* still continues and has overcome by terrorism even the cultivated classes, and, proceeding to examine the fighting capacity of the Italian army and navy, and the chances of an offensive alliance, concludes that Austria need not fear an attempt to seize the Trentino and Trieste. Official apologies have been made for the article, but the Italians suspect an agreement of Austria with Germany which bodes them no good.

THE INDEPENDENT VOTER IN THE NEW YORK ELECTION.

THE nomination of Governor Robinson by the Democrats at Syracuse, and the bolting of the Tammany faction, promise to make the coming State election one of more than usual interest, especially to those who care much for the cause of good government, but on whom the yoke of party sits lightly. We would, therefore, call the attention of this class—which we believe to be a large and growing one, in spite of the discouragements of the last few years—to the fact that even those Republican papers, such as the *Times*, the *Evening Post*, and *Harper's Weekly*, which complain most loudly of the tyranny of the Machine, and are most disappointed by the proceedings of the late Republican Convention, have no remedy to suggest. They do not propose to mark their sense of the evil of Machine nominations in any way but by grumbling for a few weeks after the nomination is made. They propose to act, and to advise others to act, in all respects as if the nomination of Cornell was entirely satisfactory, by casting their ballots for the entire ticket as framed by the Machine. They do this, they say, because of the influence which the election in this State this year is likely to have on the Presidential election next year. If the Republicans lose New York this year they will probably lose it next year, and the loss of it next year, if it should prove, as is likely, to be a "pivotal State," would give us a Democratic Administration with all its attendant horrors. They therefore propose that the task of overthrowing the Machine, the importance of which they do not deny, should be postponed to a more convenient season—*i. e.*, to some period when resistance to the Machine will not be likely to secure the triumph or improve the prospects of the Democrats. Their position, in short, is that of a Good Man in a firm of grocers which contributes largely every year to the Board of Foreign Missions, but contains a Wicked Partner who sands the sugar and puts bits of lead on the bottom of the scales. The Good Man feels deeply the guilt and shame of the Wicked Partner's proceedings, and is firmly resolved to break with him some day, but wishes to choose a year for doing so when the Board of Foreign Missions will not miss the annual subscription; but, as the Board is always short of money, this year never comes, and the Wicked Partner at last smiles grimly when he hears the Good Man talking of a dissolution, and increases the proportion of sand in the sugar and adds another bit of lead to the scales.

The danger which prevents the discontented Republicans from resisting the Machine is not likely to disappear within the present century. The composition of the Democratic party is not likely to improve much in our time; and even if it vanished, another of similar materials and very similar aims and ideals would take its place. It contains and will long contain the least intelligent portion of the white community, and the one most hostile to all change which involves self-restraint and self-sacrifice. That it does not contain the ignorant blacks as well as the ignorant whites is a mere accident. The chances are that before 1900 it *will* contain them, and they will then be found on the wrong side in the battle of civilization which the Republicans have been so long fighting on their behalf, just as the Irish at the North are found on the wrong side. In saying this, however, we by no means admit that the dangers of Democratic rule are as great as some of our Republican brethren are in the habit of representing. To admit this would, in our mind, be to admit that the end of free government on this continent was close at hand. The Democratic party contains well-nigh half the voting population; and a state half whose voters were intent on the destruction of its credit and the ruin of its institutions, and were only prevented from accomplishing their designs by a trifling majority at every election, could not be far from extinction.

But granting that the Democratic party is as bad as its worst enemies say, there is no immediate prospect of its improvement. As long as the nation owes anything, that party is as likely to be as "dangerous to the public credit" as it is now. It is likely to connive at corruption and oppression as long as poverty or ignorance or weakness exists; so that, for all practical purposes, the question before Republicans who do not like the Machine is whether they will make a vigorous effort to bring about "reform within the party" *now*, or postpone it indefinitely, and cease to talk about it. Nor will it do to say that they will resist the Machine on some "off-year"—that is, a year in which not only are there no Federal elections, as this year, but in which the State election is not likely to affect the Presidential election. The Machine meets this device by not working in "the off-year." It has more than once or twice happened in this State that, when Conkling feared the reformers were going to rise on him and defeat his nominations at the polls, he has put out his fires, discharged his hands, and locked up the mill, and has himself gone to bed with a headache. In this way he was able to say with perfect truth that the victory of his opponents meant nothing as far as he was concerned, as he was not entered for the competition. The years he chooses for displays of his power are always years, like the present, in which he is able to threaten the reformers with calamitous results to the party, and to the country generally, if they refuse to work for the ticket. So that we may confidently predict that an opportunity for defeating him, without running any risk or hurting anybody, will never be offered to our prudent brethren of the *Times*, and *Post*, and *Harper's Weekly*. They would evidently like to make omelettes without breaking eggs, or smash the Machine without loss of "harmony," but this blessed privilege Conkling is much too shrewd to allow them.

The independent voters—that is, those who exercise their judgment freely about the probable consequences of their votes, and do not allow their ticket to be finally settled for them in the Convention—will do well to bear in mind that the election of Cornell will be, more distinctly than any election which has taken place in our time, the triumph of one man, and that not a man identified with any great cause, or principle, or idea, or policy, but a thoroughly and undisguisedly self-seeking politician. It will send him to the Presidential Convention next year with the air of having the State of New York in his pocket, and of being, therefore, entitled to a weightier voice about the nomination than any one else there. That his voice will be thrown in favor of whatever nomination seems most likely to restore the régime in which he was the leading figure from 1868 to 1876, there can, of course, be no doubt, and, should he have his way, the Republican party would be committed to the very men and principles and methods which frittered away the majority of 1872 so rapidly that by 1874 the Democrats had possession of the House of Representatives, and probably elected their President two years later. It is difficult, in fact, to understand the mental processes of a person who attaches great importance to the continued possession of power by the Republicans, and yet is willing to vote so as to strengthen Mr. Conkling's hands in the Convention of 1880.

The alternative is plain enough. Every Republican voter can indicate his continued confidence in the party, and his continued determination to adhere to it, and can thus make the election tell as he desires it to tell on the Presidential contest of next year, by voting the whole ticket except Cornell and Soule, the Canal Engineer. These two men stand for Conkling and the Machine, and electoral jobbery, and the perversion of the public service to personal and partisan purposes, and for nothing else. To scratch them both, while voting the others, would indicate hostility to these things, and nothing else. If they run behind their ticket it will indicate that Mr. Conkling does not control the Republican vote of this State, and cannot use it in making bargains at the Convention next year, and nothing else. If, in consequence of Cornell's running behind his ticket, Governor Robinson is re-elected, there will be no harm done. If he is the only man on the Democratic ticket who is elected, the lesson of the result will be too obvious for Tilden to gain anything by it, even if it be true that Robinson is Tilden's man. Whether he is or not we do not pretend to know. In any case, he has been on the whole a very good governor. We know of no cor-

rupt or hasty or crude legislation which he has not opposed. He has opposed also many good things, it is true; but we believe in every case through the prejudice, or ignorance, or narrow-mindedness of a country lawyer of but a limited range of experience, and not through the too common politician's motive in opposing anything—a desire to make terms with its supporters. There could hardly be a higher tribute to his integrity than the fact that the Tammany faction is ready to bolt sooner than accept him. We may take it as an axiom of New York politics that Tammany would not need to bolt the nomination of a corrupt man. If Kelly and his followers understand any art it is the art of bargaining, and they must have found Robinson a man of extraordinary virtue before resorting to the desperate course of leaving the Convention. We may add that the reasons they openly assign for disliking him—such as his removals in New York City—must, in the eyes of all honest men, reflect the highest credit on him. It is possible that these removals were "Tilden moves"—there is no social or political phenomenon to which a Tildenite origin is not nowadays ascribed—but it is certain that most of them were removals eminently fit to be made. Finally, let us add that the belief that Kelly has, or will have, a secret understanding with the Conklingite Republicans is more than a suspicion, and does no injustice to either side. In fact, the Conklingite managers would probably be amused by the innocence which could see anything wrong in an alliance with Tammany Hall and the very dregs of the Democratic party, in this terrible year, when that party entertain so many "partisan purposes," "revolutionary methods," "disturbing measures," and "dangerous designs."

THE LATEST PHASE OF THE ENGLISH LAND CRISIS.

THE discussion of the land question in England is gradually making the problem very clear. A very important contribution to the solution of it, and one which has evidently produced a good deal of impression on the public mind, has been made within a fortnight by the publication of the experience of a gentleman named Prout, farming his own land, who has actually during all these bad years been making fifteen per cent. on his annual outlay off a naturally poor soil, and one peculiarly unfitted to bear the recent wet weather. He has sent his accounts to the *Times*, and if they be correct, as there is no reason to doubt, what the farmers have to ask for becomes plain enough. Mr. Prout charges himself rent in the shape of 3½ per cent. on the price of the farm, or fully 1½ per cent. more than landlords get on the value of estates bought within the last thirty or forty years. He charges himself, too, with 5 per cent. on money expended in improvements which the landlord customarily makes, and the same on money expended in improvements which the tenant usually makes. In fact, he leaves out no item of expense to which the farmer is exposed, except the living of the farmer's family. The land cost him $50,000, and his average annual outlay during the last thirteen years was $18,540; his average annual income $21,540, leaving a profit of $3,000. This would give the farmer a very comfortable income after paying a higher rent than landlords usually receive, and during seasons which most English farmers have found ruinously bad, and off heavy land. Moreover, his crops for this year are up to the average.

This seems a very encouraging showing, but when we look into the details we find no comfort in them whatever for the present race of landlords. Mr. Prout has not only enjoyed what no English tenant-farmer enjoys, complete liberty as to his methods of tillage, but he has violated nearly all the rules which English landlords are in the habit of imposing on their tenants to prevent the deterioration of the soil. Not only does he sell off every thing the farm produces, which is considered in English agriculture an outrageous proceeding, and buy all his manures, but he totally disregards all the established usages regarding the rotation of crops, by raising wheat, oats, and barley year after year in steady succession off the same fields. These are things which no English landlord now permits. In other words, Mr. Prout treats his farm as a manufacturer treats his mill. He manages it just as he pleases, makes whatever experiments he thinks best, and in spending his money looks not to this year or next year simply for his profits, but to a series of years, and takes no advice from anybody whom he does not himself select as a counsellor.

Farming, as ordinarily carried on by tenants, is something very different. The farmer is for the most part a tenant at will, and therefore compelled to conduct his business under a system of rules laid down by the landlord, who does not share any of the risks—that is, expects to get his rent, whether the crop turns out well or ill. In cases where the farmer has a lease, the rules of agriculture adopted by the landlord are inserted in the lease, and violation of them would involve a forfeiture, and any relaxation of them is the result of the landlord's generosity. Moreover, the landlord also reserves the right to keep wild animals, in the shape of rabbits, hares, partridges, and pheasants, which are to be permitted to prey on the farmer's crops, and if he makes any allowance in the rent for the damage they do, it is also the result of his generosity. Added to these purely material drawbacks on agriculture as a business is the custom which makes the farmer, *ex-officio* as it were, the social inferior of the landlord. This is one of the survivals of feudalism, and is a very curious feature in the English land question. It would be considered very ridiculous if the landlord in the city were to treat anybody who hired a house of him as unfit to associate with him on terms of equality; but it is considered the most natural thing in the world for a tenant-farmer to acknowledge the superiority of his landlord, though the latter may himself have made the money with which he has bought the estate by selling blacking. It is needless to say that if manufacturing industry had to be carried on under these burdens and restrictions, English manufactures could never have assumed their present enormous proportions. If mill-owners in the cotton and woollen trades had been compelled to conduct their business under rules laid down by the Government, as in France under Colbert, or by the makers of machinery, or by the cotton-growers, and had been compelled by contract to allow pigs and goats free access to their works at all hours of the day and night, we should never have heard of England's industrial supremacy.

The probabilities are, therefore, that long before the Royal Commission has made its report, public opinion will have been fully formed as to the nature of the changes which will not simply be made, but which will take place, in English agriculture. One of these changes has already begun and is in full progress—viz., a heavy fall in the value of land. An estate which five years ago brought £150,000 has recently been offered at $110,000 without bidders. Though this rapid decline probably is somewhat the result of panic, yet there can be little question that the price hereafter will seldom go beyond the point at which the purchase money will yield five per cent., which of course points to an enormous permanent depreciation—fully one-half from the value five years ago. It is as yet only the difficulty of letting farms and getting rents that is telling on the price; the loss of the land-owner's political and social weight has still to be felt, and that will come more gradually as the lesson of Mr. Prout's success becomes plainer. That lesson is that the principles of free-trade must be applied to farming as well as to every other business, and the landholder resign himself to the condition of the owner of ground-rents on ninety-nine years' leases in London; that is, the condition of a man owning a rent charge, but having little or nothing to say as to the manner in which the premises are made to produce his due. This means, of course, considerable impoverishment of the landlord class, and the loss by landholding of all social prestige. Some estates will be let without difficulty in large farms to capitalists, as water-power is, to be used in their own way; some the owner of the fee will try to farm himself, probably in a large number of cases unsuccessfully, partly owing to the want of capital and partly to the want of business capacity. Many others, probably the larger number, must fall into the hands of farmers of from fifty to one hundred acres, doing most of their own labor, like those in Saxony and Prussia whom Mr. Barham Zincke has recently described, and either holding in fee or under

leases tantamount to perpetuity. For there is no sort of doubt that a heavy fall in the value of land, and greatly reduced rentals, will make imperatively necessary the adoption of some such measure of relief as the Irish Encumbered Estates Act, which was enacted after 1847. Most estates are now heavily encumbered by mortgages or by charges under wills and marriage settlements, which the owner will hereafter be unable to meet, and from which he must extricate himself somehow, and he can only do so by obtaining legislative authority to sell the property, and to give a "parliamentary title" to the purchaser. This will throw a great deal of land on the market, but with this difference: that when the Irish Encumbered Estates Court began to operate, land was considered the best sort of investment by everybody who had money in hand, whether he knew anything about farming or not, whereas whenever the English Estates Court begins to operate, land will probably have lost a large part of its attraction as an investment to everybody but working farmers.

BERGAMO.

MILAN, September 2, 1879.

I HAD passed several times on the railway line between Milan and Venice, and looked with envy at the beautiful site of Bergamo, standing on an outlying hill at the foot of the branches of the Alps which give shelter to the lakes of Lecco and Iseo. A visit to Bergamo is not often undertaken, and, so near Milan, the place is seldom visited by travellers. It is only a minor star among so many of the first magnitude which attract the foreigner. I found time, however, yesterday to pay a visit to Bergamo. I left Milan in the early morning; the weather was intensely hot even at six o'clock, and when the train left me at the station I had to ascend the hill on the top of which is built the old city. This old city was for me the chief attraction; it is now fallen from its old glory; it has ceased to be one of the defences of Italy, one of the great centres of communal life of Lombardy. A new city long ago sprang up at the foot of the hill, and now extends in every direction—four or five *borgos* spread over the plain, intersected by rivers and canals, and covered with green trees and fields. I went up the hill on foot by one of those Italian lanes which have been so admirably described by Manzoni in his 'Promessi Sposi,' following at a distance a Dominican monk and a girl who wore on her head, as all women here do, a light lace veil falling on the shoulders. This veil, with a fan, was her only protection against the sun and the heat. I found it somewhat difficult to sustain the reputation of my countrymen, for you must know that in Spain there is a proverb which says that at twelve o'clock noon you can see nothing in the streets but dogs and Frenchmen. It was not twelve, it was only eight o'clock in the morning, but the sun was already so hot that a veil of light vapor caused by the heat was beginning to cover the great Lombard plain; the canals, the rivers were steaming; the elegant campanili were emerging in every direction from what seemed a forest of mulberry-trees, of poplars, and from the great fields of Indian corn.

After a long ascent on the pebbled little road, beside walls covered with flowers, I found myself in one of those dark Italian streets which show only two great walls of stone, with a few openings, solemn *portoni* and small windows. This street led me directly to what I recognized at once as the centre of old Bergamo. As usual, I had taken no guide-book, for I like nothing so much as a voyage of discovery, and I find most guide-books intensely stupid. But could there be any doubt? Every Italian town has a centre of life, a heart where at certain hours all the life of the city goes on. It is invariably a place surrounded by monuments. I took a seat on the chair of a little café and began my first inspection. The Piazza was called Piazza Garibaldi, but this did not signify anything, as the Italians have filled all their cities with new names, so that you find everywhere a Street or a Place "dell' Indipendenza," a "Via Cavour," a "Via Vittorio Emmanuele," a "Via Garibaldi," "Principe Umberto," etc., etc. The Piazza Garibaldi of Bergamo was till 1862 the Piazza Vecchia; so I was informed by a little hunchbacked bookseller with whom I conversed, and a bookseller of Bergamo must be expected to know something of the history of the city. This Piazza has all the characteristics of a communal centre; on one side is the old City Hall, a huge palace supported, so to speak, only by gigantic pillars and by four columns. This construction rests entirely on vaults, and under the vaults is an immense shady place where the citizens can talk and meet; it is what we should call "la salle des pas perdus." The citizens can in a moment pass from the open place to the shady place, and if they go out of this in another direction they find themselves on a small place in front of the ancient Basilica and of the famous chapel built by the Condottiere Coleoni, who was a native of Bergamo. On one side of the City Hall is the indispensable tower, with the bells and the clock.

Here you have at a glance all the elements of public, of civil, of religious life in the Middle Ages and under the Renaissance. All the streets of the city, dark, narrow passages, mount like veins to this real heart of the city. During most of the day the inhabitants live concealed in their houses. Very few creep along the shady parts of the town, and only when they are forced by their avocations. At certain hours the population emerges, and then the Piazza now called Garibaldi becomes the scene of gregarious life such as can only be well seen in Italy. As I sat musing on this place, looking at its elegant fountain, whose iron chains are held alternately by lions and by serpents, twined round a tree; as I saw under the vaults of the City Hall and behind its pillars and columns the red and rosy tints of the old marbles of the door of the Basilica, the mosaic in marble of the Cappella Coleoni, which is close by this door, I could fancy in imagination all sorts of scenes—fine processions, pageants of every description. I could see the Coleoni returning from Venice after one of his expeditions, and greeted by his friends; I fancied that that beautiful eagle so well carved on the front of the City Hall was a trace of the old Ghibelline propensities of Bergamo. From the great window, which is the centre of the City Hall and is as large as the famous window of the Palace of the Doges at Venice, many a leader addressed the populace assembled on the Piazza, as the Doge spoke to the people. How often did the men who kept the watch on the top of the gigantic tower announce the arrival of enemies, either from the plains of Lombardy or from the mountains' side! Some imagination, to be sure, is required in order to reconstruct the past—some knowledge, also; but the first impressions of imagination have a peculiar charm, and it is seldom that they are not in harmony with facts. What if in gilded letters you see now printed on the City Hall "Biblioteca pubblica"? It is quite clear that this building was not intended for a library. It was built at the very beginning of the Middle Ages. It was burnt in 1513, and reconstructed, but its Renaissance look is an illusion; and even under the Renaissance it was the centre of the Commune. The great tower which flanks it was built in the thirteenth century. It is the second tower of Bergamo, as there is another, not far distant, called Torre di Gombito, which was built in the twelfth century.

The old Basilica was built in the Roman, which is sometimes called the Lombard, style—a style which you will find in its perfection at Verona, in San Zenone and other churches. It is, to my mind, an admirable style—so rational, combining strength with severity, and allowing, nevertheless, any amount of decoration. The Basilica is really the *house* of God; it has the same elements as a house, only it is a house fit, like the Roman basilicas, for an immense number of people. The Basilica of San Palermo was built in the twelfth century; in modern times it has been as much altered as it could well be. In the inside you will find what I call a Jesuit church—an immense accumulation of marbles, of columns, of pilasters, of altars; everything shines, everything is brilliant. There are here and there fine details; the original design of the church is completely lost. I do not dislike this gorgeous style in itself; I think it well adapted to the Italian character, to the Italian climate. Only it is a great pity when the inside and outside of a monument are no longer in harmony, and the old Lombard Basilica was never made to receive all you will now find in it. The sole remnant of the past is an extraordinary porch in the style of the porch of San Zenone, with columns supported by lions, and with an immense figure over the porch of a mounted warrior, lance in hand.

The Cappella Coleoni is a little jewel; it is placed like a toy beside the great Basilica, and is altogether in a different style—in the best style of the Renaissance sculpture. It reminds you at once of the famous Certosa of Pavia. But here the work of restoration, which is now attempted all over Italy, has not been very fortunate. There is, indeed, a very unfortunate artistic dissonance between the parts which are undoubtedly old and the parts which have been remade. Nothing can equal the charm, the delicacy, the gentle flexibility, if I might say so, of the marble carved by the order and at the expense of Coleoni. The modern parts seem too dry; they have a certain *préciosité*, to use a French word, without having any real artistic merit. The tomb of the famous captain of Bergamo is inside; he is placed on it, on horseback; horse and warrior are entirely gilt. This equestrian statue is not without merit, though it cannot com-

pare with the famous Coleoni of Venice, which is one of the great wonders of a place so full of wonders. The *custodi* are very proud of some little details of the Cappella Coleoni, which I do not think are worth looking at. They will show you also with great pleasure the modern marble statue of Music dedicated to Donizetti, and placed with his tomb in the Basilica. It is a statue which is hardly fit for Père Lachaise.

After my inspection of the sleepy old city of Bergamo I went down again towards the plain, in order to pay a visit to the Museum, which has unfortunately been placed in the lower city. I never saw people more astonished than the *custodi* of this Museum when I arrived. They were asleep, and did not seem to have seen a stranger for many a day. They would force me to admire some small masters of Bergamo; my admiration was wholly given to a picture of Mantegna's, a Virgin Mary and Child, which is considered a perfect gem; but a picture which would adorn the National Gallery or the Louvre is lost in Bergamo. I never felt so much as before this little *quadro* that Mantegna was one of the stars of the first magnitude among the painters of the world. I spent the evening in the lower city, dined in the court of the "Capello d'Auro" among good farmers and their wives, who had come for the great annual fair at Bergamo. What a noise! what screaming, and shouting, and singing, and drinking! It was an amusing sight; and meanwhile slept quietly on the crest of its hill, under the rays of the full moon, old Bergamo, with its quiet streets, its churches and towers.

HERMANN LOTZE.

BERLIN, August, 1879.

IF we compare the influence of the idealistic philosophy of Germany with that of Puritanism in America, Kant with Edwards, and the systems of Fichte and Hegel with Methodism, Presbyterianism, etc., we shall get a fair and not very extravagant idea not only of the moulding power of speculation on the Teutonic mind in the past, but of the difficulty yet rapidity with which these influences are now being cast off. Professor Lotze stands in some sense between the new and old order of intellectual things in Germany, where he is by far the most revered and influential of living teachers of philosophy. Thirty-five years ago, when he settled in little, old-fashioned Göttingen, where he still remains, despite attractive calls to larger universities, leading a life almost as uneventful as that of Kant, he was an authority in at least three of the medical sciences, and now there are very few intellectual men under forty-five who have not been influenced by his writings. He has a veritable genius for the quiet enjoyment of art and nature. He never quotes, never indulges in polemics. His mental assimilation is so perfect that there is no trace of cram in his pages, but the professor is sunk in the academician—in a word, he is now one of the noblest living humanists as contrasted with the speculist, on the one hand, and with the eclectic, who holds that all is done and that the thinker has only to pick, on the other. His opinions are among the sanest and healthiest in the history of philosophy since Aristotle. Few men have enjoyed in a higher degree the supreme intellectual luxury of giving an all-sided and free expression to their personality. His philosophy is his daily inner and outer life. He never indoctrinates, but holds that the deepest motive of philosophizing is to utter and share humanities, doubts, and ignorances with others. This is the deepest bond of sympathy between man and man. His pupils are not made disciples, but confirmed and strengthened in their own natural individual positions, which he is sure to enrich by a wealth of suggestions and *aperçus*, so that rational reflection becomes thereafter the most satisfactory instead of, as it is too often, the most unsettling and weakening of intellectual pursuits. Philosophy, he holds, is not a system but a developed intellectual character, and hence entirely valid only for the one who evolves it.

I do not purpose to epitomize his opinions in detail, but to show briefly that the 'System of Philosophy' which he began two years ago, the second and recent volume of which I have just perused with pain, by no means represents the Lotze whom I, with so many American students, have been wont to revere and love. The mechanical view of nature regards her invariable laws as universal, the world as an extremely complex and as yet imperfectly understood machine, and even men as automata. It asserts that there is no chaos and no real freedom, and holds that to obtain clear mental pictures, making thought the surrogate of sense, and mathematical formulæ of relations in time and space the highest science, is the end of all thinking. Even virtue has become mechanical, regulated by artificial moral laws which regard certain specific acts as everywhere and at all times right or wrong. Trade has become an immense engine which is nowhere understood and still less controlled. The modern festival is the industrial exposition. Business, that monstrous creation of modern life, has usurped, specialized, and degraded, if not destroyed, honest, independent man-making work. Teaching addresses mainly the eye with charts, curves, and apparatus. Even religion and the Church, says Lotze, are mechanized. The Church belief is a creed, its duties formal; its evidences are historical, external, or at best syllogistic, and Christian teachers favor these tendencies, and refuse to see that their cause is one with the ideal philosophy. This to him is the saddest aspect of modern times. Opposition to this view has become the ground-motive of all Lotze's philosophizing, and as his early advocacy of it has given his former materialistic friends occasion to charge him with apostasy, so the concessions he now makes to it will surprise, and perhaps at first disconcert, many English readers who have heard him quoted as a great champion of religion against science by the Rev. Joseph Cook, for instance.

Atoms, he says, need not be simple or unextended. It is enough that they are hypersensuous. Perhaps, although the most subtle and primitive of all things, even they have their periods, and are circuiting back to an earlier condition. Indeed, they may have already had thousands of changes and conditions, so that we do not eternalize memory by making it inherent in them. Thus, the ground of all life is chemical change unmodified and uncontrolled by any vital force. The only possible definite conception or mental picture we can form of ourselves is as an eddy or whirlpool in the straight current of natural forces. As the waves made the reef which causes them, so they will wear it away. This, the mechanical view of things, he says, is absolutely universal in extent but everywhere secondary in importance. The *Gemüth* has other needs, and, according as they are unanswered, men fall into pessimism. The world of forms and means should be subordinate to the world of worths and ends, which latter alone are "really real." There is a realism of conscience, he says, where ideals are actual without their instrumentalities, where supreme happiness exists without being bound to its conditions, and where intuitions of truth do not depend upon either their logical or their causal connections. The universe is all miracle and poetry, it is lawful and prosaic only to a one-sided apprehension. In his new logic he asserts that there is a final synthetic truth, not merely actual but self-evident, not merely logical but æsthetic, proved by the absurdity of the opposite and not by the impossibility of thinking it. Logical progress is henceforth to consist not in the formulation of new laws of thought, but in increasing knowledge of what is presupposed as the highest self-evolving principle. Its content is pure being—beauty, goodness, personality, etc. The so-called laws of association are but a weird and casual reconstruction of this universe, broken up by the weakness and finiteness of ordinary consciousness into glimpses. The soul must have or make objective expressions for its own needs and nature, and these will be superstitions just so far as the world of understanding is insufficient for such expression. The supreme postulate of logic, according to Lotze, is some one major premise for all its conclusions, which expresses the movement of the collective cosmos. This bottom principle is nowhere defined, and is, in fact, undefinable, but is best described as teleological. Theological philosophy thought it was giving to this supreme principle, which is more than can yet be called thought, an honorable elucidation by raising it out of the dimness of being clung to by the whole soul to the dignity of an objective notion, calling it God and analyzing it into attributes, and making it the hero of a creative drama, etc. This he regards as idolatrous. Thus, in his unprinted lectures on religious philosophy he has little or nothing to say of Christianity, partly, as he lately told the writer, because so many of his hearers were Jews, but principally, no doubt, because he regards it as a special and chiefly practical solution of the more general problems which underlie all religions and philosophy alike.

No system, however, is perfect, and I believe Lotze's to have several minor and one fundamental error. Instead of urging that philosophy is at best the expression of personal opinion, and can never have anything like authority over others, as at first, the tone of his later work is often assumptive, even dogmatic. In all, feeling, "which more than knowledge expresses the true nature of *Geist*," is made as much the organ of a transcendental world as Fichte's practical ego. Lotze's mind is essentially poetic, and yet he remains strangely insensible to the new and incomparable sources of poetic inspiration which modern science has opened to the world. Much as he adds to the noble enjoyment which those who read him will know how to extract from life, the line cannot be drawn too hard and fast between speculations like Lotze's and a truly scientific philosophy. The world of law is to him like the old dispensation, to be

superseded, not entirely without a break in the development, by a new. He refuses to trust science to work out its own salvation. He is the noblest of modern sentimentalists. His demands upon the world for individual æsthetic enjoyment are exorbitant and almost unparalleled. It never occurs to his refined and subtle hedonism that man's right to happiness at all is as yet quite assumptive. I deem this position in its practical effects scarcely less than immoral and socialistic. We are in the world to work. It costs hard labor of muscle or brain to live, rear a family, be respectable, and provide for decent burial; and what right has this philosopher, idly perched upon his twig, to talk with such moving, maddening pathos about a world of "worths and goods to be purely and passively enjoyed," when his own department was never more hopeful and in such crying need of self-sacrificing toil as now? We want to push on the psycho-physic studies which Fechner has begun and left in the most interesting and suggestive stage of incompleteness ; to carry on the analysis of æsthetic sensation of the Helmholtz school ; to determine how far physiological psychology can justify new or old methods, critical judgments of art, etc.; to advance investigations respecting the structure and functions of nervous tracts and centres ; to know more about the senses, the muscles, and the will, the origin of man and the unfolding of his faculties, in the hope of learning something more thereby of the validity of human experience, the scope, laws, and limits of knowledge, and, above all, of the methods of education, and of the nature and forms of duty. That, with his fitting scientific training, early bias, and rare psychological acumen, Lotze has contributed almost nothing since the 'Medical Psychology' to the solution of any of these questions, I am sometimes tempted to consider as no less than reprehensible ; for, great good as he has done, he might, with his rare gifts, have done far more had he not been led away by the sirens of æsthetic optimism to reverie and pensive quietism. If the universe is composed of personal spirits, with "free inner spontaneity" consenting to be harnessed into mechanism in order to realize and unfold in corporeal form the beauty and goodness of the eternal idea, and if "personality can never become an intellectual problem to persons," then the whole psychological tendency of recent natural, and even physical, science is simply the greatest illusion of modern culture.

Correspondence.

THE HONEST MONEY LEAGUE.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In your last number the announcement is made that the Honest Money League distribute gratuitously its pamphlet on the "Contraction of the Currency." This is not quite correct. The Honest Money League has given away many pamphlets, but its policy has been to sell its publications at about cost. Last year it fixed its prices for single copies as near to cost as possible, giving itself, commonly, the advantage of any fraction of a cent which might appear in the result of the calculation. It then paid its own postage. This year it has raised the prices of single copies to include postage, but the prices of quantities have remained barely covering cost, and such quantities are sent by express, charges not prepaid. The practice, however, has always been to give away pamphlets where there was good reason to believe that such gifts would be valued and properly used.

The League, however, just now has but a small stock of its publications on hand. In the opinion of those most active in its organization and management, the object of its existence is nearly accomplished. The advocates of dishonest money are everywhere discouraged. It is plain that the American people cannot be successfully marshalled to demand an irredeemable currency or a debased coinage. We look to see the coming election in Ohio effectually demonstrate this fact, and we expect the numerous demagogues who have championed these errors to acknowledge, in practice if not in words, that the coming prosperity and the common sense of the people have effectually killed and buried their favorite issues.

If our hopes in this regard are realized, the Honest Money League will have no further excuse for being. It has done an important work. The influence which its publications have exerted has, without doubt, been considerable. Of its own publications, all of which have been pamphlets, well printed on good paper and fit for preservation, there have been distributed more than 200,000 copies. But it has supplied the matter for more than 1,000,000 tracts, printed and circulated by campaign committees. The New York *Tribune* reprinted one of its pamphlets and circulated it as a "*Tribune* Extra," and many other newspapers throughout the country have made a similar use of its material. In nearly every case where its publications have been so used, no credit has been given to the League. Political speakers throughout the country, advocating resumption and redeemable currency, have used our pamphlets as text-books. The editors of weekly papers, far and wide, administered to the eager appetites of their readers numberless able leading articles taken bodily from these pamphlets, to the great gain of the readers and the great relief of the editors. In fact, the publication business carried on by the Honest Money League has exerted a wide and effective influence. In addition to this it has been instrumental in frequently furnishing speakers and in the holding of many public meetings.

But it is especially of its publication business which I wish to speak here, for I intend to point this communication with a suggestion which will explain this otherwise inexcusable account of details. Ought not a society similar to the Honest Money League to be organized for the education of the people on the economic questions which are likely to be of political interest ? A society, supported for the most part by voluntary contributions or by membership fees, which would offer to the people at cost price carefully-prepared and plainly-written explanations of important subjects would be of immense advantage. There is a demand for literature of this sort which cannot be supplied by regular publishers or by newspapers. The Honest Money League has proved this, and has marked out a path which others may think worth following.

M. L. Scudder, Jr.

Chicago, Sept. 10, 1879.

CIVILIANS AND THE ARMY.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Permit me to submit a few remarks upon your editorial paragraphs on Army appointments in No. 736 of the *Nation*. Our experience with promotions from the ranks has not, up to the present time, been encouraging. They have not, as a class, made the best officers. The objection to them has not been so much that they came from the ranks, as that they came from abroad ; and not so much that they were foreigners, as that they were, in many instances, uneducated foreigners, and, to use the phrase commonly applied to them, "as self-assertive as the devil." It is this self-assertion rather than any inherent fault that has induced quite a marked antagonism to the class. Where an American is promoted from the ranks that fact is soon forgotten, but this is not true of a foreigner. There should be many different sorts of men in an army, and it is well to have a certain proportion of the rough and ready. Yet, not to mince matters, we find that men of the best families make the best officers. Why ? The best society, not the richest or the most pretentious, but really the best, is made by a process of exclusion. In time the fools, knaves, pretenders, and bores are excluded. The older the society the more effectual the process. A college course is also a winnowing process, and army life in some regiments is a fiery ordeal. The drunkard, the libertine, the gambler, and the drone are sure to come to grief. Of course it is a great advantage to an army to have its lower grades filled by young fellows whose standing at home proves that they are none of these.

We are trying to get a better class of men, and we are succeeding very well. Six out of seven recruits are now of native birth, and many of them are very intelligent men. Nevertheless, only a small proportion of them are the kind of men that will make good officers. Yet no matter how small the proportion, it is only fair that they should have the first chance for promotion. We all favor that, while we believe in making a close scrutiny into their characters. Scholarship is only one qualification in an officer. Moral force is a greater one.

It is true, as you say, that the orderly sergeants can instruct newly-appointed civilian youths in their duties. It is only for a time, however, that the man who has learned by rote can instruct the scholar. As a rule the old sergeants go to a certain point and stop, but you can place no limit to the attainment of a man who comes from what Dr. Holmes calls the Brahmin class.

There is great diversity of opinion as to the advisability of commissioning officers' sons. Some will tell you that for gentlemanly malingerers they would commend you to the young fellows who are raised in a camp ; that they have, from their salad days, all the tricks of old soldiers. Others assert that there is a hereditary capacity for command, as for other work.

You are very incorrect in your assertion "that the orderly sergeants perform virtually all the official work beyond certain signatures and parade posturings." Some company officers may begin with this kind of

shirking, but after getting their pay stopped once or twice for inaccuracies in their accounts, even the laziest men will be driven to keeping their own. It is the misfortune of the Army that civilians see only its parades, and know but little of its work. A.

AUGUST 15, 1879.

[The best friends of the Army will not lay too much stress just now on the "Brahmin class" if they are anxious to avoid giving a handle to its enemies. Our correspondent admits what we have been contending for when he says that six out of seven recruits are now of native birth and not lacking in intelligence. But this has been measurably true for some time past, and yet the fact is not borne out by the recommendations and examinations for promotion. The sergeants are often much more than mere learners by rote, and it is by no means certain that the new appointees are "scholars." Our correspondent is doubtless familiar with the military adage that a company is better off with a good orderly and a bad captain than *vice versa*.—ED. NATION.]

THE MAINE ELECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Maine Republicans have played rather worse than a drawn game, although accident gives it the semblance of a victory. There is to be a Republican governor in January in spite of an anti-Republican majority in September, because the Republican vote happens to be so distributed among the towns and counties as to elect a majority of both branches of the Legislature, upon which the choice of governor will devolve. This result is pure luck, and cannot safely be counted on again. An anti-Republican popular majority next year would probably secure an anti-Republican Legislature, governor, and State officers and United States Senator, as it certainly would, if united, secure anti-Republican electors. The accidental allotment of votes this year is no credit and no reproach to anybody, and its ascription to the superhuman adroitness of the chief politician of Maine is as obsequious and absurd as it would be to give him credit for the two full moons in August. A similar streak of luck gave Senator Douglas the Illinois Legislature in the memorable canvass of 1858, although Abraham Lincoln obtained several thousand majority of the popular vote.

Viewed independently, the Maine election is a Republican defeat and tends toward discouragement. Its inspiration is derived solely by contrasting the vote of 1879 with that of 1878. Had Maine given its average Republican majority of 13,000 last year, the loss of the State even by a few hundred votes this fall would have been regarded as a portentous catastrophe. It is the reduction of last year's anti-Republican majority from more than 13,000 to less than one thousand which seems to mark a turn of the tide, and kindles the hope that another year may restore Maine to the rank of a Republican State.

But the future is beset with dangers which it is the part of folly to deny or conceal. Perhaps the greatest peril is the fact of our partial success. The prospect of an accidental repossession of the visible and tangible fruits of victory, the insignia of office, the lictors, the fasces, and the curule-chair, is of itself enough to turn the heads of our lighter politicians, who, in the intoxication of this questionable success, are sure to put on airs which had become almost insufferable even in the days of old-fashioned majorities. Already the Maine Bourbons, incorrigible by the sharp discipline of the past year, have begun where they left off last September, and, with oriental servility, ascribing what they call victory not to the people nor yet to the rank and file of the party, but to some of their leaders, are calling upon independent Republicans to bow the knee while those sycophants shout, "These be thy gods, O Israel!" Such blind guides evidently do not yet comprehend that those idols which are again set up for Maine worship are the same that led the party into the Waterloo defeat of 1878, and that nothing but the dread of their restoration to despotic power could have prevented a thorough redemption of the State this year.

Widespread discontent with the management and managers of the Republican party rather than confidence in the transparent sophistries of Greenbackers wrought the revolution of last September. For years thousands of the best men in the party would, like ex-Governor Chamberlain, have been "glad to see a combination of men with an issue that they could sustain, for the purpose of overthrowing the men who control our State politics." The dilemma presented to them by their political masters has been to turn the State over to the Opposition, or to continue to grace the triumphal car of men whose principles and methods they detest —to minister to a personal ambition which knows no scruples and no bounds. Last year more than ten thousand Republicans forgot the wise conclusion of the meditative Dane, and, unwilling longer to bear the ills they had, illogically fled to others that they knew not of. This year a part of them have patriotically sacrificed their feelings to their sense of duty, while thousands of others who voted the Republican ticket last year under protest have done so again this fall because, like the ex-governor, they "could not go so far as to endorse the heresies of fiat-money and communism, even if the result would bring about the purification so much needed."

The causeless and suicidal warfare waged by the Maine political leaders in the name of the party against its national head during the first eighteen months of the Administration was so abruptly silenced by the shock of last year's election that we are not likely to witness its open revival. The same politicians who had bull-dozed two State Conventions into an apparent sympathy with their own quarrel, wilfully risking the party's ruin for the furtherance of their personal schemes, hastened last June, with superserviceable zeal, to endorse that President whom they had spent a year and a half in belittling, annoying, and embarrassing at one of the most critical periods of the national history. But the assertion of the one-man power, the bane of recent Maine politics, has experienced no abatement. Direct assault upon the President and Cabinet has given place to a guerilla attack upon their friends and supporters, seeking to ostracize every independent Republican. Thanks to this perpetual and ubiquitous manipulation, Maine still bears too close a resemblance to Rome at that epoch in her history when *Cassius* asked *Brutus*—

> "When could they say, till now, that talked of Rome,
> That her wide walls encompassed but one man?"

A party still in the minority cannot afford to lose the active aid of its independent members, a body of men whose numbers are underestimated, and whose sincerity and consistency will not suffer in comparison with the anti-Administration wing of the organization.

The late campaign was waged mainly upon the financial issue, and its qualified success precipitates the solution of some serious questions. The shibboleth of the platform and stereotyped phrases of orators will require interpretation. Maine is said to have sustained "resumption" and to have insisted on "honest money for the people." Which kind of "honest money"? "Coin," or greenbacks made equal with coin? If "coin," is it to be gold or silver? If silver, is it the Bland dollar of 412½ grains or the Blaine dollar of 425? The 86-cent dollar or the 89-cent? What sort of resumption? The Senator Hamlin and ex-Secretary Morrill kind, or the other Senator's variety? Do the coming Governor and the new Legislature represent a resumption which consists in the payment of every greenback in gold and its cancellation as fast as it is presented, or that more modern species of resumption which means its temporary redemption in 86-cent silver dollars and its immediate re-issue at the opposite counter, while duties are paid wholly or partly in paper? Maine Republicanism must be prepared to meet the practical test which success imposes, and to define its definitions, just as the opposition fusionists would have been called upon to do if they had prevailed. When the definition is given somebody is liable to be surprised, if not disappointed, and the result may be decisive in 1880. If it should be found that the divergences between the different Republican statesmen of Maine have been and still are as wide as, or even wider than, the gulf which separates some of them from "the Greenback heresy," it may become vitally important to know, and to know early, which school of political financiers is to be the exponent of our creed next year.

That a political effort of unprecedented severity has been able but imperfectly to retrieve the disaster of 1878, and has failed even to command a popular majority, is a fact of deep significance, for it is more than doubtful if the effort can be repeated. Even if the means and the speakers were obtainable, it would not be easy to rekindle the same public interest within a twelvemonth. It would be too much like Mr. Lincoln's powder which had been blasted before and would not go off. But they will not be obtainable. Too many other more important elections will next year demand each its share of attention and labor, the whole of which Maine has this year so largely monopolized; and the exigencies of a Presidential election will doubtless impart to our opponents in 1880 a vigor which has been signally deficient during the recent campaign. Much has been accomplished, but the State has not yet been redeemed, save in name. To the intolerable pressure of personal government within the party far more than to any financial delusion, Maine is indebted for

the humiliation of 1878, and a just apprehension of its return has prevented an overwhelming triumph in 1879; it is able to bring defeat in 1880. Extreme prudence on the part of the managers can carry the State next year; a very small percentage of the mismanagement and insolence of 1877 and 1878 is sure to leave it where it still is—beneath the burden of an anti-Republican majority.

The election affords rational ground for hope, and is a loud call to renewed effort and a purification of the party; but it offers no excuse for glorification or adulation, least of all for arrogance, recklessness, presumption, or personal Presidential capital. X.

PORTLAND, September 15, 1879.

Notes.

WE print elsewhere a letter in regard to the pamphlet publications of the Honest Money League, a list of which may be acceptable to some of our readers: (1) 'Honest Money,' an argument in favor of a redeemable currency, by Thos. M. Nichol, Secretary of the League; (2) 'Address on the Currency,' by John Johnston, of Milwaukee; (3) 'Extracts from some of the Communistic, Inflammatory, and Treasonable Documents circulated by the National Greenback Party'; (4) 'Contraction of the Currency,' by C. K. Backus, editor of the Detroit *Post and Tribune;* (5) 'Suspension and Resumption of Specie Payments,' by Gen. J. A. Garfield; (6) 'National Banking,' by M. L. Scudder, Jr., Chairman of the League's Executive Committee; and (7) 'Bi-metallism,' Mr. McCulloch's Harvard lecture of May 8, 1879.——A history of the art of printing and of the book-trade in Leipzig during four centuries has just been published in that city, and abounds in interesting information ('Die Druckkunst und der Buchhandel in Leipzig durch vier Jahrhunderte'). The author is Karl B. Lorck.——We mentioned some time ago a few extracts from General Moltke's journal during his stay in Rome in 1845, which appeared for the first time in the March and April numbers of the *Deutsche Rundschau.* This journal, together with some letters of the great soldier's from Spain and France, now also printed for the first time, have been published in a very handsome volume (Berlin: Paetel). The letters from Spain, which Moltke crossed from Gibraltar to the French frontier, are particularly brilliant, and give a graphic account of that interesting country. The letters from Paris are dated December, 1856, when Moltke accompanied the present Crown-Prince of Germany on his visit to the Imperial Court of France.——The *Monde Illustré* of August 16 is wholly given up to the return of the Comédie-Française to their newly-decorated theatre. It contains small cuts of all the twenty-three associates, of varying degrees of badness, but most of them abominable; a full-page portrait of Molière, after Mignard's fine picture, which the theatre owns; a double-page engraving of the new ceiling of the auditorium, just decorated by M. Mazerolles; and another double-page engraving depicting the famous "ceremony" of the "Malade Imaginaire," in which all the associates and salaried actors make their bow in person to the audience. ——Some recent French works of importance are the tenth volume of François Ravaisson's 'Archives de la Bastille' (1687–92), in which the writer makes an improbable guess at the Man of the Iron Mask—Sébastien de Penancourt, brother of the mistress of Charles II. of England, as he would have him; new editions of Alexandrine des Echerolles' 'Une Famille noble sous la Terreur,' and of Charles de Ribbe's 'Les Familles et la Société en France avant la Révolution'; a series of studies on the châteaux of the Blésois and the banks of the Loire, by A. Storelli, beginning with the château de Chambord, illustrated with faithful and yet artistic etchings (4to); a pocket Molière bibliography (18mo, pp. 86), edited by Pierre Deschamps, and limited in edition; and 'Anonymes, Pseudonymes, et Supercheries littéraires de la Provence ancienne et moderne,' by Robert Reboul, published at Marseilles.——A society, entitled the "Nipon (Japan) Institute," "to bring into communication students, enquirers, and admirers of the art, literature, language, folk-lore, etc., of Japan," and to collect authentic information, publish notes and queries, etc., regarding Japan, has recently been formed in London. Branches are proposed in nearly every country, and, among others, one in the United States, which should be a flourishing and valuable one. Among the English members are Sir Rutherford Alcock, K.C.B., Vice-President of the Royal Geographical Society, Sir Charles Dilke, Mr. John Leighton, Dr. Edward B. Tylor, and others as eminent. One of the first publications of the Institute is a pamphlet giving a number of Japanese proverbs, their English equivalents, and a literal translation of them. ——We are all liable to error, so while the New York *Times*, throughout a formal review of 'Holidays in Eastern France,' calls Miss Betham-Edwards Mr. Bettram-Edwards, the London *Athenæum* of August 30 finds it "a somewhat curious coincidence in family history that Miss Fanny Kemble married the American general Butler, and that the son of her sister, Mrs. Sartoris, is united to the daughter of General Grant." This is all that is needed, we should think, to make the late Mr. Pierce Butler turn in his grave.

—The publishers' fall announcements have partly been anticipated. From G. P. Putnam's Sons we may expect a 'Life of Gladstone,' by George Barnett Smith; 'Abraham Lincoln and the Abolition of American Slavery,' by Charles G. Leland; 'A Forbidden Land' (Corea), by Ernst Oppert; 'Columbia and Canada,' by W. Fraser Rae; Molière's Dramatic Works, in a new prose translation by C. H. Wall; a translation of Jérome Adolphe Blanqui's 'History of Political Economy in Europe'; 'Railroad Accidents: their Causes and Prevention,' by Charles Francis Adams, jr.; numerous books of poetry; a 'Pocket Classical Dictionary,' edited by Frederick G. Ireland; an illustrated 'Dictionary of Scientific Terms,' compiled by William Rossiter; and a 'Dictionary of the German Terms used in Medicine,' by Dr. G. R. Cutter. A. C. Armstrong & Son, besides new and enlarged editions of works like Gould's 'Good English,' Doran's 'Annals of the Stage,' May's 'Constitutional History of England,' etc., will publish 'The Limitations of Life,' by Wm. M. Taylor, D.D., with a steel portrait of the author; the 'Life of Alexander Duff, D.D.,' by George Smith; and 'Homiletical and Pastoral Lectures,' by the chief dignitaries of the English Church. Roberts Bros'. list includes 'Blanid,' a poem by the author of 'Deirdré'; 'The Light of Asia: Life and Teaching of Gautama, the Founder of Buddhism,' by Edwin Arnold; 'Autobiography and Correspondence of Mrs. Delany,' revised and edited by Sarah C. Woolsey; 'Classical and Scientific Studies,' by Prof. W. P. Atkinson; 'Stories of War Told by Soldiers,' edited by the Rev. E. E. Hale; 'Studying Art Abroad, and How to Do it Cheaply,' by Mary Alcott Nieriker; and several child's stories by Miss Alcott, "Susan Coolidge," and "H. H." A large number of juvenile publications is also promised by Cassell, Petter & Galpin, among which is a novelty called 'The Little Folks' Painting Book,' consisting of plates for coloring, and accompanied by moist colors for the purpose. They will enlarge their *Magazine of Art* without enhancing the price. Houghton, Osgood & Co. will offer their usual variety of new editions of English and American classics, and the following new works: stories by Miss Elizabeth Stuart Phelps ('Sealed Orders'), Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney ('Odd or Even'), and Bret Harte ('The Twins of Table Mountain'); a third volume of Emerson's Prose Works; 'Miscellanies,' by Judge J. D. Caton, author of 'The Antelope and Deer of America'; and the seventh volume of the Rev. Joseph Cook's 'Boston Monday Lectures,' for 1878 and 1879; more poetry by Mrs. S. M. B. Piatt ('Dramatic Persons and Moods'), and by Nora Perry ('Her Lover's Friend'); 'Every-Day English,' by Richard Grant White; 'A Reader's Handbook of the American Revolution,' by Justin Winsor; 'Compositions in Outline from Hawthorne's Scarlet Letter,' by F. O. C. Darley; and 'The Illustrated Annual for Boys and Girls,' and 'Boys and Girls' Miscellany,' both home productions.

—D. Appleton & Co. will have a 'Life of Admiral Farragut,' by his son; a 'Dictionary of New York,' on the plan of Dickens's London Dictionary; and illustrated volumes on 'The Homes of America,' and 'Landscape in American Poetry,' the latter edited by Lucy Larcom. Dodd, Mead & Co. will issue Woltmann and Wörman's 'History of Painting in All Ages,' translated by Prof. Sidney Colvin; 'The Print Collector'; and 'The Indian Alps'—the Himalayas, namely. Estes & Lauriat announce a new book by Gail Hamilton, called 'Our Common-School System'; an abridgment of Guizot's 'History of France,' by Gustave Masson; and the following subscription books: Rawlinson's 'History of Ancient Egypt'; Duruy's 'History of Rome'; Rambaud's 'History of Russia'; a "History of Middlesex County, Mass.,' by S. A. Drake; and 'Wild Flowers of America,' by Prof. Geo. L. Goodale. S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, have in press 'The Younger Edda,' annotated by Prof. R. B. Anderson. Harper & Bros., besides extending the Half-Hour Series, the Franklin Square Library, and the English Men of Letters, will bring out 'The Civil Service of Great Britain,' by Dorman B. Eaton; 'Art in America,' by S. G. W. Benjamin, and 'Tyrol and the Skies of the Alps,' by Col. Geo. E. Waring, jr.—both of which have appeared in part in *Harper's Magazine;* 'The Land of the Midnight Sun,' being Paul Du Chaillu's travels in Scandinavia, fully illustrated; John Addington Symonds's 'Studies of the Greek Poets'; Peter Bayne's 'Lessons from my Masters: Carlyle, Tennyson, and Ruskin'; and the Comte du Mon-

cel's 'The Telephone, the Microphone, and the Phonograph.' Henry Holt & Co. announce 'Hector Berlioz,' selections from his letters and writings by William F. Apthorp. Lee & Shepard announce 'Short Studies of American Authors,' by T. W. Higginson; and 'Camps in the Caribbees,' by Fred. A. Ober. Little, Brown & Co. will publish a 'Law Dictionary,' by Benj. Vaughan Abbott. Macmillan & Co., in addition to previous announcements, will have 'France since the First Empire,' by the late James Macdonell, a writer of great promise. Charles Scribner's Sons will republish in book form H. H. Smith's 'Brazil,' from their *Monthly;* and Jules Verne's 'History of Exploration and Adventure,' in three volumes, illustrated. J. W. Bouton's fall issues will include Parts I. and II. of the *Etcher*, a monthly art periodical illustrated with three etchings in each number; the *Musée Artistique et Littéraire*, a cheap weekly reprint of *L'Art* minus the etched plates; a new edition of Owen Jones's 'Grammar of Ornament'; a second and concluding volume of Planché's 'Costume'; Part VIII. of Racinet's 'Costume Historique'; 'Rowlandson, the Caricaturist,' with copious illustrations after his designs; and a 'Ritual of the Altar,' by the Rev. Orby Shipley. R. Worthington has nearly ready 'Famous French Authors,' biographies by Théophile Gautier, Eugène de Mirecourt, etc.

—From Dawson Bros., Montreal, there comes to us the new 'Dominion Annual Register and Review,' edited, for the twelfth year of the Canadian Union, 1878, by Henry J. Morgan, with the assistance of several gentlemen. It makes a volume of about 400 pages, exclusive of the advertisements. Some features are wanting which will naturally be supplied in future issues, but even as it stands this 'Register' will be found invaluable to any one who wishes to study or write about Canadian affairs. The first considerable section is a diary of Political Events since Confederation, July 1, 1867. This retrospect is followed by the Political History of 1878, prepared with great fulness, and including the electoral returns, with names and figures, by which the Mackenzie Government was defeated a year ago. Next comes a Journal of Remarkable Occurrences, succeeded by an ample record of the incidents of the "Vice-regal Progress from Halifax to Ottawa." Science; Business Retrospect for 1878; Remarkable Trials; Public Appointments; Obituary, are the concluding heads of sections. Under Science we are told of the appointment of four chemists, by the Canadian Government, to expose the adulteration of food, liquors, and drugs. Among the dead of 1878 is the grandson of an officer who, at the time of the assault on Quebec, Dec. 31, 1775, kept the guard at Près-de-Ville, and ordered at the right moment the fire which killed General Montgomery. Another on the list, John Letteney, "was probably the last survivor of the American Loyalists" who came over from the Colonies at the close of the Revolution. Letteney arrived in 1783, when two years old. The late Hon. Lemuel Allen Wilmot, who bore a Pennsylvania name, was the grandson of a member of the Loyal American Regiment who settled in New Brunswick at the close of the war. The Fortune Bay difficulty and the beginning of the Letellier case find their proper place in the 'Register.' There is an index of names and another of topics.

—The Ordnance Department of the Army has recently taken a singular method of vindicating itself from any suspicion of learning from the militia. According to a pamphlet published by Mr. George W. Wingate it appears that his 'Manual of Rifle Practice,' in universal use among the National Guard, was deemed partially inapplicable to Army uses by the Chief of Ordnance, though various line officers had asked to be supplied with it, and he accordingly appointed Colonel T. T. S. Laidley, commanding the Watertown arsenal, to prepare "a complete system of target practice." Colonel Laidley fulfilled his commission, and his book has been adopted for the use of the Army. He had an easy task, apparently, since he availed himself of Wingate's 'Manual' with perfect freedom and to a large extent. Out of 515 sections and 18 pages of appendix about 200 sections and nearly all of 17 pages of his book are taken from Wingate's. The author of the latter objects to this conveyance of the fruits of several years' experience and labor; but his main ground of complaint is that Colonel Laidley has given no credit whatever for his gleanings. On the contrary, in transmitting the work to the War Department, the Chief of Ordnance said: "In the preparation of this work all the credit is due to Colonel Laidley." This, Mr. Wingate submits, is emphasis of outrage.

—The *International Review* for September opens with a paper on Rubens by Mr. Hamerton, in which the character and daily life of the painter are described with Mr. Hamerton's notorious impartiality. He promises to follow it with a critical essay that will easily be of quite as much interest and value, we should say, and, from its conditions, freer from the "chatting" which long-continued writing for the *Portfolio* perhaps induces. Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge has a review of Mr. Adams's 'Life of Albert Gallatin,' or rather a careful and complete article upon Gallatin, for which the book supplies a text merely. "Bibliomania in France" is a rambling talk by Mr. Andrew Lang, of London, in which there is much that is old and a good deal that is new to the average bibliophile, probably, and which is pleasant, if aimless, reading to any one. Mr. T. S. Perry has an essay on "Recent Criticism of Byron," which assumes that "now there are almost as few who admire his poetry as there are who approve his taste in shirt-collars," and gently regrets it. The essay is full of what may be called Byron *ana*, very well edited, but it has an air of gracefully avoiding the vulgarity of having a distinct drift. Rev. Dr. Washburn's second article on "England and Turkey" deals mainly with the Constantinople Conference, for the failure of which the writer holds Lord Beaconsfield responsible. The Christians in Turkey have been utterly bewildered by the recent course of the English Government, he asserts, and adds that "there is probably no name, except that of Judas Iscariot, which they curse so often as that of Beaconsfield." Mr. Felix L. Oswald has a highly rhetorical article on the treatment of the Circassians by the Russians, which indicates that his acquaintance with his subject is very slight, and that a perusal of one or two of the best books on the Caucasus would probably have prevented his writing on it at all. The very title of his paper—"A Murdered Nation"—is a misnomer. The population of the Caucasus never were "a nation of athletes and heroes." They were a number of small tribes of very diverse origin, speaking different languages, without any bond of union either ethnical or religious or political, except their hostility to Russia, and living largely by robbery.

—Col. Waring's "On the Skirt of the Alps," in the October *Harper's*, is perhaps the most enjoyable of the series; and as it treats of Venice and the sub-Alpine lakes, this is saying a great deal for his originality. One does not often, in fact, meet with a tourist who concerns himself about the water-supply of "a city where the salt sea is the scavenger, where ablutions are not *de rigueur*, and where water is not a beverage"; nor one who exposes the hollowness of the Italian railroad service, with the conclusion that no nation tolerating such a system "holds the germ of regeneration anywhere in its organization." It does not appear whether Col. Waring's experiences preceded, or not, the transfer of the upper Italian railways to the Government control (law of July 8, 1878), but he would in either event be a good witness before the Parliamentary inquest now pending, with the result thus far that the Government service is not shown to be more vicious than that of the corporations, and that complaints are much fewer than was anticipated. We remark of this, as of the previous articles, that the writer has a sure eye for the picturesque in collecting the materials for his illustrations. There is fresh description of a little-visited part of Ireland in "The Connemara Hills," by Miss J. L. Cloud. As her narrative ends abruptly in the home of a potheen-maker, or illicit distiller, there is reason to hope we may get more of it. Mr. Frank H. Taylor's "Through Texas" is also lively and improving reading, and such of its illustrations as are after photographs are decidedly interesting. Art finds its tribute in Mr. Benjamin's galloping summary, No. 3, of "Fifty Years of American Art," with the usual accompaniment of costly engravings from original canvases; and in Mr. Charles A. Cole's "Painted Glass in Household Decoration." Dr. Coan states concisely the latest conclusions of medical enquiry into the nourishing properties of alcohol administered as food; and here our enumeration of the contents must close.

—The sudden death of William M. Hunt, of Boston, leaves a gap in the ranks of American artists more noticeable, perhaps, than any other death could make. His peculiarities of talent and conviction were such as, at this time, tend to make their possessor especially prominent. As painter and as teacher of art for twenty years he has exercised a singularly powerful influence over many of the best of the younger artists and students of New England, and, through them, over the same class elsewhere. He was taken to be the best representative in America of a certain great modern school—or if "school" is a word of too exact and limited a meaning, then a tendency, a fashion—of painting. The doctrines preached with characteristic fearlessness by himself, and with a vigor which continually becomes bigoted intolerance by his pupils, are full of meaning and value. Nor should it be urged too strongly against the preachers of these doctrines that they mistake the particular for the universal, and a grace peculiar to certain recent painters for the eternal and essential characteristics of art. All writers and teachers of fine art are apt to do so; all writing and talking upon fine art tends that way; few are the writers so critical by nature and so widely informed as to avoid mis-

taking the art they love for the only art, and the style they love for the only truth and beauty. Mr. Hunt's painting was full of manliness and simple force, and his pictures, not very numerous, will remain as valuable possessions to other generations. His latest well-known work, the wall paintings in the Assembly Chamber at Albany, cannot be unreservedly admired, but the task was so difficult and so peculiar that there is scarcely an artist in America to whom one could entrust it with any feeling of confidence. Great monumental paintings do not appear singly, detached efforts of the imagination and the will of one man, but in epochs—in long-continued sequences of growth.

—The late Sir Rowland Hill, the founder of the English penny-postage system, was a remarkable man and had a remarkable career. He was so far a self-educated man that he began to teach others at the age of twelve, and it is a little singular, perhaps, that he is remembered not only for his postal reform but for his earlier efforts in behalf of educational reform as well. His father kept a school and kept it very ill, according to all accounts, although he was emphatically a man of ideas and an ardent enthusiast. Rowland is said to have inherited this temperament, modified strongly by the marked practical good sense of his mother, and the first attempt of his early manhood was to rescue his father from the debts his unbusiness-like habits had incurred. This involved thorough reform in the school, and young Hill thus developed the power of organization and discipline which he afterwards called his forte. He and his brother Matthew, the late Recorder of Birmingham, subsequently established a school near Birmingham, which was managed on the peculiar principles of a pure democracy. The "sixth-form" boys were elected by the school and formed a kind of parliament. Offences were tried before a jury of the offender's peers, and so on. In after-life Sir Rowland observed with a smile that he would hardly send a boy of his own to such a school; but it had its good points certainly, and anticipated many of Arnold's subsequent reforms at Rugby. Matthew Hill at this time wrote a volume called 'Public Education,' after reading which Bentham threw aside, as he says, all he had himself written on the subject. De Quincey reviewed it among others. Wilberforce, Brougham, Grote, Joseph Hume, and Miss Edgeworth visited Hazelwood and took a great interest in the "experiment" of the brothers Hill. After giving up teaching, Rowland was made Secretary of the Commission for the Colonization of South Australia, in which scheme, as well as in other movements of the day, he had taken an active part. His duties did not occupy all the time of a man accustomed to work fifteen hours or more a day, and he turned his attention first to certain inventions, one of which was a printing-machine, and then to postal reform. He set about investigating the Post-Office, and finally arrived at the practicability of a uniform rate, after discovering such data, for example, as that the cost of conveying a letter from London to Edinburgh was less than one-thirty-sixth of a penny, whereas the charge was 1*s.* 1½*d.* Of course every one was against him at first, and every official to the end. In 1837 he published his plan in a pamphlet, entitled 'Post-Office Reforms,' and January 10, 1840, penny postage came into effect. Sir Rowland's rewards were for a long time absurdly disproportionate to the value of his services, but before his death he had obtained all the recognition, substantial and merely complimentary, that a far vainer man could ask.

—Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well, and consequently the attempts to reproduce the dialect of the Irish peasantry by persons whose acquaintance with it is very slight, which one sees nearly every day in prose and verse in the newspapers, are to be regretted. They are for the most part a mass of blunders, both as regards phrase and pronunciation. The Irish peasantry do not use half the "locutions" which are put in their mouths, and do not pronounce one-half the words in the way they are made to pronounce them. We will mention at present only the most flagrant of these errors, as a warning to those who furnish the press with stories of what "the Irishman" or "Biddy" said. No Irishman pronounces *ee* or *ie* as *a* in *fate*. Consequently when an Irishman is made, as he is constantly made, to say "spache" for speech, or "praste" for priest, or "same" for seem, or "fate" for feet, the reporter confesses himself a pretender. The diphthong which Patrick and Biddy pronounce differently from educated people at the present day is *ea*, to which they always give the sound of *a* in *fate*. Consequently they "chate" for cheat, "thrate" for treat, "sate" for seat, and so on. But in doing this they are simply preserving the pronunciation in use in England when the language was first introduced into Ireland in the sixteenth century, and which has come down among them as a tradition unaffected by literature. Numerous other illustrations of this survival among the ignorant Irish of extinct modes of English pronunciation might be given. But, as might be expected, a large number of their peculiarities of speech are reminiscences of their own language, transmitted from generation to generation without the correction of school education or much intercourse with people of English origin. Blunders of a similar kind to those we have been noticing are made also by persons ignorant of the Irish language attempting to interlard Irish-English speech with pure Irish phrases. A ludicrous one was pointed out in the *Spectator* the other day, in which a writer of "Irish" verse introduces the phrase "Father avick," addressed to a priest; "avick" meaning "my son," and being a form of address in Irish from an old to a younger man, and, therefore, somewhat ridiculous when collocated with "father." The writer evidently thought it a vague form of endearment.

—Professor Voigt, well known as a specialist in the field of the so-called *Tier-sage*, has recently (*Zts. für deut. Alterthum*, xxiii. 307) subjected the writings of Odo de Ciringtonia, an Anglo-Latin fabulist of the thirteenth century, to a careful detailed examination. The results at which he arrives are, that Odo's fables are for the greatest part based upon the compilation generally known under the name of "Romulus"; some, however, may be traced to other popular works, such as the Vulgate, Physiologus, Petrus Alfonsus, etc., and some are of his own invention. Some, furthermore, afford an instructive glimpse into "the prolific *fabulation* of the twelfth century, with which Odo became acquainted by reason of his studies in Paris, and the then active intercourse between England and Northern France." Professor Voigt goes to the length of saying that Odo "in his importance for the history of the Reynard cycle surpasses all the fable-compilers of the Middle Ages."

—Readers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 15 will have found enjoyment in a new series of Mérimée's letters, accompanied by critical and other remarks by M. Othenin d'Haussonville. It was M. d'Haussonville's original intention, he tells us, to write an "étude complète" on Mérimée, and in furtherance of this design he sought both for oral information and for unpublished documents. From men and women who had known Mérimée he heard the most diverse opinions as to his character, and he promised himself much pleasure in unravelling "the secret of these contradictions," but finally gave up the idea because of the publication of the 'Lettres à une Inconnue,' which must, he thought, have so taken the edge off the public's appetite as to make it impossible to secure attention for a biography of the author of them, unless, indeed, the biographer were willing, "at the risk of defiling both living and dead, to jump headlong into a pool of scandal." Of the twenty-six letters which the editor prints, the greater part, and to the English reader the most interesting, were addressed to Mr. N. W. Senior's daughter-in-law, an Englishwoman, like the famous Inconnue. The first letter to her here printed is of the year 1854, the last of 1867. As was to be expected, the letters are much less personal than were those to the Inconnue, and there is, of course, no thread of a love-story running through them. They are none the less very attractive. The relations of men and women, the customs of various countries, and opinions on all sorts of books form their substance, anecdotes and gossip being occasionally thrown in. Macaulay, for instance, he finds "a too-perfect writer," just as the characters in English novels are too perfect morally, because "he never gives his readers occasion to think." Other letters here printed were written to "the daughter of a soldier famous at once for the name he bore and for the rank he had attained," and are worth reading, though inferior to the first named. Among the few personal sketches is a very severe one of Mme. Récamier.

—But besides letters, M. d'Haussonville picked up from his friends a good many reminiscences of Mérimée, with which he favors the reader. He was born in a respectable, middle-class family of Paris, and his grandfather was a Rouen lawyer, who afterwards became land-agent to the late Marshal de Broglie. Strangely enough, it was from his mother, a woman of considerable culture, that he got his disposition to scandalize his acquaintances by the avowal of heretical opinions. While still a young man he became intimate with George Sand, but neither her friendship nor her enmity had much influence upon him. His dismissal by another lady after very close intimacy, and after being wounded in a duel by her husband, went, however, to his heart. It was to relieve his mind from this mortifying adventure that he journeyed in Spain in 1830, having previously refused the offer of a minor diplomatic position from unwillingness to sacrifice his liberal opinions. The July revolution brought to power a personal friend, by whose favor he entered the Government service, in which he remained, in one form or another, till his death. During his tour in Spain he had made the acquaintance of the Montijo family, which later grew into close intimacy in Paris, Mérimée being

often entrusted with the care of amusing "la petite Eugénie" when her mother was otherwise occupied. It was before this, of course, that he knew Mme. Récamier, of whom he writes that he did not become acquainted with her "till she was well past forty. It was easy to see that she had been pretty, but I do not think that she ever had claims to beauty. Her figure was square, her hands and feet very ugly, and as to her mind, no one thought of speaking of that till she had lost all other means of pleasing. During her youth her reputation was rather bad, later she posed as a saint; in reality she was never either a Ninon de l'Enclos or a Mme. de Maintenon." It is well to say in closing, after the recent discoveries about Sainte-Beuve, that admirers of Mérimée will find nothing in this long paper to lessen their respect for him.

—There has lately been published in Paris a novel entitled 'Le Journal de Mlle. d'Arvers,' written in French by Toru Dutt, a young Hindu poet, whose recent death in her twenty-second year is apparently a literary misfortune that cannot be too deeply regretted. It is prefaced with a critical study by Mlle. Clarisse Bader, who has refrained from correcting any of the trivial idiomatic errors which serve to make more vivid the surprising accuracy and ease with which so young a writer uses a foreign tongue. The characters and action of the book are French, though the spirit of it is Indian, which causes regret that Toru Dutt's ambition prevented her from choosing an Indian subject that she would naturally have managed better, and so have produced a more valuable if less surprising book. As it is, 'Le Journal de Mlle. d'Arvers' is described by the *Saturday Review* as a novel "of great power and beauty," and the reviewer takes advantage of its publication to recall the circumstances of its author's brief career. One is naturally sceptical about literary discoveries, but we are assured that "in intellectual power Toru Dutt was one of the most remarkable women that have lived," and that had George Sand or George Eliot died at twenty-one "they would certainly not have left behind them any proof either of application or originality superior to those bequeathed to us by Toru Dutt." These proofs are chiefly contained in a volume published at Bowanipore in 1876, called 'A Sheaf Gleaned in French Fields,' which consists of translations in English of two hundred poems selected with great delicacy of taste not only from Victor Hugo, Lamartine, and Musset, but from Gautier, Vacquerie, Bouilhet, Baudelaire, and various minor bards who, as the reviewer remarks, "certainly never expected to hear of themselves at Bowanipore." She was born in 1856 and early manifested a literary bias, resolving to make European languages her chief medium, although never neglecting Hindustani poetry. Her first literary production was an English essay, "very full and learned," on the writings of Leconte de Lisle, with metrical translations in English. She was then eighteen, and had begun the study of Sanskrit, which she followed unremittingly until, after she had made an English blank-verse translation of the 'Vishnuparâna,' she fell ill and all literary work was forbidden her. She died in August, 1877, "perhaps the most promising woman of letters at that time living." To show that this praise is not wholly unwarrantable we append a specimen of her English verse, whose high and pure poetic force is not less remarkable than her erudition :

"The rural sounds of eve were softly blending—
The fountain's murmur like a magic rhyme,
The bellow of the cattle homeward wending,
The distant steeple's melancholy chime;

"The peasant's shouts that charms from distance borrow,
The greenfinch whirring in its amorous flight,
The cricket's chirp, the night-bird's song of sorrow,
The laugh of girls who beat the linen white.

"The breeze scarce stirred the reeds beside the river:
The swallows saw their figures as they flew
In that clear mirror for a moment quiver,
Before they vanished in the clouds from view."

PLANT ARCHÆOLOGY.*

I.

INVESTIGATIONS in fossil botany are recondite and technical, the materials generally unattractive, and the results unintelligible to the popular mind; but in Count Saporta's 'Monde des Plantes,' and under his happy exposition, the stony desert is made to rejoice and blossom as the rose. The interest which we take in the vegetation of former periods is not so much geological as genealogical; and this interest diminishes with the distance from our own time and environment. We know nothing of the earliest plants—the beginnings of vegetable even more than of animal life are beyond our ken; no great satisfaction seems obtainable from the small acquaintance that has been made with the plants which flourished before the carboniferous period. And the botany of that age, notwithstanding its wealth of ferns and its adumbrations of next higher types, impresses us as much with the sense of strangeness as of wonderful luxuriance. For even the fern-impressions, familiar as they may look to the unprofessional observer, are outlandish. The more the critical student knows of them the less likeness he finds in them, or in the coal-vegetation generally, to any species or genera now living.* But in the vegetation of cretaceous, and still more of tertiary, times familiar forms first come to view, and pedigrees may begin to be traced. Questions of ancestry touch us more nearly than those of history; so an enquiry into the source and parentage of the plants with which man is associated is more attractive than any question concerning the origin of the pristine vegetation of the earth. Moreover, our knowledge of the later fossil botany is comparatively full—wonderfully so, considering how very recent this knowledge is—and we are in a condition to apply it hopefully and confidently to the solution of problems which not long ago seemed to be beyond the reach of proper scientific enquiry—namely, to the explanation of the actual distribution of the species of plants over the earth. For the main data themselves, and for the clear exposition of them, we are most largely indebted to three men, who happily are still alive and active—Heer, Lesquereux, and Saporta.

The Linnæus and *facile princeps* of tertiary botany is Oswald Heer, of Zürich, now a septuagenarian, but still in harness. His 'Recherches sur le Climat et la Vegetation du Pays Tertiare,' rendered into French by C. T. Gaudin, was published nearly twenty years ago. It is a general and comparatively untechnical presentation of a long line of investigations, which have since been crowned by his several memoirs on arctic phyto-palæontology, now collected in the five volumes of his 'Flora Fossilis Arctica.' All these volumes, as well as others on the Swiss tertiary, have appeared within the last ten years, the latest only a year ago.

Leo Lesquereux, Heer's compatriot, and barely his junior, came to the United States fully thirty years ago, drawn hither from Neufchâtel by Agassiz. The greater part of his researches relate to the carboniferous flora, and he has recently thrown interesting light upon silurian botany, as has Dawson of Montreal upon the intermediate devonian. But those which at present concern us relate to the cretaceous and the tertiary of our own Western regions. The most considerable of these works are the two notable quarto volumes, entitled 'Contributions to the Fossil Flora of the Western Territories,' published by the Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories under Dr. Hayden, upon whom and whose survey they reflect high credit. One volume treats of the cretaceous, one of the tertiary flora.

Any proper enumeration of authorities upon the fossil botany of the later periods should include various other names, and especially that of Schimper of Strassburg, who, like Lesquereux, has divided his life between bryology and fossil botany, and whose classical 'Traité de Paléontologie Végétale' is a systematic compendium of what was known of fossil plants up to the year 1874. But the volume now under notice is by a younger man, Gaston, Comte de Saporta, a Provençal, who has for fifteen years or more been investigating the rich tertiary deposits of Aix and vicinity, in the delta of the Rhone, the results of which have appeared from time to time in memoirs, mainly published in the 'Annales des Sciences Naturelles.' Besides these weightier and more technical publications, Count Saporta has contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and to *La Nature* subsidiary articles of a popular cast and of fine literary as well as scientific finish. These, now collected and re-edited, form a part of the volume before us, 'Le Monde des Plantes avant l'Apparition de l'Homme,' which has been published since the commencement of the current year. It is the most comprehensive and the most attractive, as well as the most recent, exposition of our subject, is a very readable book from beginning to end, of inviting typography, with abundant illustrations, both of wood-cuts in the letter-press and intercalated plates. Although a popular, it is a truly scientific volume. The clear stream of the narrative is hardly at all troubled by the many technical terms which unavoidably strew its course, yet without obstructing its flow, for the author has the peculiarly French gift of happy exposition. As the volume is likely to be reproduced in English, let us hope that it may have a transla-

* 'Le Monde des Plantes avant l'apparition de l'Homme. Par le Comte de Saporta. Avec 13 Planches, dont 5 in couleur et 110 figures dans le texte.' Pp. 416, 8vo. Paris: Masson; New York: F. W. Christern. 1879.

* To those who wish to get a good *coup d'œil* of this vegetation, from authentic records systematically arranged, we recommend the 'Atlas to the Coal-flora of Pennsylvania and of the Carboniferous Formation throughout the United States,' by Leo Lesquereux, an octavo volume of 87 double plates, just issued by the Second Geological Survey of Pennsylvania. There is nothing else to be compared with it.

tor in whose hands it may lose nothing of its clearness, and as little as possible of its freshness and spirit.

To attempt a popular abstract of such a book would be like skimming the cream from the cream, and a critical review would cover too much or too technical ground. Still, we may give some general idea of the contents of the volume. The first part and the most discursive portion of the book is entitled "Phenomena and Theories." The introductory chapter discourses upon the introduction of life and the origin of the earliest terrestrial organisms; and the second chapter takes up the theory of Evolution or Transformism. We may skip these chapters, yet without advising the reader to follow the example, unless he is already familiar with the topic—now a little threadbare—for, as a popular presentation, it is neat and sensible, though not profound. It hardly need be said that Saporta is an evolutionist, using the term in its general sense, and apparently a thorough Darwinian. A vegetable palæontologist who studies the later geological deposits cannot be otherwise ; at least, he must needs be a "transformist." Saporta concludes that palæontology, if it does not furnish demonstration, yet gives irresistible reasons for a belief in evolution. The ground and the nature of this conviction appear in his rounded statement, that there is not a tree or shrub in Europe, in North America, at the Canaries, in the Mediterranean region, the ancestry of which is not recognizable, more or less distinctly, in a fossil state. This is too absolutely stated, no doubt, but the qualifications it may need will not invalidate the conclusion.

The chapter on ancient climates which follows, and forms a proper introduction to the second part of the book, is worthy of particular attention. It is prefaced by an elementary but very graphic exposition of the phenomena and laws of climates and their diversities, from the regular succession of equal days and nights under the equator to the contrasted condition toward the pole of a year composed of a day and a night season, separated by a season of twilight; the change so rapid in the high latitudes that, while the summer day at the North Cape is two months long, at Spitzbergen seven additional degrees of latitude lengthen it to four months. Let the author point the contrast between the two extremes, as affecting man, in his own language, here somewhat exceptionally ornate :

"Il est vrai que dans ce dernier pays [Spitzbergen] le soleil s'élève au plus de 37 degrés au-dessus de l'horizon ; il n'envoie que des rayons sans chaleur, *telum imbelle sine ictu ;* il éclaire de sa lueur pâle une terre glacée où frissonnent quelques plantes ensevelies sous les frimas, et qui ne sortent du sommeil qui les tient dix mois inertes que pour accomplir hâtivement leurs fonctions vitales et se rendormir de nouveau. Quel tableau, si l'on songe aux forêts vierges du Brésil et de Java, aux vallées profondes du Népaul, aux savanes noyées de l'Orénoque, où la vie surabonde, où une lumière ardente, vive et dorée, ondule de toutes parts, soulève de tièdes vapeurs, joue avec l'ombre, et fait resplendir les formes des plus merveilleux végétaux ! Sous les tropiques, l'homme se sent écrasé par une vie exubérante, il lutte incessamment pour maintenir sa place au milieu de la nature, dont il est dominé; ses plus fortes œuvres sont envahies en peu de temps; les arbres immenses reprennent possession du sol, dès que celui-ci est abandonné à lui-même. Dans l'extrême Nord, la faiblesse de l'homme est encore plus évidente, mais c'est du poids de la nature inerte qu'il est accablé. Les éléments règnent seuls dans ces régions dévastées, où l'atmosphère se trouve livrée à d'épouvantables tourmentes. La neige dérobe les aspérités du sol, la glace couvre la mer d'un sol factice, souvent mobile et toujours dangereux ; la confusion est partout, le calme nulle part ; chaque pas est pénible, la vie elle-même devient un effort que l'énergie la mieux trempée ne peut soutenir longtemps sans succomber" (p. 212).

The modifications of this contrast through the actual distribution of land and water, winds and currents, are then considered. As these have a fixity secondary only to the fundamental elements of climate—namely, the heat of the sun, the inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of its orbit, and the relative density of the atmosphere according to the elevation of the land-surface—the climate of any part of the world might be supposed to have been constant, oscillations excepted, through the long periods that have elapsed since existing species or their immediate ancestors were introduced. It is not very long ago that Arago demonstrated, to his own and the general satisfaction, that there had been no appreciable change of the earth's climate in man's time. Plants are the thermometers of the ages, by which climatic extremes and climates in general through long periods are best measured. For at least five or six thousand years the vine and the date-palm have grown in proximity, and have furnished grapes and dates to the inhabitants of the warmer shores of the Mediterranean. Yet a very moderate change either way in the temperature would have excluded the one or the other. So Arago concluded that man had witnessed no sensible changes in the climate of Europe ; a good conclusion, if restricted within the limits of observation. But in Arago's lifetime the evidence was already accumulating which has now proved that in earlier times man and the reindeer lived together on the soil of Southern France, when if grapes could ripen in Syria and Northern Egypt, dates doubtless could not. Then, at a still earlier day, palms flourished in Switzerland and vines in Iceland. Then maples, lindens, plane-trees, spruces, and pines formed forests in Greenland up at least to the eightieth parallel ; and, indeed, our own Southern cypress, or Taxodium—which now barely maintains its existence between the mouths of Delaware Bay and the Chesapeake—flourished along with the silver fir of Europe, within two hundred leagues of the North Pole. A climate in Greenland in which sequoias—now confined to California—magnolias, persimmons, and grape-vines were mixed with maples, oaks, and poplars, could not have been colder than, or much unlike, that of Indiana and Kentucky now.

LESSING'S PROSE WORKS.*

TAKEN conjointly with the translation of Lessing's dramas, on which we reported in February, the goodly volume now published will assist materially, in the case of those to whom German is a sealed book, towards the formation of an independent estimate of their versatile author's breadth of sympathy, critical scholarship, and penetrating insight. And yet full justice to him demands something more. To no one who duly considers thus much of his writings will it be a surprise to hear that he was, withal, an earnest and voluminous theologian. That, however, his theology would attract many modern readers is far from likely. Most of it, though startlingly original when fresh before the world, has long been superannuated. Still, there is a single short speculation of his, the essay on the 'Education of the Human Race,' which we regret to see that Mr. Bell has not found room or reason to reissue. At least not only that essay, but also 'Leibnitz on Eternal Punishment' and the 'Testament of John,' must be read by all who would not that their conception of Lessing should lack much of being comprehensive.

The editor offers us, first of all, the celebrated 'Laokoon.' Of the several translations of it which have appeared, the one which he has selected is much the best among such of them as we are acquainted with. This, the work of Mr. E. C. Beasley, now retouched, originally came out in 1853. Some time ago we had occasion to go through Mr. Beasley's version very carefully ; and we then took note of all of the few instances in which he deviated from strict fidelity of reproduction. On comparison we are satisfied that the revision professed to have been made is most thorough. In only a few instances have we detected negligence. At p. 14 "Aristomenes" should be supplied just before "Aristodemus." At p. 33 *Skänopöie* is Englished by "acting." For this most unusual term —a translettering of *σκηνοποιΐα*, taken in an unclassical acceptation— Miss Zimmern, at p. 210, has, and correctly, "mechanism of the stage." But the heedful revision which we have mentioned should have been supplemented. With a view to recasting the 'Laokoon' Lessing recorded numerous observations which he did not live to turn to methodical account ; and, mere memoranda as many of them are, they are, in most cases, of unquestionable value, if only as expressing their author's maturer reflections and conclusions. These fragments, which all real students of Lessing are conversant with, are given in what is, probably, their completest form in the edition of the 'Laokoon' brought out by Professor Hugo Blümner in 1876. It is a grave omission that Mr. Bell has allowed them to pass untranslated. Indeed, Professor Blümner's meritorious labors appear to have escaped Mr. Bell's researches altogether.

Next to the 'Laokoon' comes the dissertation entitled 'How the Ancients represented Death,' which, strange to say, has never before been invested with an English dress. The translation, a most excellent one, is by Miss Zimmern. But here again we are sorry to be obliged to find fault. To the dissertation in question Herder wrote a very learned appendix ; and we expected to see that the translatress had made free use of it, at least in annotations or in the shape of an epitome. Far from doing so, neither does she, nor does Mr. Bell, so much as allude to it.

The remainder of the volume, its larger moiety, is taken up with the 'Hamburg Dramaturgy.' An introductory note tells us that it has been "translated, with occasional abridgment." The expression is misleading, inasmuch as not less than a third of the whole has been passed by. Not, however, that we complain of this free excision ; for Miss Zimmern has

* 'Selected Prose Works of G. E. Lessing. Translated from the German by E. C. Beasley, B.A., and Helen Zimmern. Edited by Edward Bell, M.A.' London : George Bell & Sons. 1879.

here shown as much judgment in the matter of curtailing as skill in that of interpreting. In the 'Dramaturgy' Lessing is conspicuous in that phase of his genius which the most widely recommends him to tastes purely literary. No matter how subordinate or insignificant the point which he labors there, his comments are, without exception, alike equitable and searching. His strictures on Voltaire, as dramatist and as critic, and his defence of Aristotle against the misrepresentations of Pierre Corneille and Dacier, especially deserve to be particularized as worthy of attentive study. Lessing's anti-Gallicanism, while well-grounded, was fervently sincere. Here is a sample of it :

"Out on the good-natured idea to procure [read *of procuring*] for the Germans a national theatre, when we Germans are not yet a nation ! I do not speak of our political constitution, but only of our social character. It might almost be said that this consists in not desiring to have an individual one. We are still the sworn copyists of all that is foreign ; especially are we still the obedient admirers of the never sufficiently admired French. All that comes to us from beyond the Rhine is beautiful, charming, exquisite, divine. We would rather belie our sight and hearing than find it otherwise. We would rather let ourselves be persuaded that clumsiness is unconstraint ; impudence, grace ; grimace, expression; a jingle of rhymes, poetry; howling, music ; than in the least doubting [read *doubt*] the superiority in all that is good, beautiful, elevated, and correct which this amiable people—this first people in the world, as they are in the habit of modestly calling themselves—have received from just fate as their portion" (p. 490).

The skill in translating which Miss Zimmern displays is, for one to whom English is not entirely native, exceptionally creditable, and slight occasional help from some judicious friend would have amply availed to secure her against all animadversion. Her *afeared, bloodthirst, motivate, opine, subterrene, another from, another but, different to, everybody . . . their* and *themselves, such . . . that* (for *as*), *frightened of* (for *at*), *stood at* (for *in*) *this pillory, resemblance with* (for *to*), *worthy the wisdom of, take recourse to, young person* (for *woman*), *pending* (for *impending*) *over, two Cupidines*, etc., etc., surprise one unpleasantly, considering the excellent English in which these expressions are embedded. What with bad construction and contempt of stops, a strange place to make an offering is suggested where we read : "Diana removes Iphigenia from the altar on which she is to be sacrificed in a cloud and places a deer in her stead," p. 317. "Abstract," *abstrahiren*, is several times put for "deduce" or "infer," as at pp. 432, 434, 466, 491. "Hostage," at p. 285, is misused for "pledge," *Unterpfand*. "Tirades" has not, with us, the sense given it at p. 440. "Glossary" does not mean "gloss," as at p. 452 it is assumed to mean. *Ausleger* is not "exponent," at pp. 200, 378, but "interpreter." "Scholiasts" is mistaken, at p. 407, for "scholastics," or "school-divines"—*Scholastiker*. There are numerous other errors of the same character.

For a moment we revert to the 'Laokoon,' and we do so that we may record a warning in connection with a translation of it by the Right Hon. Sir Robert Phillimore, D.C.L., published in 1874. The sole merit of this translation consists in its incorporating at the end the posthumous *Fragments*, which, as we have noted, Mr. Beasley and his reviser have unwisely omitted. The long preface by the learned judge is of but indifferent value, and hardly more attaches to his notes, which, moreover, we often have no clue for distinguishing from Lessing's own. The punctuation, every here and there, is simply execrable, and is, besides, like that of an ill-taught school-girl's letter rather than leguleian. But that which particularly strikes a careful reader is the exceedingly imperfect quality of Sir Robert's acquaintance with German. For instance, at p. 136, and repeatedly, the familiar *der erste der beste* is Englished by "the first and best," and, at p. 156, by "the strongest." At p. 175 *gewissenhaft*, "conscientious," is guessingly rendered "learned." At p. 226 we find "injurious," instead of "harmless," for *unschädlich*. At p. 340, "famous," not "genuine," figures for *echt*. At p. 265, for "what Scopas said of a Venus" read "what he [Pliny] says of a Venus by Scopas." At p. 304, "with a single *liquido* in thin liquid" stands, most carelessly, for *mit einzigen liquido*. At p. 218 we read of "Ambrosian hair," seemingly suggestive of some new thing in patristics. Omissions of sentences, clauses, and single words could be enumerated by the dozen. As concerns errors of the press, a good-sized page would barely suffice to point them out. At p. 2, last line, doubtless the translator wrote, and rightly, "confined . . . to"; this the printer altered to "confirmed . . . to"; and this, again, as making nonsense, was altered to "confirmed . . . as to," in utter disregard of the requirements of the original. Add, *Talnatako*, for *Palnatoko*, and *Gomsburgers*, for *Jomsburgers*, p. 9; *sires*, for *sons*, p. 17; *secret*, for *sweet*, p. 19; *pursue*, for *not pursue*, p. 28; *larger continuance*, for *longer continuance*, p. 43; *gapes*, for *quakes*, p. 53; *shall but be*, for *shall not be*, p. 55; *Hugedorm* (in the Index *Hugendorm*), for *Hagedorn*, p. 77; *woe*, for *war*, p. 209, l. 1; *admiration*, for *admixture*, p. 240, l. 3; *frequent*, for *pregnant*, p. 303. And so we might go on.

For once in a way we have gone into such details as these last, and those winding up a paragraph preceding, as furnishing a salutary lesson to authors, how perilous it is to put forth a printed book without controlling, by constant recurrence to one's manuscript, the unintelligent ventures of compositors and the unscrupulousness of proof-readers.

WALKER'S 'MONEY.'*

PROFESSOR WALKER is so original and independent a thinker in political economy, and so far above all partisan proclivities, that the systematic development of any branch of the subject from his pen could not fail to be an interesting subject of critical analysis. But we can hardly consider either of the treatises on money which he has published within the last twelve months as falling strictly within this category. His first and largest work was so far devoted to the analysis of the views of other economists on the subject that it was sometimes difficult for the reader to conclude what the distinctive views of the author were, or indeed whether he had any decided views at all. The present work has a different object, and the author expresses in his preface the desire "to reach correct results without undertaking in all or most cases to balance conflicting views against each other and set out the arguments on either side, according to the methods of the class-room." Yet the work does not at all correspond to our idea of a systematic development of the subject. Indeed, the wide erudition and critical taste of the author are unfavorable to the perfection of such a work, in that they make the subject in his mind assume the form of a systematized collection of facts and arguments rather than that of a unified growth from a single root. To qualify one's self completely for the task we suggest, he should stay away from books so long as to forget all the arguments and views of individual authors, retaining only the general ideas necessary to enable him to work out a system for himself. It is evident that some time would be required for an author to do this.

The broad distinction we wish to draw between a systematic development and a presentation of views, facts, and arguments, however carefully arranged, has a much wider significance than any application of it to Professor Walker's writings, because on it depends the question whether political economy as a whole, or any part of it, has yet assumed the form of a science. Our desire for a systematic development, unmixed with any extraneous opinions or arguments, may be met with the objection that such a system would be simply a presentation of the individual views of the author, in which the student would not be informed how far those views were concurred in by other economists or what arguments might lie against them. We admit the validity of this objection on the assumption that our present political economy is mainly built up of opinions and arguments, differing from each other only in their soundness and the extent of their application, and that there are no points on which entire agreement can be secured ; but this amounts to assuming that the subject is still little more than a branch of philosophy in which definite results are entirely unattainable—a point we are by no means ready to admit. We conceive that in all this warring chaos there is a nucleus of solid truth to which the large majority of the really sensible disputants would be quite ready to agree. The only question is, Shall it be presented to the reader and student apart from the polemics of which it is the outcome, or with them? Shall we preface our description of the shield by an account of the dispute between the ill-informed knights, or shall we be satisfied by giving the learner a complete and accurate conception of the shield as it is? While we would not deprecate the former course, nor maintain that any one should be kept in ignorance of opposing views and arguments, we do maintain that the central nucleus of sound conclusions should be so clearly distinguished from the surrounding arguments (necessarily incomplete on account of the incompleteness of their foundation) that the reader shall see the distinction without close attention or mental effort. This our author fails to do. We do not complain that the individual views of Professor Walker are not sufficiently prominent, but rather commend both the modesty of the author in assuming them to be of no more importance than the views of others, and his judicial impartiality in presenting all sides of the subject. Nor do we deny the great value of the thoughts which are thus presented to us. The fault we find is that the author does not forge out of all this mate-

* 'Money in its relations to Trade and Industry. By Francis A. Walker.' New York : Henry Holt & Co. 1879.

rial a sufficiently compact, connected, and completed system, or at least, if the system is there, does not differentiate it with sufficient sharpness from the material out of which it is formed. There is so loud a din of opposing arguments that the reader cannot distinctly hear the conclusion.

Besides having too much argument, extended arguments are sometimes presented which are not of sufficient importance to be considered an integral part of the subject. For instance, the bulk of the opening chapter is devoted to the question whether bank-notes are money, the author taking a decided affirmative, and basing his argument on the premise that "money is that money does." Now, this question is mainly one of terminology. It does not appear that there is the smallest difference of opinion between the disputants as to the function of bank-notes. The only question is whether our definition of the term "money" shall be so extended as to include this function. Is it not a waste of energy to devote so much space to a question of pure terminology at the threshold of a subject? If it could be shown that any fallacious notions or groundless conclusions had been based on a vicious application of terms, the application of the latter would then become a worthy subject of discussion. But the author makes no attempt to show that the restricted application of the term "money" which he combats has ever led any one to an incorrect material conclusion, or that his argument has any other result than that of calling things by their right names. In leaving the subject the author shows his own moderation, and at the same time spoils the effect of what he has been saying, by having to take his rather unruly argument by the horns and hold it back from proving that bank-checks are also money. He draws three distinctions between checks and bank-notes, not one of which, in our opinion, will hold water. The substance of them all is that the successive passers of a check are all responsible to those who follow them for the final payment of the check by the bank on which it is drawn, so that the act of transferring the check does not make final payment, while the transfer of a bank-note is a final release of the payer if the note is good. But is there anything really essential in this difference? It will not be maintained that spurious coins or counterfeit bank-notes are money, or that their transfer operates as a release of the payer, so that they come into the same category with bad checks. But the transfer of a good check releases the payer as completely as that of a good bank-note. Checks are often payable to bearer, and then pass from hand to hand as bank-notes. Endorsements may be required on bank-notes as well as on checks, when there is any doubt of their genuineness on the part of the payee, and we think that many of the notes of the Bank of England presented for payment bear as many endorsements as the average of the checks presented. On the whole, we fear the argument will prove so hard to manage that it had better not be brought forward at all. We see no objection to the old system of confining the term "money" to the precious metals or other things which banks promise by their notes to pay, and leaving the term "currency" to apply to the medium of exchange in general between man and man.

The chapters of most interest and value are those which treat of the relations of the precious metals to values, including the multiple tender, and the effects of metallic contraction and inflation. We here find the first extended discussion of the multiple standard of value which we remember to have seen in an American dress. The effects of an increase or diminution in the supply of the precious metals are treated from a new and original point of view. To Professor Walker belongs the credit of bringing into prominence the functions of the *entrepreneur* in production, functions which have been singularly neglected by the English economists, though they continually increase in importance with the minuter organization of labor. This circumstance may be partly due to the fact that our language possesses no word to designate the class. His views of the way in which this class is affected by changes in the value of the circulating medium are worthy of more consideration than we can give to them. His exposition of the progress of "hard times" is a good example of the analytic method of treating the subject which we prefer, a method in which the *modus operandi* of a combination of actually existing causes is shown in a fashion to admit of no dispute among those who understand the subject. He ranges himself among the bi-metallists, but he does not assert that the bi-metallic see-saw between the two metals can go on indefinitely, and reduces the claims of the policy to limits so modest that sound monometallists will not find much to dispute in his theoretical conclusions. His discussion of the practice of banking, especially in this country, is instructive and entertaining, though not systematized in the way we should like.

Hints for Pupils in Drawing and Painting. By Helen M. Knowlton, with Illustrations from Charcoal Drawings by William M. Hunt. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.)—This is an odd little book, of the sort which the English weeklies are apt to mention in a few words of generalized praise as "racy and suggestive," or "full of interest and value," or "inspired by a sincere love of art." There is no doubt that the book in question is all of this; but when one enquires whether it is of value to the student, and whether, on the whole, it is an important addition to the list of text-books, the answer is not so easy. It is very short, very abrupt, very positive, very unhesitating. Of the twenty-seven small pages one is given up to the preparations for charcoal drawing; four to hints as to choice of subject, and as to beginning work on a subject, with an almost comical emphasis laid upon the directions to "almost close your eyelids or shut one eye" when you contemplate your subject; three pages and a half to Allston's method of painting; a page or two more to other manners and processes used or thought to have been used by great masters; then brief recipes for preparing canvas, varnishing and preparing pictures; in short, a little of this and a little of that, flavored with brief enunciation of some very sound maxims on values and outlines; the whole in language which would have been less fancifully abrupt, perhaps, but for the example set in Mr. William Hunt's pamphlet of 'Talks' and M. Couture's volumes. Twenty very interesting full-page pictures, reproduced by some "process" from charcoal sketches by Mr. Hunt, form the most valuable part of this volume, and make it well worth buying.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 25, 1879.

The Week.

GENERAL GRANT'S reception at San Francisco forms in every way a pleasing contrast to what it was at the beginning of the year feared it might be. Instead of being seized on the wharf by a crowd of political jobbers and converted into a Presidential candidate a year in advance of the election, partly in ostentatious preparation for civil war or some sort of illegal "salvation of society," and partly in covert preparation for the return to power of the corrupt gang who brought disgrace on his Administration, he has come back amidst the enthusiastic welcome of men of all parties, as a great general who has deserved well of his country and whose military talents have met with much respectful recognition abroad, and to whom a return to honored repose in his own land is very grateful. When one sees how passionately the people desire a hero whom they can admire and applaud simply and heartily as a man, and not as a candidate, and how desirable it is in the existing condition of American life that there should be such a hero in American society, it is difficult to find words of condemnation sufficiently strong for the plans, both past and present, for using this simple soldier as the head of the Machine, or as the pea with which the managers did their thimblerigging. Grant's fame, as the war left him, was one of the national treasures. The politicians did their mortal best to destroy it, and had he been an older man they would have succeeded. It has happily survived their snares, and everything should now be done to keep it intact during the remainder of his life.

The President has made two speeches during the week. At Youngstown, Ohio, he discussed "the objects for which we fought in the great conflict from 1861 to 1865," and elaborately considered the question "What was settled by the war?" This he did in great measure by reading extracts from Mr. Lincoln's Gettysburg speech, defining the reciprocal relations of the States and the general Government, which we all know are excellent, and which, "in the third year of the war and while its result was still undecided," as Mr. Hayes remarked, were most timely. At present, since, according to the President, "no one would again attempt to break up the Union by secession," their interest is chiefly historic perhaps; but the President seemed to feel their applicability to the present condition of things, as "there still remains in some communities a dangerous practical denial to the colored citizens of the political rights which are guaranteed to them by the Constitution as it now is." About the existence of a widespread disposition in the South to nullify the Fifteenth Amendment he had no doubt. Hence arose a question in which "the whole country is deeply interested." It would not do, he thought, to call it "an affair which belongs solely to the distant States of the South." Just how the whole country was to manifest its interest in a way practically efficacious the President did not say, though this is, of course, the whole point of the controversy now raging. The tone of his entire speech was as Stalwart as the least temperate of his party could reasonably expect from a man of such a strong conservative bias, and he evidently thinks discussion of "war issues" still pertinent. What he said will be likely to have considerable public effect, we should say, for the reason that while its attitude is Stalwart its air is characteristically dispassionate, almost to colorlessness. The Detroit speech was of much more practical value. It discussed the revival of business, the evils of municipal indebtedness and how to avoid it, recommended paying off the national debt in thirty-three years, and was generally concerned with a class of topics whose existence is scarcely recognized by the orators in an active political campaign. There is in Detroit, however, just now nothing like the amount of patriotic anxiety about the salvation of the country that exists in and around Youngstown.

The New York *Times* on Thursday, discussing the President's recent speech, speaks of "the renewed presentation by the South in Congress of the doctrine on which the theory of secession rested, and the declaration (from the same quarter) of a purpose once more to attempt the application of this doctrine to the administration of the Government." Now, the doctrine on which the theory of secession rested was the Calhoun doctrine—that the Constitution was simply a treaty between independent States, which any one of them could abrogate, in so far as it was concerned, at any time, by withdrawing from the Union, and, *à fortiori*, that any State could, *by State legislation*, refuse to permit the execution of any objectionable federal law within its borders. If "the South" has presented this doctrine in Congress since the war, it must have been either in the speeches of a majority of the Southern members, or in the speech of some one Southern member of acknowledged influence or authority, or in a resolution voted for by the majority of the Southern members. If the *Times* cannot produce one or other of these sources for its statement, that statement is simply an invention made for electioneering purposes, and intended to aggravate and embitter the sectional animosity which is already working so much mischief, and of which any paper which does not openly proclaim itself a regular "organ" ought to be ashamed. Attempts to repeal federal laws by a majority in Congress is not "nullification," or anything like nullification, however worthy of condemnation it may be at the polls.

Governor Robinson has accepted his renomination in a clear, modest, and sensible letter, in which he confines his remarks to State affairs exclusively, and makes no allusion to Tammany. He devotes himself mainly to showing what has been done for retrenchment and reform in the State government during his three years' administration, but claims no credit in connection with it for himself and other officers but that of faithful obedience to the constitution and the laws. Some of his figures tell a remarkable tale, and they are not to be questioned. In 1874 the canals cost the State in direct taxation $2,373,425 over and above the tolls. In 1878 they cost it nothing, their expenses having been reduced from $3,842,892 to $903,347, and these wholly met by the tolls. In 1876 the prisons cost the State $704,379; this year they cost it nothing. In 1874 the State taxes were $15,727,482; this year they are only $7,678,103. At the close of the war the State debt was $51,041,537; it is now, minus the Sinking Fund, only $8,130,726. The letter has all the ring of the old Silas Wright Democracy, and the Governor, to the best of our knowledge and belief, has fairly lived up to his doctrine; but then his probity and efficiency may after all, like so many of the political, social, and even physical phenomena of the day, be only "a Tilden move."

There has been nothing more entertaining in the papers of late than the reply made by Mr. Tilden, through a New York *Times* reporter, to the charges made against him by Mr. Cyrus W. Field of having secretly, treacherously, and in violation of an agreement, sold out, or "unloaded," a quantity of Elevated Railroad stock. Mr. Tilden not only flatly contradicts Mr. Field's most important assertions, with numerous accompanying comments of a highly derogatory character on the quality of Mr. Field's mind and on the condition of his morals, but produces figures, taken from the books of the company, showing, if correct, that many of the other directors, and more than one member of Mr. Field's own family, had been already "unloading" very freely at the very time when Mr. Field says there was a general understanding that everybody in the ring was to refrain from selling, and before Mr. Tilden had sold a

share. In fact, if Mr. Tilden's story be even half true, Mr. Field's story becomes somewhat incomprehensible. There is, however, one very serious side to the matter. The *Times* editorially gives credence to Mr. Tilden's defence. Now, it was settled in 1876 that *every* charge against Tilden was, *ex necessitate rei*, true, and that anybody who questioned it or closely examined the evidence on which it was based, was probably actuated by corrupt motives. We are, therefore, driven to some very painful conclusions with regard to the present relations of the *Times* to this Wicked Old Man, which are not weakened by its open and, considering everything, somewhat shameless declaration that he is "clearly in possession of vigorous intellectual capabilities."

To the Pelton part of Mr. Field's charges Mr. Tilden replies that it is amazing "moral audacity," or "immoral audacity," to assert that he knew in June, 1877, "all about Pelton's transactions in regard to the cipher despatches," when he testified before the Congressional Committee that he knew nothing about them until the despatches were published in September, 1878. He further added that Pelton's "wrong" did not go beyond a "futile dalliance," which is not a bad phrase for so old and infirm a man. He said a good many other things about the vote of the Florida and Louisiana elections in 1876, indicating that he believed it was bought by promises of office which have since been fulfilled. In fact, his conversation was full of scandalous matter, showing that he is, when provoked, a very ugly customer.

On Wednesday of last week Governor Robinson issued an executive order convening an extraordinary General Term of the Supreme Court, and designating Judges Davis, Brady, and Ingalls to hold the term. Judge Barrett was afterwards appointed in place of Judge Ingalls, on account of the latter's ill-health. The court met on Saturday, and an application was at once made by counsel representing the Mayor for an *ex-parte* order bringing the questions pending before Judge Westbrook in the case of Police Commissioner Nichols before the General Term, quashing the *certiorari* proceedings, and staying all Mr. Nichols's proceedings, or for an alternative order, under a statute passed in 1873 (authorizing the Court at General Term to issue writs of prohibition to a single justice in the same way that such writs are issued to inferior tribunals), prohibiting Judge Westbrook from proceeding with the case. The judges being of opinion that the matter was too important to be decided on an *ex-parte* motion, granted an order to show cause, which will be argued this week. It is greatly to be hoped that the General Term will, after the argument is had, come to a decision which will bring to an end the police troubles now practically paralyzing the machinery of municipal government in this city, besides doing a great deal to bring the administration of justice into contempt. Apart from the merits of the quarrel between the Mayor and the Police Commissioners, the spectacle of both sides fighting each other with judicial orders is very unwholesome, and strongly recalls the days of the Ring.

The struggle, of course, really hinges upon the appointment of inspectors of election. Two thousand odd of these officials, selected equally from the two political parties, ought to be appointed by the first of October. These inspectors have charge not only of the polling places but also of the registration, which is the sole guarantee the city has of a fair election. The theory of the system is that the inspectors of each party act as watchers upon the inspectors of the other, and ordinarily there is no difficulty in applying the theory in practice. This year, however, there are not two parties, but three, and as only two sets of inspectors can be appointed, it follows that one faction must be left out in the cold. The Police Commissioners have the appointment of these officials in their hands, and the Police Board is now evenly divided. Three lists of inspectors have been submitted to them, one by the Republicans, one by Tammany, and one by anti-Tammany. As to the first there is, of course, no dispute; but of the two others the Tammany list is the one which the two Republican commissioners, Messrs. French and Wheeler, desire to have adopted; while the anti-Tammany list is that which Messrs. Morrison and MacLean insist upon. Mr. Whitney, the Corporation Counsel, has sent in an opinion (concurred in by Judge Emott) to the effect that the statute with regard to the appointment of inspectors contemplates the selection of the lists from representatives of the two regular political organizations known as the Republican and Democratic parties, and that consequently a faction opposing the regular nominees of either party, as, for instance, the local party now identified with Tammany Hall, and led by John Kelly, cannot be recognized at all. This seems a fair interpretation of the statute, but it is not satisfactory to Messrs. French and Wheeler. The legal proceedings directed by the removed Commissioners, General Smith and Mr. Nichols, if successful, would in all human probability result in a combination between them and the Republican Commissioners to appoint Tammany inspectors. It is unnecessary to point out that, in the eyes of the unregenerate, the evidences of a bargain between Kellyites and Conklingites are rather overwhelming. The good and pure, however, who believe it to be important to elect Cornell to save the country from the Rebels, reconcile themselves to the situation by the reflection that the end in view is glorious enough to palliate any means.

General Butler has had three nominations for the governorship of Massachusetts, by Independent Democrats, Independent Republicans, and his own party, which is a composite body and has put up Mr. Wendell Phillips for the lieutenant-governorship. All three carefully avoid mention of national affairs in the platforms, but call loudly for State reform. What Butler's opinions on national affairs are at present, if known to any human being, is known only to himself. But it ought to be added that there is a sign in this of something which the Republicans would do well to heed, and that is, that interest in the quarrel with the South which the Republican party is trying to live on is undoubtedly declining with the masses, and as it declines they are the more readily led off into other fields of activity like "Greenbackism," which is really a name for a desire for changes of all sorts. The demagogues see this and act on it, but the Republican chiefs cannot be got to see it, and go on ding-dong with the same old story about the rebels and the war. Maine has furnished one warning about this. We trust Massachusetts may not furnish another.

It is useless to discuss the Butler platforms. The "true inwardness" of the movement was explained by Mr. Simmons, the late Boston collector, who has joined it as an "Independent Republican," as has Mr. Palmer, last year a prominent member of the Republican State Committee. Simmons says frankly that what they seek is to get the government of the State out of the hands of what he sneeringly calls "the better element," who give themselves such airs of purity and goodness—that is, the "Harvard men," and "high-toned men," and "prominent financiers," and "civil-service reformers," and "patriotic men," who have had hold of it ever since the anti-slavery men turned out the Winthrop and Everett Whigs with the gold-headed canes. He says "the common people" must now take hold of it, and this is the revolution which Butler is to bring about.

What the result will be it is difficult to say. Many things—such as the revival of business—have happened since last year to diminish Butler's chances, but, on the other hand, such accessions as Simmons and Palmer indicate that he will get the support of a class this time which last year had not made up its mind to throw in its lot with him. Mr. George Hoar did not injure him by eulogizing General Grant, at the regular Republican Convention, as "a great statesman" as well as "great soldier," for it recalls the fact that it was General Grant who handed over the State patronage to Butler, and who, in defiance of the protests of "the better element," made Simmons, Butler's henchman, collector, and thus gave them both the weapons of influence and machinery with which they are now

assailing the party. In fact, the sky all over the country is dark with Republican chickens coming home to roost. One of the signs of the increased efficiency of Butler's organization is that he is keeping very quiet himself. Mr. Wheeler is probably right when he says that to ride out to Harvard Commencement as Governor would probably fill the measure of "Old Ben's" desires. The spectacle would probably draw the largest crowd ever assembled in Massachusetts.

Specie importations continue, and have, up to the time of writing, amounted since the first of August to $27,000,000 in round numbers. Foreign exchange strengthened early in the week so as to check imports, but later the market fell back to the free importing point, and new lots were started from Europe. The money market has worked easily at 5 to 6 per cent., the receipts of foreign specie having more than outweighed in the bank reserves the large shipments of currency to the West and South. The Treasury 4 per cent. bank account with the banks, which was to have been finally settled on the first day of October, has been closed, or very nearly so, so that the Treasury has no longer a direct concern in the loan market, and United States bonds have advanced steadily. Mr. Sherman, finding that he could not "redeem" legal-tender notes with gold at any Treasury office except that in this city, has issued a circular saying that in Treasury payments, all over the country, a percentage of each shall consist of gold. General trade throughout the country is unmistakably active, and at the Stock Exchange there is a furor which causes anything that is low-priced, whether good, bad, or indifferent, to be taken up, and advances the price of it, on the calculation that some one on whom the fever has a stronger hold will buy it at the advance.

What about that International Silver Conference? What Powers, if any, have signified their willingness to take up the subject? What signs are there, if any, of that rapid spread of the bimetallic idea in Europe of which we heard so much before the Maine election? Where is Kelley? Silver is still accumulating in the Treasury and is still worth considerably less than gold, though all politicians talk as if they were the same thing.

Lord Beaconsfield's inaccuracy, especially in dealing with all financial, commercial, and geographical questions, has long been a standing joke in English political circles, and would long ago have killed a politician of less *aplomb* than himself. His explanation of the agricultural difficulty at the Lord Mayor's dinner, on which we recently commented, was exceedingly diverting. But no blunder he has lately perpetrated has been so extraordinary as his announcement at an agricultural dinner at Aylesbury, the other day, that since the opening of the Hudson's Bay Company's territory "nearly all the chief landholders in the extreme Western States of America had sold out" and moved over into the Canadian wilderness, to get the benefit of the fertile land and the comparatively low taxation. He is quite capable of inventing this himself, feeling sure that the Buckinghamshire farmers would swallow it, and no correction of it would ever reach them, and that his followers in Parliament would simply laugh, and exclaim, as the late Mr. Bagehot said they were in the habit of doing when he was more than usually absurd, "That's just like Dizzy." But it is more charitable to suppose that some waggish American has made him the victim of a gigantic "sell." Apropos of this, he justly observes himself of Villebecque, one of the characters in 'Coningsby': "He was master of his subject; in all things the secret of success, and without which, however they may from accident dazzle the world, the statesman, the orator, the author, all alike feel the damning consciousness of being charlatans."

The mails from England show that when the news of the tragedy at Kabul arrived the public rushed headlong into the delusion that Kabul would be promptly occupied. They have probably recovered from it by this time. If it is reached before the first of December it will be good work. There are all sorts of rumors about the disturbed condition of the country, and the Amir is writing apologetic and hopeful letters to the Viceroy. It is plain to be seen, however, that he is a weak person, who will never be able to reign alone, and the story that the mutiny and massacre were set on foot by a stronger brother is not unlikely. Attention has been called to the fact that reports of the brewing of the plot were current in Herat and Teheran some weeks before the outbreak, and were sent to a portion of the Indian press by their Persian correspondents at the very time when Lord Lytton was telegraphing rose-colored accounts of the success of the embassy. Cavagnari is a great loss to the Empire. He was in all ways one of the most remarkable men in the Indian service. He was half Irish, half Italian, and had extraordinary diplomatic skill in dealing with the semi-barbarous tribes of the frontier, an almost unprecedented gift of tongues, and, though small and slender, was so good a swordsman and horseman, and had a courage so cool and dauntless, that no native soldier who knew him would care to face him on anything like equal terms.

Cetewayo, surrounded on all sides and hunted like a wounded bear, has at last been captured. He is said to have borne himself with dignity at his surrender, and asked to be shot, but has been sent to Capetown, where he is to be kept as a prisoner of state for the present. Of course this ends all further danger of resistance. The plan of reorganizing the government of Zululand has been made public, and it consists in the erection of a number of petty principalities on the ruins of the old monarchy, some of them being those that were extinguished in the early part of the century by the invasion of the Zulus, who came down from the north. Each chief is to have a British Resident attached to him, who will supervise his rule, but without authority to interfere otherwise than by report to the Government in Natal, from which permission to make war must be obtained. The country is to be absolutely closed to white immigration. How the plan will work remains to be seen; but there can hardly be a doubt that the Zulu monarchy showed by its great organizing power that, if it could have been made peaceable, it was the best instrument which could have been devised to raise the nation out of barbarism.

The German National Liberals have published their platform in preparation for the Prussian elections. They declare their unchanged attachment to liberal institutions; denounce the attempt to modify the Constitution by making the taxes votable for two years instead of one; demand a reduction of direct taxation, the maintenance of the Falk laws, and the reform of the internal administration, especially by an increase in the sphere of local government; suspend judgment about the state purchase of the railroads, and call for renewed energy on the part of the Liberal bourgeoisie in city and country in making themselves heard in the political arena. It is not what our "workers" call a "ringing" document, but shows that the party still hangs together and has a policy.

Whether there has been really danger of a break between Russia and Germany is probably known to nobody but the German Chancellor, but the press of the two countries has for some weeks been talking as if war was imminent; the story being that Russia, in order to escape from her present internal troubles and stop the progress of Austria among the Slavs, was going to make another onslaught on Turkey, and carve what remains of it in her own fashion, counting on the support of France in the mêlée that would ensue. The latest news is that the trouble, if it ever existed, has blown over through the meeting of the two Emperors at Alexandrovno. But the mere uproar shows how far the Treaty of Berlin is from being a finality, and how much the scene has been changed by the light thrown on British military resources by the war in Afghanistan and Zululand. The Russian press makes no secret of its belief that their diplomatists were humbugged by Beaconsfield's threats. The next conflagration will undoubtedly break out in Rumelia, where the disorder is so great that the Sultan may be tempted to interfere, and thus furnish Russia with an excuse, if she desires it, for again taking him by the throat.

THE MORAL OF THE CHISHOLM TRIAL.

GENERAL STEWART L. WOODFORD, who went to Mississippi to assist in the prosecution of the Chisholm murderers, has given his impressions of the political situation at the South, formed during his visit, in an interview the report of which he certifies to be correct. It is very interesting and instructive in various ways. There is no doubt that the killing of Chisholm and his children in the jail by a mob was a foul murder of a very revolting type. It took place in April, 1877, when the mob stormed the jail to which Chisholm had been conveyed on a charge of complicity in another murder, of one Gully. In trying to get at Chisholm they killed or mortally wounded his son and daughter, who threw themselves in the way. In September of the same year the Circuit Judge charged the grand jury with reference to the offence "in words as burning and severe," says General Woodford, "as have been used to characterize the deed by any sober-minded man even at the North." The grand jury thereupon indicted thirty persons belonging to the mob. The case, after much delay, came on for trial a few weeks ago. It was tried by the Circuit Judge who charged the grand jury, and, according to General Woodford, "he did his duty fearlessly and justly. If he erred at all in his rulings, he erred in favor of the prosecution and against the defence." The District-Attorney, too, "did his duty well and bravely. He prepared his case with care, and tried it with good sense and sound professional judgment." He was assisted by Mr. Morris, of Vicksburg, "one of the most logical and forcible criminal lawyers whom he [General Woodford] had met at any bar." "The prosecution made out a clear and complete case of murder; the charge of the judge was distinct, direct, and positive; and yet the jury were out only long enough to take one ballot and write their verdict." The jury was composed of nine white men and three negroes, but "it was fairly drawn." Fifty-five of the seventy-five names drawn for the special *venire* presented themselves in court. Twenty-five were black and twenty-six white. "Whatever else may be said of Kemper County, it must," General Woodford adds, "be frankly admitted that the jury-list of the county is fairly made up. It contains over two thousand names. Two-fifths of this number are black and three-fifths white. The officers charged with making this list have done their duty impartially, and the special panel drawn from this entire list was honestly drawn." This, it must be remembered, is the testimony of a United States District-Attorney for the Southern District of New York, a strong Republican, who was himself on the spot and watched the proceedings with a critical eye.

Now, this Chisholm case has been used lavishly for the last two years by Republican papers of various shades of opinion as a case which illustrated the political condition of the South, and which proved, or helped to prove, the necessity of combining against the South, and making denunciation of it and hatred and distrust of it one of the principal duties of good Republicans. They treated it, in other words, as a sign that the policy of conciliation was a mistake, and that Southern men were still in a rebellious state of mind; and the *Tribune* assured its readers nearly every week that no attempt would ever be made to punish the perpetrators of the crime. The political exploitation of the incident even went so far as to induce the unfortunate Mrs. Chisholm to deliver a public lecture on the tragedy in which her family perished. It now appears that the machinery of justice, in so far as it is in the hands of officers of the law, worked perfectly; that, indeed, it worked not only as well as it would have worked in any Northern State, but probably better than it would have worked in most Northern States in which popular feeling ran so strongly on the side of the accused. The jury expresses the popular feeling in their verdict, and this feeling is, General Woodford says, "that it was unfortunate but natural" that Chisholm, Gilmer, and McClellan were shot by the mob; that the Chisholm children were accidentally killed, which "is universally regretted," but "that the conviction and execution of anybody for the deed would be equally unfortunate, and that the entire matter had better be allowed to die out and be forgotten." General Woodford thinks this unfortunate state of things will be cured by "a division of the white vote between opposing parties," and that this decision will probably be brought about by "a Republican victory under a wise, brave leader in 1880," as this will convince the Southern Democrats that their hope of holding a united South on "the issues of race and white rule," under the patronage of a friendly Administration at Washington, is a chimera.

In these conclusions General Woodford is, we think, partly right and partly wrong. The effect on the Southern mind of a Republican victory in 1880 will depend on the platform on which the victory is won, and the aims put forward by "the wise and brave leader." If it is won on "the bloody-shirt" platform and on the theory that every negro is *ex vi termini* a Republican, and the language of the canvass spreads the belief that the great aim of the new Administration will be to build up a black party in those States in which negroes are in a majority or nearly in a majority, we have no doubt—human nature being much the same at the South as everywhere else—that the effect will be to keep the white South as "solid" as it is now, as the best protection against the thing it most dreads—negro rule. A Stalwart, denunciatory, exultant North, revelling in the memories of the war, comparing every election to Gettysburg, and searching every corner of the South with the fierce light of newspaper criticism and report, for the purpose of turning all crimes, outrages, and disorders to political account, and indicating by every speech and article and vote its desire to see the Southern State governments in the hands of its own friends, without regard to their character or intelligence, cannot but keep the race question uppermost in the Southern mind, and prevent a division of the whites on any other subject—for all subjects are in their eyes trivial compared to this.

There are too many signs already that this is the kind of Republican victory for which the managers of the party are preparing. The effect on the South of Mr. Hayes's policy, which has been sound, just, and wise, has been largely neutralized by the fierce opposition it has encountered from these men from the beginning, and it is worthy of note that there is not one of the Presidential candidates now in the Republican foreground who ever raised his voice or exerted his influence against the shocking abuses of federal and carpet-bag rule between 1865 and 1876, or ever professed to think that in being subjected to them the Southern whites were getting anything but their due. Most of those who are making complaint about the ingratitude and irreclaimableness of the South are men who never gave the slightest sign of dissatisfaction with the régime which Mr. Hayes brought to an end by withdrawing the troops, and they have never ceased to proclaim their desire to see that régime restored. If the Republican party takes the field in 1880 with a "wise and brave leader" of this kind, the Southern whites will necessarily become "solid" before it, not because they are Southern or white, but because they are men. The appearance in the arena of a party having similar designs towards any Northern State—that is, the design of giving over the State government to a grossly ignorant majority led by characterless adventurers—would make all the persons of intelligence and property "solid" against it without fail, although the "solidity" would show itself in decenter ways than murder and arson.

A Republican victory, on the other hand, which promised the administration of federal affairs at the South through carefully selected and respectable officers, and in a spirit of pure justice, legality, and moderation, taking account of the weaknesses and misfortunes of the whites as well as those of the blacks—that is, "with charity for all and malice towards none"—would undoubtedly be a civilizing agency of the highest order. But such an administration would have to abstain from all schemes of party advantage and especially from seeking to make party votes, or reward party services, by the distribution of the public offices among party "workers"; and yet to nine out of ten Stalwart chiefs good government at the South means just this distribution and nothing more.

General Woodford, too, falls into the error of supposing that what he witnessed in Mississippi was something new or peculiar either to this period of Southern history or to the South. We venture to

assert, though, of course, without having the figures at hand, that no conviction for murder has ever taken place in Mississippi in any case in which the prisoner was able to show that the killing was the result of a previous quarrel, or that he had reason for bearing a grudge to his victim. We have ourselves had a man of good standing in Mississippi pointed out to us, before the war, who had killed thirteen persons and had never been convicted. In fact, if General Woodford had known the South a little better he would have known that the old common-law rule, which makes malice prepense tell against the accused, is, and always has been, reversed in the slave States. In them he has always pleaded it in bar or in extenuation. So that to treat of affairs like the Chisholm case and the Dixon case, as they are treated by a large proportion of the Republican press, as political phenomena created by the present state of political feeling at the South, and preventable a year or two hence by a rousing Republican victory at the North, is political quackery of the lowest order. They are symptoms of a state of civilization which began centuries before the Republican party was ever heard of, and will probably not wholly disappear until the last Stalwart has been fifty years in his grave. The difficulty with which General Woodford saw the Mississippi district-attorney contending was one, too, with which prosecuting officers in Ireland and in Corsica have been familiar ever since juries began to try criminal cases. In both countries nothing is commoner than to find it impossible to get juries to convict foul and bloody murderers, simply because they see, or think they see, excuse for the crimes in the peculiar condition of society. The experience of mankind has shown, however, that this depraved condition of public sentiment is cured not by savage denunciation from without, but by patient persistence in good government, and by bringing the afflicted community into such intellectual, social, and commercial relations with happier portions of the nation that it shall share its shame and horror as well as its hope and ambition.

THE GROUNDS OF THE INDEPENDENT REVOLT.

THE nomination of Mr. Cornell points forcibly, and it is to be hoped in a salutary manner, the distinction between the party and the Machine. The Machine, when it condescends to argue the question of its own justification, assumes the rôle of the handmaid of party—indispensable, it is true, but still ancillary. All its anxious study of the political horizon, its lonely midnight vigils, its thankless arrangement of primaries and conventions, its earnest appeals to the constancy of its fellow-partisans, its laborious and faithful reasoning with its opponents, its incitements to vote on election day and its care for the purity of the suffrage, are prompted by a holy desire to ensure the triumph of the great principles of the party, and a disinterested concern for the administration of the Government in accordance with them. Even after its hollowness is exposed, and judgment is about to be executed upon it by its victims, its prayer for mercy and for one more trial is uttered in the sacred name of party. "Not for our sake," it pleads, "but for the cause. The State ticket we have prepared for you may seem faulty, may even merit defeat, by itself considered. Unhappily on this occasion, by an unforeseen conjuncture of circumstances, on the fate of it depends the success of the national ticket next year. They stand or fall together. Will you, can you, sacrifice to your resentment the welfare of the country, the hopes of future generations?" As the saviour of society and the party the Machine thus plays its trump card.

And what, all this time, is the party? It is an organization whose chief, when it is in power, is the President of the United States, and the authoritative expression of whose common sentiments and aims is the platform adopted in national convention. If the President is true to the platform, the Machine should be at one with both; if it is not, and is found in contemptuous opposition to him, the theoretical unity of the Machine and the party disappears. Such, notoriously, is the present situation in New York, and it is a contradiction in terms to pretend that Mr. Hayes and Mr. Conkling are members of the same party. The nomination of Mr. Cornell was a flagrant act of insubordination, rendered purposely insulting, and intended to prove that the Republican party exists for the Machine, not the Machine for the party. Translated into the political phraseology of the day, it was an attack on the validity of the amendments of the party constitution to which Mr. Conkling had sworn allegiance. The successive modifications of party platforms conformably to the progress of public opinion may be likened, with perfect justice, to the alterations which from time to time our State and national charters undergo. The civil-service plank in the Cincinnati platform was a deliberate and distinct concession to the convictions of the better class of the Republican party. It was inserted because it was demanded; it became an integral portion of the manifesto with which the Republicans went before the country, was singled out for emphasis in Mr. Hayes's letter of acceptance, and was as solemn and binding as any article in the creed. To disregard, ridicule, and assail, or transfer from the President to his subordinates the duty of interpreting it, as soon as the election had been carried—if it was carried—by means of it, was nullification, in all respects analogous to that by which a State might now refuse to respect an amendment to the Constitution by the formal acceptance of which its return into the Union was secured.

Mr. Conkling's revolt offers another aspect which also has its parallel in the present denunciation of the South. When he calls upon the Republicans of New York not to make a State issue of Mr. Cornell's nomination, to regard it only in its national bearings, and vote accordingly, he implies a federal supremacy in the party which ought to be heeded by the rank and file. The rank and file, however, may properly insist that this supremacy, which overrides personal and local considerations, shall be acknowledged by the Machine as well as by themselves. Why is not the doctrine of State sovereignty as good for them in State elections as it was for Mr. Conkling in the matter of State patronage? If the control of the New York Custom-house warranted flat defiance of the party's position in regard to the appointing powers of the Executive, and the business character of the civil service, what other party tenet is so inviolable that Republicans must forego for it their right to choose their own candidates for the administration of their State? To this the Machine's answer of course is that the voter is not to judge what is essential and what is non-essential in the party platform; that the Machine will attend to that and to his conscience too. The consequence is that the Republican constituency of New York is as completely stript of the right of self-government as any Southern State under carpet-bag rule. And, indeed, if we enquire into the amount of real interest which Conkling and his henchmen take in the welfare and prosperity of the State, their likeness to the extinct carpet-baggers is irresistibly striking. Absolutely, beyond the accident of their residence here, they are as alien as the pasha of a Turkish vilayet, their motives summed up in two words—power and plunder. Their political interest is centred in Washington, because there is the administration not of principles but of places. Their political life and dependence are federal, as much so as Parker's, or Spencer's, or Kellogg's; and when the President withdrew the troops from South Carolina and Louisiana, the Machine everywhere felt the blow as aimed at itself.

In this, it is to be suspected, its instinct was truer than Mr. Hayes's perceptions, who saw clearly enough his constitutional duty to the South, but overlooked the connection between it and his pledge on behalf of civil-service reform. Nothing, in fact, could better demonstrate his confusion of mind than his immediately rewarding with federal offices the men who had brought the South to the condition in which he found it. The Machine South, in other words, was exactly the same in theory and practice with the Machine North; only its ravages had been greater because it had the support of the military arm of the Government. Instead, however, of being left to its fate when the right of the South to self-government was acknowledged, and the military called off, its managers were provided for as if martyrs who had deserved well of their country. Such are the illusions which party always breeds in those who look upon it as an end and not as a means. The root of the evil called carpet-bag government lay in the Senatorial manipulation of State

politics through the federal patronage; but this was not invented for the South—it was merely extended and applied there. If there was any difference worth insisting on, it was that at the South the Machine and the party were convertible terms; at the North their identity was at least open to dispute. In the nature of the case, this is a distinction and not a difference; and unquestionably, if Mr. Hayes could have restored the South to its rights without breaking up the Machine, he would have done so—just as Mr. Lincoln would have saved the Union, if he could, without abolishing slavery.

To save the party, however, provided it is worth saving—that is, if it is composed in the main of voters who sincerely desire the good of their country; who think platforms should be honestly lived up to, and more or less heartily believe that a public office is a trust and not a prize—to save the party and the Machine too is beyond any man's ability. He who does not apprehend this has not passed the primer of his political education. He who is blind to the fact that the Machine and the party, in the sense just indicated, not only are not one, but are essentially and permanently antagonistic, has yet to learn the meaning of "reform within the party." This does not signify merely changes in the creed, or fresh shibboleths to match the aspirations of the times, but resistance to the oligarchy which makes hypocrisy of the creed, and answers the demand for pure and upright functionaries with bargained candidates of "slates" and "rings." Such is the understanding alike of the pessimists who despair of reform within the party, and of the Machine itself, which sees no difficulty in the way and never could see any; for both are firmly convinced of the Machine's superiority to all attempts to dislodge it. The approaching election in this State will show how far the Republican voter who thinks and acts for himself is penetrated with the idea that, in this age and country, a self-reforming party is a party in revolt—the horse against his rider, Sindbad against the Old Man of the Sea.

THE FAILURE OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA.

II.—THE FAMINE IN THE NORTHWEST PROVINCES.

LONDON, August 27, 1879.

IN my last letter I spoke of the evils which had been inflicted upon the people of India by the want of fixed principles and a continuous policy in our administration of the country. In nothing has this evil appeared more conspicuously than in our methods of dealing with famines. These of late years have been appallingly frequent. It is at present customary to assign them entirely to causes over which the Administration has no control—the failure of the regular rain-fall, spots on the sun, no matter what, so long as no responsibility on their account attaches to the Government of the country. In truth, however, they are mainly due to our maladministration. The causes which combine to produce an Indian famine are multiplex, and differ according to the districts in which the scarcity occurs. But the chief of them are directly due to our own recklessness and want of forethought. These have occasioned a dire impoverishment of the soil and a corresponding impoverishment of those who cultivate it. The consequence is that a very slight decrease in the customary rain-fall suffices to reduce the soil to a state of sterility, while the cultivators, always destitute, become a prey to famine the instant there is any abrupt rise in prices. It is not too much to say that on a right understanding of this matter depends the existence of our Indian Empire. At present I am concerned only with a particular scarcity—the famine of 1878 in the Northwest Provinces.

As you are aware, the larger part of our Indian revenue is derived from the land. The Indian Government is a part-proprietor of the soil of India, and a fixed portion of its produce is set apart every year as the share of the Government. The proper method, therefore, of dealing with famines is, in India, not so much a subject for philanthropists, as an essential and most important duty devolving upon the Administration. A year of famine not merely diminishes the revenue for that year, but affects it unfavorably for many years to come. The cultivators are impoverished; their physical vigor is impaired; their cattle perish; and thus great tracts of land which ought to return revenue fall out of cultivation and produce nothing. But there exists in India nothing answering to our English poor-law. The consequence is that in times of scarcity, unless the state comes to their aid, the two classes of day laborers and small village shopkeepers must inevitably perish. For the former there is no work, because in years of drought the land is so dried by the action of the sun that it cannot be broken up for sowing. And as the latter subsist by providing for the wants of the former class, the ruin of the one involves the ruin of the other. These considerations render state relief during periods of famine a matter of imperious necessity in India. In keeping its agriculturists alive the state is, in point of fact, keeping itself alive. It is merely sacrificing a portion of the revenue it derives from the land in order to save the remainder. The commonplaces, sound enough elsewhere, as to habits of improvidence engendered in the people by indiscriminate state aid have no relevancy in India. So long as our taxation leaves to the cultivator nothing beyond the bare margin of subsistence, the state must keep him alive in seasons of scarcity. Nevertheless, as can easily be understood, the Indian Government has been most reluctant to acknowledge that it is under any such obligation. The Indian Government always lives up to the extreme limit of its income, and generally a good way beyond it. A governor-general and his council hold office only for five years, and their chief desire is to do something dazzling and sensational during his term—to make a war, to construct a thousand miles of railroad, to excavate a canal—anything which can be made the subject of a self-eulogistic report. There is nothing dazzling in the sacrifice of revenue for purposes of famine relief. Such sacrifices were specially abhorrent to the feelings of Lord Lytton and his Council, because they required every farthing they could scrape together to go on a wild-goose chase after a "scientific frontier." But they were aware of the indignation which would be excited in England if a famine occurred in India and the Indian Government looked passively on while hunger was claiming its thousands of victims. Accordingly, when, in 1877–78, a terrible scarcity arose in the Northwest Provinces, the Government imagined the ingenious device of denying that there was a famine, and so evading the necessity of devoting any part of its revenues to the relief of the destitute. It is the story of this denial that I am about to relate, together with the amazing untruths uttered by the Government when the fraud was discovered.

The cultivated land in the Northwest Provinces is mainly under two descriptions of crops—the rain crops and the cold-weather crops. The rain crops are sown towards the end of June, or shortly after the rains have set in, and are reaped in October and November. The cold-weather crops are sown in October and November, and are reaped in March and April. Thus during the three hottest months of the year, April, May, and June, the cultivated land of India is a bare plain exposed to the parching action of the sun and the hot winds. It is baked to the consistency of sun-dried brick, and if rain does not fall and there are no irrigating canals, the fallows cannot be broken up, and scarcity is inevitable. In 1877 there was an almost total failure of rain in the Northwest Provinces. At the end of September all that portion of India was like a vast desert. Not a drop of rain had fallen for months; not a blade of grass was to be seen anywhere, and, instead of the rain crops covering the land, there was utter sterility. At the best there could be no food, either for the people or the cattle, until the spring crops were ripe for harvesting; but, if no rain fell during October, the spring crops too would be lost, and then the Northwest Provinces would become a scene of mortality and suffering hideous to contemplate. But during the first week of October there was a heavy and continuous downpour of rain, and the hardened soil was sufficiently moistened for the spring sowings to be accomplished. Still, though the spring crops were now safe, the present destitution of the people was in no way alleviated by this circumstance. The winter lay between them and their spring crops, and the cold during the winter is in the Northwest Provinces extremely severe. It was obvious that if a fearful loss of life was to be averted prompt measures would have to be adopted to provide food for the foodless agriculturists. Sir George Couper, the Lieutenant-Governor of the Northwest Provinces, reported to the Government of India that the rain crops had been "irretrievably ruined"; and he added that if any demands were now made on the village communities they too "will simply be ruined." It has always been a standing principle in our administration of India that a failure in the productiveness of the land shall be accompanied by a corresponding remission of revenue. This principle obtains its sanction from the fact of the Government being a part-proprietor of the soil, and, as such, under a moral obligation to participate in the adverse fortune of the cultivators, just as it reaps an advantage out of their periods of prosperity. But a government which had already determined to hunt to death an old and faithful ally because he was supposed to be in possession of a "scientific frontier," could not afford to be less rapacious in its dealings with its own subjects than towards its ally. Sir George Couper was ordered to exact the full amount of the land revenue from the destitute and starving populations. Nay, the Government of India went beyond even this. Por-

tions of this famine-stricken province had lately been reassessed at enhanced rates, and these rates came into operation for the first time in 1878. Sir George Couper was ordered to exact from his people the enhanced rate. Had he been a man of humane or independent character he would have flatly refused to be the instrument of such rapacity, and would have boldly appealed to the House of Commons against the inhumanity of the Indian Government. But Sir George Couper is simply an utterly incompetent Bengal civilian, possessed of neither courage, independence, nor convictions, and in response to the orders of the Government of India he merely "trusts that the realizations will equal the expectations of the Government of India; but if they are disappointed, his Excellency in Council may rest assured that it will not be for want of effort or *inclination to put the necessary pressure on those who are liable for the demand.*" I ask you to take special note of the passage I have italicized. Sir George Couper knows that his people are starving. He has reported that they "will simply be ruined" if they are subjected to the exactions of Lord Lytton and his Financial Member of Council, and then professes his "inclination"—his positive delight—in screwing those exactions out of them. From this single fact your readers will, I think, be able to understand how it is that British rule in India is so profoundly unpopular.

But having thus resolved not to remit the land revenue, Lord Lytton, Sir George Couper, and their coadjutors were compelled to go a step further. They had to make believe that there was no need for remission—that there was no famine. The people were to be allowed to perish, but the administration of the provinces was to be carried on precisely as if nothing unusual was occurring. It was thought that in this way the famine would simply work itself out, the Government would get its land revenue, and nobody in England or elsewhere need know anything about it. It well illustrates the enormous gulf which divides the English from the natives in India that such a thought should have entered into the mind of a government; but more remarkable still, the project was very nearly succeeding. During all that dreary winter death was busy claiming his victims. At the lowest computation, more than a quarter of a million perished of actual starvation. The number would have to be doubled if it included all those who perished of disease, the result of insufficient food and exposure to cold; for in the desperate endeavor to keep their cattle alive the wretched peasantry fed them on the straw which thatched their huts, and which they used as bedding. The winter was abnormally severe, and without a roof above them or bedding beneath them multitudes perished of cold. The cross-country roads were strewed with the dead. Scores were cast into old disused wells as the readiest means of getting them out of the way. Mothers sold their children for a single scanty meal. Husbands flung their wives into ponds to escape the torment of seeing them perish by the lingering agonies of hunger. Lord Lytton and his colleagues and advisers maintained their serenity and cheerfulness undisturbed. The local papers in the Northwest were persuaded into silence. Strict orders were given to civil officers to open no relief-works in their districts, or in any way to give countenance to the pretence of the natives that they had no food. One civilian, a Mr. McMinn, unable to endure the misery he saw around him, opened a relief-work at his own expense. He was immediately suspended from his duties and punished by degradation to a lower office.

All this time not a whisper of the tragedy that was being enacted in the Northwest had reached Calcutta. The Government was well aware that in Calcutta there was a sufficient strength of public opinion to shatter to pieces the plans they had resolved on. And, but for an accident, it is not improbable that the famine might have passed off without its existence being known in Calcutta. But in the month of February Mr. Knight, the proprietor of the Calcutta *Statesman*, had occasion to visit Agra. He was astonished to find all around him the indications of an appalling misery. He began to investigate the matter, and gradually the truth came out. A quarter of a million of British subjects had perished, hunted even to their graves by the pitiless exactions of a Government which had looked on unmoved at their sufferings.

Mr. Knight made known through the columns of the *Statesman* what he himself had seen, and what he had learned from others in the course of his enquiries. Lord Lytton and Sir George Couper felt they must do something to extinguish Mr. Knight. The official newspapers were instructed to denounce him as a mendacious journalist, who rejoiced in calumniating an infallibly wise government because it procured him notoriety. At the same time Lord Lytton and Sir George Couper drew up a report in which all Mr. Knight's statements were flatly denied, and Sir George Couper eulogized as a far-seeing philanthropist. Mr. Knight, however, was far too strong a controversialist for his official adversaries. In a series of trenchant leading articles he established, to the satisfaction of all India, every statement he had made, and in so doing convicted Lord Lytton and his advisers of inhumanity and disregard of truth. I must quote the salient points of Lord Lytton's eulogy of Sir George Couper when acknowledging the receipt of his report traversing the allegations of Mr. Knight. He calls it a "convincing statement"; but adds that the Government of India needed no such statement to convince it that "the Lieutenant-Governor had exercised forethought in his arrangements, and had shown humanity in his orders throughout the recent crisis." The mortality which Lord Lytton "deplored" with "a deep and painful regret," in so far "as it was directly the result of famine, was caused rather by the unwillingness of the people to leave their homes than by any want of forethought on the part of the local government in providing works where they might be relieved." Lord Lytton "unhesitatingly accepts the statement of the local government that no one who was willing to go to a relief-work need have died of famine, and it is satisfactorily shown in his Honor's Minute that the relief-wage was ample." This eulogy was published on the 2d of May, 1878, after Mr. Knight had begun making his revelations in the *Statesman*. It is to be observed that there is no attempt now to deny the existence of a famine, or the fact of an appalling mortality. It was felt that in the face of Mr. Knight's statements the pretence that there was nothing out of the ordinary occurring in the Northwest must be given up. But what the policy of the Government would have been without Mr. Knight's inconvenient disclosures is apparent from an official report of Sir George Couper, dated 28th of February. At this time the people had been dying for months at the rate of many thousands a week. Over that part of the country where famine prevailed, the official mortuary returns showed that the mortality was seven and eight times in excess of what it ordinarily was. It was impossible that Sir George Couper could be unacquainted with the fact. Yet he did not scruple to report to the Government of India that "it may be questioned whether it will not be found hereafter that the comparative immunity from cholera and fever which, owing apparently to the drought, the provinces have enjoyed during the past year will not compensate for the losses caused by insufficient food and clothing, and *make the mortality generally little if at all higher than in an ordinary year.*" Left to themselves, Lord Lytton and his friends would have stoutly maintained that famine there was none, and the mortality no greater than in an ordinary year. Mr. Knight compelled them to relinquish this particular falsehood, and they fell back upon what may be called their second line. They acknowledged that there had been famine and mortality, but that the Government had foreseen and provided for every emergency; and that if, notwithstanding, a vast number of people had perished, this lamentable issue was due to the obstinate perversity with which they clung to their foodless villages, instead of availing themselves of those means of relief which a beneficent Government had abundantly provided. This statement was false on the face of it; for, as Sir George Couper had reported that there was no excessive mortality, it was ridiculous to suppose he could have adopted extraordinary measures to meet an emergency which did not exist.

Mr. Knight had charged the Government with taking no measures for the relief of the people, although it knew that the rain crops had perished, and that consequently the people had nothing to live on during the bitterly cold winter. This charge Sir George Couper affirmed to be entirely false. He writes: "In October Colonel Fraser was deputed to visit the headquarters of each division, and, in consultation with the district officers, settle what works should be undertaken to give employment to the poor when the inevitable pressure began." Then, after reciting some details, he adds: "I submit that it was not in the power of the local government to take further precautions than these in anticipation of the coming distress." This statement Lord Lytton characterizes as "a convincing statement of facts," and congratulates the Lieutenant-Governor on his "humanity" and "forethought."

Now mark the truth. Colonel Fraser, it is true, was deputed to visit the headquarters of the various districts in which it was known that the population was foodless and destitute. But it was in order to read the following extract from a letter addressed to himself by Sir George Couper:

"Please discourage relief-works in every possible way. It may be, however, that when agricultural operations are over, some of the people may want work. This, however, except on works for which there is budget provision, should only be given if the collector is satisfied that without it the people would actually starve. *Mere distress is not a sufficient reason for opening a relief-work.* And if a relief-work be started, *task-work should be rigorously exacted, and the people put on the barest subsistence-wage*, so that we may be satisfied that if any other kind of work were procurable elsewhere they would resort to it."

The spirit of these instructions is unmistakable. They were intended

to drive the people away from the relief-works. Nobody was to be relieved unless he or she was actually in a state of starvation. The consequence was that only when a man was already half-dead with hunger could he be received upon a relief-work. He then received the "barest subsistence-wage," while a full day's work was "rigorously exacted" from him. Colonel Fraser was a fit instrument for carrying these instructions into effect. He swore "that there should be no famine under his administration, and that any collector who attempted to get one up should —— etc., etc." The blank space may be filled up with objurgations according to the taste and fancy of the reader. The effect of the Colonel's labors was that the people throughout the Northwest were literally starved off the relief-works. The wage allotted to each man was a little more than a penny of English money; to each woman about one penny; to each child a half-penny. But even at this rate it was found that the famine-stricken wretches clung to the works rather than face absolute want of food; and in consequence the subsistence-wage was still further reduced. Then the people in despair abandoned the works and returned to their villages to die. Having achieved this feat, the Government of India charges its victims with apathy and perversity because they perish in their homes. "No one," says Lord Lytton, "who was willing to go to a relief-work need have died of famine." He affirms this, knowing that in numberless places there were no relief-works where it was possible to obtain even Colonel Fraser's "subsistence-wage." And all this time the few who might out of their savings have lived through the period of scarcity were reduced to destitution also by the merciless exactions of this false and cruel Government.

The great length to which this letter has run compels me to break off here abruptly. But I think I have said enough to illustrate my remarks in a previous letter, that our Government of India is a gigantic system of "eye-wash." The great aim of the Government is not to remedy abuses, but keep them concealed and unknown. It is continually pretending to have accomplished that which it has not so much as attempted to do. And thus it is that difficulties and dangers have been allowed to grow up unchecked until they have become a menace to the existence of the Empire.

Correspondence.

THE INDEPENDENTS IN THE COMING CANVASS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of Sept. 11 a correspondent discusses the position of the Independents in the coming canvass. The question is certainly one of unusual interest and importance, since the two political parties are very evenly balanced, and the Independent vote is large and constantly increasing. Your correspondent "A." describes very exactly the true condition of politics at the present moment, but exception may, I think, be taken to his conclusion that a policy of quiescence is the proper one to be adopted by Independent voters. If both parties make good nominations there is, of course, no need of an Independent movement. If one party makes a good nomination, the Independent movement would also be needless. But if, and this third contingency is only too probable, both parties make bad nominations, then an Independent movement becomes essential. Suppose, for example, that the Republicans on the one hand should nominate General Grant or Mr. Blaine, and the Democrats on the other should select Mr. Tilden or Mr. Hendricks as their candidates; in such an event the condition of the Independent vote would be one of perfect helplessness, unless some attempt had been previously made to meet this state of affairs. It seems to me, therefore, that the Independents ought to organize beforehand to such an extent that, in the event of bad nominations on both sides, they would be able to come together and put up a candidate of their own.

The Fifth-Avenue Hotel conference was a failure in one sense, because as soon as the regular nominations were made the leaders rushed into one party or the other, and, abandoning all idea of holding the Independent vote together, left their followers in the lurch to look out for themselves. In another sense, however, the conference was a success. It certainly helped to force a respectable candidate upon the Republicans, if not upon the Democrats as well. It obliged both parties to bid for support by raising, instead of by lowering, the character of their candidates and the tone of their resolutions. A similar conference now would probably have a similar result. If it did not, and both parties made bad nominations, the Independent voters would then have a rallying point and an organization to fall back upon, and would be able to put up a candidate of their own, and thus avoid throwing away their votes, besides creating a very wholesome diversion in our national politics.

By this suggestion I am far from advocating anything so chimerical as starting a third party in the present condition of politics. The only practical course for the Independents is, as a rule, to work through existing parties, and, by using one against the other in turn, force upon them the policy and measures they deem best for the country. But it would be a dismal fate not merely for the Independent voters but for the country to be left in 1880 to choose between General Grant and Mr. Tilden. A third party, or a third candidate, would then be of incalculable value. It is for this contingency that I wish the Independent voters to provide. I do not, I think, underestimate the difficulty of making such provision—on the contrary, the obstacles seem to me very great indeed; but I am satisfied that the effort ought to be made. In any event, an Independent movement would tend to raise the character of the party candidates, and it might become of the utmost importance if Democrats and Republicans, relying on their machines, insist upon giving the country a mere choice of evils. L.

Boston, Sept. 20, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The references in the *Nation* of September 11 to the present political status of the Independents, or Liberals, as they were called in Michigan, seem to invite a few words on the subject from the old Northwest. A few years ago there was a large and influential element, known as Liberals—but Independents would have been a more appropriate name—in this section. They were Republicans who had become thoroughly disgusted with the infamous political methods of the Grant Administration. They were strong enough to influence local nominations; the Democrats, not then inoculated with fiatism, were wise enough to adopt their suggestions in regard to platforms and candidates, and in not a few instances the Republicans encountered their first defeats. Notably was this the case in Jackson County. Nearly all of those now regarded as Independents voted for Mr. Greeley in 1872, and many of them for Mr. Tilden in 1876; but at the elections that have been held since the inauguration of President Hayes they have generally voted the Republican ticket. None of them, however, are ever chosen as delegates to conventions, and they are not, and do not wish to be, recognized as being in good and regular standing with the Republican party; they are Independents still. Every man of them is in favor of a sound currency. The Democratic party having abandoned its ancient faith in regard to the currency, and that, too, at a time when the assertion and maintenance of that faith was a patriotic duty, and having sought and effected coalitions with the Greenback faction, as long as this question was dominant in politics there was no other consistent course for the Independents to take. They have felt compelled to vote with the Republicans because the Republican party, though tainted with financial heresies, has advocated the soundest financial doctrines. It has not been clean, but it has been cleaner, of late years, than the Democratic party.

If the Democrats had made "Hard Money and Home Rule" their shibboleth, and had behaved decently in Congress, the action of many of the Independents would have been different. Of course the Solid South, the continuance of the shot-gun policy, and the rantings of red-mouthed brigadiers in Congress have had the effect to consolidate Northern sentiment, awaken war memories, and stop that disintegration of the Republican party which was taking place at a rapid rate towards the close of President Grant's Administration; but, in spite of all this suicidal conduct on the part of the Southerners, let General Grant be nominated by the Republicans next year, and a decent, honest-money candidate—like Senator Bayard, for instance—be put up by the Democrats, and not only will the old Independents assert their independence again, but they will have numerous new recruits from the Republican party. There is a widespread feeling that the Republican party deserves to be beaten, but, bad as it sometimes is, that it is not quite bad enough generally to be beaten by the Democratic party under its present management. That would be getting "out of the frying-pan into the fire." E. W. B.

Jackson, Mich., September 16, 1879.

THE NEW YORK REPUBLICAN TICKET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am much pleased with your article of September 18 entitled "The Independent Voter in the New York Election." Will you permit me to add a few further suggestions in support of your view?

1. The election this year is *exclusively* for State officers. It affects

only State interests. In choosing a governor, a comptroller, or other State officer the people *should* be influenced solely by the consideration which candidate is most likely to fulfil the duties of the office faithfully and well. Of course, in determining this question party politics cannot be entirely disregarded. Other things being equal, a Republican will prefer to vote for one of his own party. But paramount to this preference should always be the wish to promote good government in the State. The idea industriously enforced by Conkling politicians, and weakly acquiesced in by many of their opponents, that we must support Cornell now in order to ensure Republican ascendency in 1880, has no basis in fact.

2. It has never before happened in this State, so far as I know, that all the dangerous and corrupt rings in the State are banded on one side. I say "on one side," because the support of Kelly by Democrats is so openly and evidently in the Cornell interest that no argument is necessary to show it. All the Kelly men profess to hope is to beat Robinson. Robinson can only be defeated by electing Cornell. In order to accomplish this the Tammany Ring, the Custom-house Ring, the Canal Ring, and the Insurance Ring, the latter headed by Mr. Conkling's devoted servant, John F. Smyth, are heartily and zealously co-operating. The election of Cornell means that John Kelly shall maintain absolute and undisturbed sway in the city of New York; that John F. Smyth shall be reappointed Insurance Superintendent and continue to prey upon policyholders to maintain the Conkling ascendency; that Jarvis Lord, Belden, and Denison, and the other magnates of canal corruption, shall be restored to the opportunities for defrauding the State from which they have for the past five or six years been cruelly excluded; and that all attempts to conduct the civil service, State or national, on honest business principles shall be abandoned, and those who have made or approved such attempts be branded, in the choice language of Senator Conkling at the Rochester Convention of 1877, as scoundrels and "man-milliners."

3. It is argued by Cornell's supporters that if Robinson shall be elected Tilden will be nominated by the Democrats for President in 1880; while if he is defeated, Tilden's chances for the Presidential nomination will be gone. Assuming this to be so, is it any reason why Independent Republicans should hesitate to go against Cornell? The Democrats must have *some* candidate. There are probably more elements of opposition to Tilden than to any other they can name. He has no qualities whatever to arouse popular enthusiasm. If the defeat of Robinson shall prevent the Democrats from nominating Tilden, it may drive them to nominate some more popular and therefore, to Republicans, more dangerous candidate. Besides, upon the question of "honest money," the most important, perhaps, that will be involved in the campaign of 1880, Mr. Tilden is himself sound. It would be better to have him elected than an avowed and earnest inflationist. But all this, upon either side of the question, is mere speculation. Our duty done to our *State* this year, it will be easier to do it to the nation in 1880. Then the questions involved will be as exclusively national as this year they are State. No State officers (except members of Assembly) are to be elected in 1880; Presidential electors and members of Congress are then to be elected.

4. Your plan of proceeding for Independent Republicans is an excellent one. I would recommend to supplement it in two respects:

1. Vote for Robinson. Your estimate of him is, in my judgment, entirely correct. He has made some mistakes. Upon some questions he has appeared to be prejudiced and narrow. But he is a ruggedly and aggressively honest man. The acts for which some of his own party have repudiated him commend him to every honest citizen. I believe he has performed no official act with wrong motives or intentions.

2. Add the name of Wendell to those of Cornell and Soule for erasure. Wendell is more thoroughly identified with the Machine than any man on the ticket, except Cornell. He has been for years the most intimate political friend of John F. Smyth. He is generally believed, with Smyth, to have traded with Albany ring Democrats to defeat honest and reputable Republicans in this city. There are many other facts, some of them of public and judicial record, which indicate clearly that Mr. Wendell is an unfit man to put in charge of the State Treasury, or for a seat in the Canal Board or Board of Audit. Particulars can be given, if desired by Mr. W. or his supporters. INDEPENDENT REPUBLICAN.

ALBANY, September 20, 1879.

GLARING WHITE PAPER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The discussions held on education during the present session of the Congress of Social Science move me to offer, through the *Nation*, a contribution to the general thought on one branch of this large subject. I believe that the eyesight of children and youth in school is injured by the intense whiteness and the high finish of the paper used in the manufacture of many of our school-books. The contrast is too great between the clear white of the paper and the blackness of the letters. The impression on the eye is not comforting, but harsh. The eye in its search is more than adequately met: it is assailed. And this suffering is aggravated often by a band of reflected light striking the eye from some part of the curved page held in the hand or lying before the reader. Our very virtues are working us mischief here. We wish the best of everything for our schools; and "what is better in a school-book than its beauty and high finish, provided the contents be all right?" we unthinkingly ask. Two things, we reply—a natural tone to the paper, and a freedom from all gloss in the finish.

A school-book in a pupil's hand is a result towards which many have made their contribution, and all the partners in this result need instruction. Perhaps publishers need it least of all, for in many cases they would make the book right were it not for the author's prejudices in favor of what is fine. The members of school-committees can hardly be expected to study more than the matter of a school-book and its most obvious attractions; and teachers often forget that a school-book should more than please—should act kindly on the pupil's eyes week after week and month after month. A.

ORANGE, N J., September 13.

[We agree entirely with our correspondent in respect to the disagreeable nature of the impression produced on the eye by the highly-finished (calendered) paper which is just now in fashion. His strictures might have been extended to the gloss upon writing-paper. For all practical purposes what is called a "machine finish" (a dull surface) is greatly preferable. In respect to tinting, we would remark that a very light buff has been found, both by medical and by non-medical observers, to be the most grateful for the eye to rest upon. The notion of whiteness is one which requires to be analyzed. A natural paper, with no coloring-matter, is apt to have a shade of buff, and frequently satisfies the most sensitive and critical eye. Snellen's test-types appear to be printed on natural paper (we are not sure of the fact); and the sheet appears distinctly buff when held by the side of an ordinary newspaper. The latter, however, and a great deal of book-paper and writing-paper, are colored with indigo for the purpose of conveying the impression of perfect whiteness. The eye may feel the effect as "harsh," and the taste may be offended, but upon theoretical grounds it is hardly justifiable to condemn the addition of a bluish tint.

As regards children, the point urged by our correspondent is of value; but there is one of still greater importance—namely, the restriction of their use of books in general. If the eye-sight be protected during childhood in accordance with well-known rules, including the avoidance of long-continued application to minute objects (books, maps, fine penmanship, fine needlework), the danger of near-sight occurring in later years will be slight.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE fourth part of the 'American Catalogue' completes the first volume (of Authors and Titles) with the exception of title-page and some additional matter, which will not long be delayed (A. C. Armstrong & Son). We can testify to the usefulness of this admirable work at every stage of its progress.——Thomas Whitaker announces as in press 'The Faith of our Forefathers,' a reply to Archbishop Gibbons's work on the same subject. He will also publish here the 'Simple Lessons for Home Use' and 'The Shakespeare Birthday Book,' reprinted from the English.——Lee & Shepard will publish immediately Jules Verne's new work, 'The Tribulations of a Chinaman in China,' a very modern story.——McCalla & Stavely have in preparation 'The Refutation of Darwinism; and the Converse Theory of Development, based exclusively upon Darwin's facts,' by T. Warren O'Neill, of the Philadelphia bar, who, if successful, should lose no time in changing his profession.——B. Westermann & Co. have received Parts 6 and 7 of the new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas.' Especially noticeable are the maps of India; of the West Indies proper,

including Central America; of the British Isles and the neighboring waters, and of the Northwestern United States (Plate 2 of the six-plate map of this country).——We understand that Mr. John Fiske is likely to lecture in this city during the month of December, and in the spring to repeat his visit to England in accordance with the desire of those who listened there last month to his lectures on America.——The *Athenæum* reports the Philological Society's Dictionary as making good progress; "on some days as many as 4,000 slips from books pour in." A 'Cambridge Chaucer,' says the same paper, is to be edited by Mr. Henry Bradshaw, the librarian of Cambridge University, and Mr. F. J. Furnivall, the founder of the Chaucer Society, and published by Macmillan & Co. in six octavo volumes. The Clarendon Press will shortly issue a new Latin Dictionary, revised upon Andrews's Freund's, and enlarged, by two American scholars, Mr. Charlton T. Lewis and Professor Charles Short, of Columbia College.——A 'Bibliography of the Writings of Charles Dickens,' by James Cook, has just appeared in England, and is said to be an indispensable supplement to Forster's Life.——In the *Renaissance* we find high praise bestowed on a monthly bibliographic bulletin called *La Lecture*, published at Geneva, and designed for the use of families and popular institutions and libraries. Many of the reviews are written by women. It owes its existence to the local society for promoting public libraries.——In 1863 Hetzel published 'Les Tricheries des Grecs dévoilées,' a book in which Robert Houdin exposed the tricks of professional gamblers. This same book, with no alteration whatever, has been again brought out by Lévy, with the title changed to 'L'Art de Gagner à Tous les Jeux,' and without any intimation that the work is sixteen years old. Indeed, the advertisements announce it as a new book. In spite of this disingenuousness the volume may be recommended to all interested in the subject as much the best procurable.——The death is announced by cable of Eugène Emmanuel Viollet-le-Duc, the eminent French architect and antiquary, and writer on his chosen art, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. We shall take an early occasion to speak of his services at length.——In response to enquiry we give here the address of the Independent Republican Committee referred to last week: it is P. O. Box 4295, New York. We are informed, and are glad to learn, that the responses to their address have greatly exceeded their expectations; but those who desire the success of their efforts should remember that the Committee have nobody to "assess," and are quite dependent on voluntary contributions.——Two errata in our last issue (No. 742) call for prompt correction. In the last paragraph but one on p. 185 mention was made of the Russian expedition against "the Turkomans"; for which read "Tekke Turkomans." In the last paragraph on p. 187 "$110,000" should read "£110,000."

—The dramatic unity of Mr. Henry James, jr.'s, 'Confidence' goes all to pieces in the October *Scribner's*. The leading characters are dispersed to the four quarters of the globe; the heroine has no confidence in anybody, her lover appears to lose his confidence in his friend, and the only confidence the reader can have in the ultimate re-establishment of the machinery of the story, after the two years which are supposed to intervene, lies in the dormant "property" of the Siena sketch, and in the suggestiveness of the balcony scene at the end of chapter v. But all this is very entertaining, and doubtless Mr. James is equal to his task. Prof. Lounsbury, in his second paper on "English Spelling and Reform," effectually disposes of the so-called etymological objections to reform, though when he has to expose the false etymologies suggested by corrupt spelling, criticism might be made of the statements as to how these corruptions crept in. For instance, was it on account of the analogy of *who* and *whoop*, or because he lived in Ireland, or for some other reason, that Spenser wrote *hot* "whot" in the 'Faery Queene'? So far as can be judged this paper is the last of the series, but it is to be hoped not. The reform is not going to be demanded or carried by the multitude, but by the literary and scholarly guild; and what they require is not merely the removal of their prejudices—needful preliminary work, certainly—but a precise and satisfactory account of what is to take the place of the present product of the dictionary and the printing-office. Will orthography be determined by scientific or haphazard phonetics? Will, for instance, the *catalog* of our esteemed contemporaries the Chicago *Tribune* and the *Library Journal*, or the same word translated into Mr. Alexander Ellis's "Glossic," be the correct spelling of the future; and are editors to be commended who make lists for themselves of mutilated words for the guidance of their proof-readers and compositors? Prof. Lounsbury might also find something to say as to the value of an international congress on spelling reform, seeing that English is only the worst of the languages which are susceptible of an improved orthography; and as to the principles on which the reformed dictionary will be constructed—that is, what shall be the standard of pronunciation.

—With mention of an acute but too short anonymous article on "Journalism as exemplified by the late Mr. Bagehot," which we commend to the Froudes and Macaulays of the press, we pass to the illustrated articles in *Scribner's*, all of which are readable and variously instructive. Mr. Ernest Ingersoll tells of life in Leadville and of the mode of mining there; Mr. Zimmermann, of "Field Sports in Minnesota"; Mr. Fox, of one of Mr. Edison's interesting non-successes in swift telegraphy; Mr. Randolph, of a sailor's experience in turning cotton-planter in a Southern wilderness—a humorous story, disproving the traditional inability of white men to endure field labor beside the negro; Miss Kate Field, of Arthur Sullivan; and Mr. Smith, in a paper on Rio de Janeiro, raises once more a warning note against the illusions of American capitalists and mechanics who send their goods or betake themselves to Brazil in the hope of profit. The portrait of Mr. Edison, by Mr. Lathrop, engraved by Juengling, and Fortuny's delicious "Piping Shepherd," engraved by Cole, are the masterpieces among the illustrations; but the editor should have spared us the poetical *affiche* to the Fortuny—

> "Gone is Hellas, fane and idol,
> Gone are those symmetric men
> Wise to bridle," etc.

—The *Atlantic* for October is better than usual, which to its admirers is equivalent to saying that it is an excellent number. The most noteworthy articles are "Sincere Demagogy," by the author of the paper on dangerous tendencies in American life, and "Socialism in Germany," by Willard Brown. They are timely and suggestive, and they go so well together that it was worth while printing them in the same issue even at the risk of overweighting it. The former speaks of the rapid growth in this country of a class of sincere men, laborers, farmers, and even capitalists, who believe in the repeal of all laws limiting the suffrage, Government issue of paper money and control of railroads, compulsory practical education, direct taxes, chiefly on incomes; and who look for a millennium to be produced by science. This class is far more important than is generally supposed, according to the writer, because it is both intelligent and honest. Both its poorer members and those in comfortable circumstances expect the overthrow of "men of wealth and culture," the former with exultation, the others without personal feeling. But among the latter there may arise a leader, educated though despising culture, rich but denouncing wealth as the chief danger to the liberties of "the people," elegant, of spotless character and of a kindly disposition, who will press these ideas upon our unwilling attention. The speculation of the article is "legitimate" enough, and it is nothing against it perhaps that one should note the facility with which such writers speculate after having formed the habit. Mr. Brown's report as to German socialism may be summarized as an elaborate and instructive exposition of the laborer's discontent, and the belief of the educated philanthropist that socialism is a cure for it. There is an enthusiastic article on Meyerbeer by William F. Apthorp, who, however, does not blink the essentially clap-trap nature of Meyerbeer's genius, though he might object to such a statement of his qualifying criticism; "Irene the Missionary" draws near its end; "Life at a Little Court," by Sidney Hyde, is distinctly charming; Principal Shairp contributes a paper on "Burns and Scotch Song before Him," which will be read on account of its authorship; there is an admirable review of Didier's 'Life and Letters of Madame Bonaparte,' and the "Contributor's Club" contains an interesting account of Miss McLaughlin's discovery in pottery, which enables her to rival Haviland.

—The conclusion of Miss Olney's novel, "Through Winding Ways," in the October *Lippincott* may afford a kind of shock to readers who had come to look upon it as a "permanent feature" of the magazine, but it is as happy and satisfactory as the ending of a fairy-tale. The story is a highly-seasoned one, as may possibly be remembered; one of its characters is married four times in the course of it, her first husband dying, her second being divorced, her third shot in battle, and her fourth very much such a man as would be required to take up with such a wife; other characters and incidents are proportionately intricate. The rest of the number is of a varied and light character; Mr. Oswald has a fourth "Summerland Sketch," which is readable; Margaret Bertha Wright begins an account of "Rambles of Three," which essays humor in both text and illustrations and relates the experiences of some American artists in Italy; there is a paper on "American Landscape Gardening," by Edward C. Bruce, which would have been better if it had relied more confidently upon the interest of its subject; "The Study of English in Germany" makes the most of what it treats of and in an interesting way; "Chamois-Shoot-

ing with the Emperor of Austria" is from a capable pen, and there is a curious story of a fanatical Spanish sect in "Our Monthly Gossip" that will be new to most readers, we imagine. Its members were sworn to strangle those of their number who had received extreme unction, on the ground that they were ready for Heaven and might become less so should they by any unhappy chance recover.

—It will surprise many people, no doubt, to be told that Massachusetts is, in the matter of common-school education, "living on its past reputation," and that half of the proportionately large sum it spends for this purpose yearly is money not so much thrown away as fatally misapplied. This, nevertheless, is what Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., asserts in his account of a radical and successful experiment recently made by the school committee of the town of Quincy. The committee found, in 1873, that "most of the pupils who have finished the grammar course neither speak nor spell their own language very perfectly, nor read and write it with that elegance which is desirable." This was a mild statement of the results of the ordinary routine teaching in these schools, Mr. Adams says, and it is probably quite as applicable to other towns than Quincy in Massachusetts and out of it. "The whole thing was a sham," Mr. Adams exclaims of the regular school examination, in which pupils show to such apparent advantage and with the superficiality of which every one is familiar; "it was, in a word, all smatter, veneering, and cram." The committee concluded to attempt a wholly new departure. Instead of the stock superintendent, "usually some retired clergyman or local politician out of a job," they found a gentleman fresh from Germany and full of enthusiasm for teaching "as a science." They tempered his transports in one or two regards, and then gave him *carte blanche* to try his system. This system consisted in the absence of system. The number of studies was reduced in the first place. The grammar, reader, speller, and copy-book were then "hustled out." Reading at sight and writing off-hand were aimed at; "children were to learn to read and write and cypher as they learned to swim, or to skate, or to play ball." In the first two grammar grades were combined instruction in reading, writing, grammar, spelling, history, and geography. General reading, even to magazine articles, was put into the pupils' hands. The scholars read first and then wrote of what they had read. Spelling came with practice, just as walking and talking do. In short, the system introduced was "a complete negation of the whole present common-school system." Of course this "seemed to take away the breath of the old-time masters," but its results were, according to Mr. Adams, excellent. "Not only was there a marked improvement in attendance, but the attendance was cheerful." The children could read at sight and could write a simple letter easily, although not one in ten knew what a noun was, for example. The cost of the improved instruction was one-fifth less than the old had been. There are probably few patriotic people who will not be interested in Mr. Adams's account of this revolution, of which we have space to give but a meagre outline—as he says, Americans believe the common schools to be "the ark of the national salvation." Accordingly we refer our readers to the little pamphlet, which Estes & Lauriat have just published, wherein Mr. Adams has collected this essay and two others germane in subject, under the title 'The Public Library and the Common Schools: Three Papers on Educational Topics.'

—Several things should be borne in mind, however, in reading Mr. Adams's paper. The Quincy experiment was tried under unusually favorable conditions. The committee were in effect a commission, and they evidently enjoyed the confidence of their tax-paying townsmen in an unusual degree; they were not subject to removal before they had fairly tested their plan, to be succeeded by another committee inimical to it. They were peculiarly fortunate in their selection of a superintendent. It is probable that their teachers were better than the average, and had a certain elasticity and adaptability. It is still more probable that they were themselves men of acumen, experience, and public spirit. Furthermore, they were pioneers, and naturally possessed of a wholesome zeal. Moreover, the method enhances the importance of the teacher greatly—with text-books abolished, everything, indeed, may be said to depend upon the ability and aptitude of the teacher. Such a superintendent as Mr. Parker could doubtless teach teachers how to teach. But supposing the Quincy method introduced into the schools of this city by the Board of Education, would Superintendent Kiddle be competent to supervise the details of reformation? Still, the adoption of any measure which would illustrate to the Board of Education Superintendent Kiddle's exact capacities would perhaps be worth trying.

—The death is announced by cable of the Rev. Dr. Joseph P. Thompson, formerly of this city, at Berlin on Saturday, in the sixty-first year of his age. Dr. Thompson was a native of Philadelphia, but acquired his early reputation as pastor of the Broadway Tabernacle, and as one of the first editors of the *Independent*. In consequence of the sudden failure of his health he withdrew from his charge in 1872, with every mark of esteem and confidence on the part of his congregation, and went to Germany to live, having especially in view the quiet pursuit of his studies in Egyptology, to which he was greatly devoted. He took, however, an active part in numerous international congresses at Brussels, Antwerp, Paris, and elsewhere, for the codification of the law of nations, the regulation of trade, the furtherance of geographical research, etc., and delivered many addresses on America during the centennial year. It is, indeed, remarkable that his powers were not sooner exhausted. Dr. Thompson was a frequent and valued contributor to the *Nation*, beginning with the second number, and the relation suffered no interruption from his residence abroad. Besides what he wrote for newspapers and reviews his published works are numerous, but of these a few memoirs of deceased friends will perhaps be the most enduring. That on which he was engaged at the time of his death is said to have related to the Hebrews in Egypt.

—The French National Library has just issued, as a supplement of fourteen pages to its August bulletin, a list of the American books collected for the library by M. Em. Terquem during his late visit to this country. The books are all gifts from various libraries, publishers, and from the Departments of Government. The most noteworthy fact about the list is, that the first library in France, and the largest library in the world, should not have advanced beyond the primitive, and one might say bibliopolic, style of cataloguing the books issued by institutions under the first word of the title. In this list the publications of the United States are scattered all through the alphabet, according as they are Reports, Acts, Regulations, Schedules, Revised Regulations, Treatises, Notices, Patent Laws, Monthly Reports, Memoranda, Lists. A worse practice could not be devised.

—M. Édouard Fournier, the French antiquarian and dramatic critic, has just published a fifth edition, revised and considerably enlarged, of his little book on 'L'Esprit des Autres.' M. Fournier is to be treated rather as a dealer in literary bric-à-brac than as a serious historian. His 'Vieux-Neuf,' or ancient history of modern inventions and discoveries, is a pellmell gathering of the interesting and the worthless. His 'L'Esprit dans l'Histoire' has provided Mr. Hayward with the text and with much of the matter of one of his most entertaining essays, in which we were shown how little reliance was to be placed on the generally received anecdotes and popular sayings attributed to the celebrities of the past. 'L'Esprit des Autres' is akin in subject and style to this. It contains four hundred rambling pages about quotations, either in French or in Greek and Latin, the only other languages most Frenchmen take any interest in. It is not a regular dictionary of quotations like Mr. Bartlett's, but an ample index of passages cited fills twenty pages at the end of the book, and gives it value as a work of reference. M. Fournier fills his first chapter with a discussion of the good and evil of quoting. Perhaps unaware of Emerson's essay and Sterne's remark about all modern literature being a pouring from one vessel into another—a remark which has been traced to Burton's 'Anatomy'—he quotes a passage of Châteaubriand in which Socrates is cited as saying that he was, as it were, a vase filling himself with water at strange fountains for the benefit of those who heard him. He also gives us a criticism of Bayle's to the effect that a certain work was "loaded with so many quotations that they interfere and keep us from seeing the author's own work"; and this reminds M. Fournier of the song of the peasant lost in Paris and crying out:

> "La hauteur des maisons
> Empêch' de voir la ville" (p. 2),

for a parallel to which see one of the numberless stanzas of the primitive Yankee Doodle. We noticed recently the letters of Ducis. M. Fournier shows us here (p. 257) that that dramatist put Goldsmith under contribution as well as Shakspere, turning the familiar

> "Man wants but little here below,
> Nor wants that little long,"

into the feebler Alexandrine,

> "Il faut si peu pour l'homme, et pour si peu de temps."

Mr. Tennyson's declaration of the real faith which may exist in honest doubt has a French parallel in Mme. Deshoulières'

> "Vous ne prouvez que trop que chercher à connaître
> N'est souvent qu'apprendre à douter" (p. 90),

which M. Fournier cites only to compare with Dante's

"Che non men che saver, dubbiar m'aggrata" (*Inferno*, *xi.* 93).

M. Fournier gives few instances of apter use of a quotation than Théophile Gautier's application to the then recently discovered photography of Virgil's

". . . Solem qui dicere falsum
Audeat?" (*Georgics*, *i.* 463).

GREEN'S PURITAN ENGLAND.*

"PURITANISM," to use a happy expression of Mr. Green's, "missed its aim." The problem for an historian is to account for the fact that a great religious and political party struggled, conquered, triumphed, and fell with a fall from which it never throughout the course of English history rose again. The puzzle is the more perplexing by reason of the contrast between the fate of French and of English republicanism. The democrats of the French Revolution were men of very moderate ability. To compare Roland, Danton, or Robespierre with Pym, Hampden, or Cromwell is simply ridiculous. The French leaders were men who at the best grasped the readiest, the most obvious, the most violent, and therefore the worst, means for accomplishing their objects. If insane panic affords some excuse for the cruelty, the plea of fear condemns the whole policy, of the Terrorists. Their rule was the rule of brute force directed by fear, and the Reign of Terror is a monument as much of human folly as of human cruelty. The Puritan leaders were men of whom any country might be proud. A loyalist might admit that Cromwell needed but the title to the throne to have been the greatest of English monarchs. The memories of the Terror filled even liberals with horror, and converted every man of sense throughout Europe into a conservative. The Commonwealth was a period to which every Englishman might look back with national pride. It might, therefore, have been expected that the prestige of the French Republic would have perished, whilst the glories of the Commonwealth would have ensured the prolonged existence of a Republican or of a Cromwellian party.

Events exactly disappointed natural expectation. After a century French Republicanism is alive. Robespierre is the saint of a political sect. The name of Napoleon is still a power. The calamities of the Revolution did not conciliate France to the Ancien Régime, and the enquiry raised by De Tocqueville, "comment la nation, en cessant d'être républicaine, était restée révolutionnaire," still remains a perplexity to historians. No similar question needs the attention of those who study the great Rebellion. Neither the Commonwealth nor Cromwell was accepted by England. If affection for the Stuarts accelerated the fall of the Commonwealth, detestation for James II. gave no new life to Puritanism. The traditions of the Protectorate, as well as republican enthusiasm, proved within thirty years of Cromwell's death to be as dead as the institutions of William the Conqueror. The problem of English history (if one may adapt the expressions of De Tocqueville to totally different circumstances) is, how it happened that the nation remained attached to freedom without ever adopting the principles of the Puritan revolution? The author who answers this enquiry will have thrown as much light on the history of England as De Tocqueville has cast on what may be termed the theory of French history. We cannot say that Mr. Green has explained the enigma of Puritanism, but we can assert that his book supplies ideas and materials which go a great way towards suggesting the kind of answer of which the problem is capable. His strength does not lie in analysis, but he exhibits an impartiality not to be found in either the assailants or the admirers of Puritanism; and this spirit of fairness, combined with rare literary gifts, enables him to set forth the general circumstances under which Puritanism arose, flourished, and declined, and thus to make a great step towards explaining its failure. The aim of this article is to state briefly the general conclusions which Mr. Green suggests in reference to the causes why Puritanism missed its aim.

Two considerations of a general character are apt to escape students of the seventeenth century. The first is that the hour of the Puritan triumph was not in reality the time when Puritanism had its greatest influence. In 1603 England might be fairly termed a Puritan country. Calvinism was the prevailing, and so to speak the received, creed of the Church. Opposition to arbitrary power was, though in a much less distinct way, the predominant political feeling of the nation. If we might be allowed the use of expressions which are admittedly inaccurate and involve an anachronism, but which nevertheless convey a distinct idea to modern readers, we should say that the people were, when James I. came to the throne, in religion Calvinistic Evangelicals, and in politics constitutional Whigs. These terms are, of course, inaccurate; but what ought to be noted is, that in religion, at least, the doctrines which afterwards became associated with an extreme party were the creed of the mass of religious Englishmen. The High-Church movement or revival under Laud, together with the parallel movement in favor of despotism under Strafford, were revolutionary—*i.e.*, they were attacks on the predominant sentiment of the nation. If this be so, as we think would be admitted by writers so little enthusiastic for Puritanism as, say, Dean Hook or Mr. Gardiner, the result follows that Puritan influence reached its height at any rate before Charles ascended the throne, and that the influences of various kinds had, even before the outbreak of the Civil War, begun to turn what had been the tide of Puritanism.

Mr. Green brings out forcibly the extent to which literature and science gradually undermined some of the assumptions on which the influence of Calvinism rested. Dates are in such a matter often more instructive than comment. Chillingworth was born 1602 and died 1644. In 1642 Hobbes published his *De Cive*. Locke was born 1634; Newton in 1642. Before the Puritans had accomplished their triumph the intellectual movement of the world had taken a turn which menaced the Calvinistic ideal of religion, and with it the Calvinistic ideal of government. One further date is of immense importance: the Peace of Westphalia was concluded in 1648. A year later Charles I. was executed. The Puritans achieved their triumph almost at the moment when the deadly struggle between Roman Catholicism and Protestantism, which almost gave life to the enthusiasm of Puritanism, ended in a drawn battle. The fervor of English Protestantism inevitably cooled when the perils and the triumphs of foreign Protestantism came to an end. A second consideration closely connected with the first is that the great Rebellion was a conservative movement which, mainly through the incapacity of Charles I., was turned into a revolution. This is the essential contrast between the English and the French revolutions. Englishmen took up arms intending, at least, to preserve existing institutions in church and state. Frenchmen rose against the monarchy because they detested every institution which existed. "They made," writes De Tocqueville, "the greatest effort which any people ever engaged in to cut, so to speak, the thread of their destiny in two, and to separate by an abyss that which they had been up to 1789 from that which they wished to be thenceforward." Neither nation entirely succeeded. Englishmen, while wishing to preserve, in reality changed far more than they intended the spirit of their constitution. France has retained until this day many of the principles of the Ancien Régime. What, however, is noticeable for our purpose is that the revolutionary element in Puritanism was foreign to the spirit of the national opposition to Charles. One fact, which no writer with whom we are acquainted has made so prominent as Mr. Green, curiously illustrates the conservatism of the movement. All parties, including even the Independents, wished to negotiate with Charles when a prisoner. The key to the curious intrigues while he was a captive lies in the wish of every party in the state to secure its objects by acting in alliance with the king. By honest adherence to any clear policy he might, probably, have saved not only his life but his throne; he perished not because he was a tyrant whom every one detested, but because he turned out a liar whom nobody could trust.

These general considerations go far towards explaining the weakness of the Puritan position even when it seemed strongest. Still, the question why a powerful government such as that of Cromwell could not conciliate, if not the good-will of the nation, at least the adherence of a party as strong as that which, after the revolution of 1688, upheld Whig principles till they became the principles of the whole nation, requires an answer. The reply which Mr. Green's history at least suggests is, that the political failure of Puritanism, though depending partly upon circumstances, such as the shortness of Cromwell's rule—the Protectorate lasted from 1653 to 1658—was mainly attributable to want of far-sighted statesmanship, and to the inherent weakness of a political system depending for support on religious enthusiasm.

Detractors of the Protector have in modern times done his reputation an unintentional service. To treat a man as a hypocrite and a buffoon who turns out when his character is fairly surveyed to have been zealous for the faith he held, and also one of the most eminent rulers who has ever governed a great country, is the sure way to raise up a class of worshippers who will deem him a saint and a statesman of heroic mould. With Cromwell's religious character we are not concerned, nor is there at this time of day much reason for rebutting the idle charge of hypocrisy. With his statesmanship it is more easy to deal, and here critics are apt to

* 'History of the English People. By J. R. Green. Vol. iii. Puritan England.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

overlook the fact that a man may be a ruler of men, may have insight into character, administrative capacity, the vigor which seizes opportunities for action or meets emergencies with energy and with coolness, and yet not possess originality of conception or statesmanlike foresight. It is here that Cromwell, compared of course, as he must be, not with ordinary but with extraordinary rulers, falls short of the highest standard. He was a great monarch; he was not a great statesman. He fined the malignants, but he did not confiscate their estates; that is to say, he kept alive bitter hostility without taking the means to conciliate zealous support. If the soldiers who were settled in Ireland had obtained lands in England, a certain number of Englishmen would have felt a hatred even more bitter than that which they in fact entertained to the rule of Cromwell; but the Protectorate would have obtained supporters who would have withstood a restoration to the death. Even if settling the army in England was in fact impossible, the policy of placing the most zealous soldiers of Puritanism in Ireland certainly is open to the gravest objections, if regarded as a measure for supporting the revolutionary cause. The war with Spain was the pursuit, no doubt, of a traditional policy, but it was a policy out of date and of dubious expediency. The attempt to form a great Protestant alliance seems also symptomatic of the adherence to ideas which were appropriate to the time of Cromwell's youth rather than to that of his power. The impatience of his dealing with parliamentary opposition when placed side by side with his obvious, and it must be added perfectly statesmanlike, desire to give a legal character to his rule, argues not indeed want of foresight but a lack of that perfect self-control which is the sure characteristic of a statesman. The most curious point, however, in Cromwell's whole conduct is the failure clearly to designate a successor, and the letting the government fall, under a doubtful nomination, into the hands of a son whom he had no reason to hold competent to wield authority. Unless, what is by no means impossible, he trusted to the last in Providence's extending his life, there is a good deal of difficulty in reconciling his conduct, in respect of his successor, either with statesmanship or with Cromwell's undoubtedly high public spirit.

If faults of policy, not only on the part of the Protector but also on the part of his republican opponents, afford one-half of the solution of the problem why Puritanism ended in failure, a large part, if not the whole, of the remainder of the explanation is supplied by the nature of religious enthusiasm. Cromwell has always been greatly commended, even by those who hate his name and disbelieve in his sincerity, for his insight in perceiving that the zeal of Cavalier loyalty could be met only by appealing to the still stronger sentiment of religious enthusiasm; and no doubt the commendation is deserved. The "New Model" routed the royal armies, and it may well be doubted whether anything but a force like the "New Model" could have ensured the victory of the Parliament But when the policy of Cromwell is commended, its defects, looked at as a mere stroke of statesmanship, must not be forgotten. Religious zeal is the strongest of all the forces by which men can be driven to action. While it lasts it is all but unconquerable. The enthusiasm, however, of religion has its own laws. It ebbs and flows in obedience to rules which are not the rules of earthly policy. The wind blows where it listeth. To say this is not to deny the reality of religious fervor. It is rather to assert that such zeal, just because it is true and genuine, cannot be permanently used in support of political schemes or constitutions. The spirit which at one moment impels an army to victory leaves them at another unable to resist opposition which seems the decree of fate or Providence. Bunyan will be for ever the type of the Puritan soldier, but the zeal of George Fox was no less sincere and no less overpowering than the zeal of Bunyan. The army of saints who divided the spoil at Marston Moor were of the same spirit, and in part the same men, as the soldiers who stood grimly on Blackheath to witness Charles II.'s return, and surrendered the control of the state without an attempt at armed resistance. In each case they obeyed the impulse of religion. It is hard to say whether they were more to be admired in their victory or in their fall. In both, however, they bore witness to the fact that the fluctuating sentiment of religious zeal is not a foundation on which to rest a permanent fabric of statesmanship.

THE COMÉDIE-FRANÇAISE.*

THE Comédie-Française and the scarcely more august Academy share the honor and the good fortune of being the only institutions of the monarchy which have survived the overthrow of their creator. The former is the direct descendant in unbroken line of the company of comedians which Molière led back to Paris, and which after his death, in 1673, drew to itself the two rival troupes. M. Francisque Sarcey, the acute dramatic critic of the *Temps*, and the author of 'Comédiens et Comédiennes,' contributed to the July *Nineteenth Century* an admirable article on the Théâtre-Français, in the course of which he asks:

"Do you know that between Got and Molière there are only seven or eight names of great actors? We have, so to speak, only to stretch out our hand to be able, across several generations, to find the first *Mascarille*. Got played a long time with Monrose, who had seen Dazincourt. Dazincourt appeared young by the side of Préville, already old. Préville had known Poisson, who is the last link of the chain up to Molière. In this way the tradition has been preserved alive from one great actor to another. One feels how such or such a rôle was played in the days of Molière, and when by chance the interpretation is changed by the caprice of an actor, as happened in the case of *Arnolphe*, whose character was modified by *le père* Provost, that change forms a date and the new tradition is established, unless the successors of Provost reject it. Here we see the distinctive mark of the Comédie-Française, which unites to tradition a wise spirit of innovation that corrects and harmonizes it to the tastes of the day, but at the same time, out of respect for tradition, it always puts the bridle on this taste for novelty. The history of the Comédie-Française is only a perpetual compromise between these two contrary forces."

During these two centuries of existence the Comédie-Française has always been a republic, a commonwealth having at times a protector imposed by the higher authority which had organized it. In Molière's day, as in Shakspere's, it was the custom for the chief actors of a theatrical company to share in the risks and profits of management. This custom the Théâtre-Français alone, of all French or English theatres, has kept up. A young graduate of the Conservatory, who has taken a first prize, has the right to an appearance on the stage of the Théâtre-Français. He is engaged at a salary by the year. If in time he should show marked ability and give promise of becoming capable one day of playing the best parts of his line of business, he may be elected an associate—that is, a sharer in the management, in the profits, and in the responsibilities of the enterprise. But there are always more sharers than there are shares: there are generally twenty-two *Sociétaires*, while there are never twenty shares available for this purpose. The young actor or actress begins, therefore, with an eighth or a quarter of a share, rising gradually as his value to the theatre increases and vacancies are made by death or resignation to a half, and finally to a whole share. M. Coquelin, the brilliant comic actor, was an associate for five years before he had a full share. Since M. Perrin has been the director of the theatre the yearly yield of a share has been rapidly rising; in 1878 each full share paid a profit of forty thousand francs. As, however, the theatre may not make money, and the shares may be of no value whatsoever, each associate gets an annual salary proportionate to his merits, but much smaller than he would receive elsewhere. After a certain number of years of service he may retire on a pension, varying in amount as he may have been of more or less value to the company. Certain of the profits are diverted each year to accumulate for the associate when he retires; M. Bressant, for instance, when he withdrew from active service received a lump-sum of eighty thousand francs, and is receiving an annual pension of eight or ten thousand more. The chance of profit is increased by the fact that the society has its theatre from the Government rent free, and its pensions are made certain by the ample Government subsidy and by slowly-accumulated reserve funds. Besides his salary each actor is paid a certain small sum every time he acts; thus the most useful and the most industrious are better paid than the lazy and less competent, and thus, too, the actor hesitates before refusing even an inferior part in a play which may be acted numberless times. In English and American theatres an actor is justified in refusing to play an unimportant part, as the public, seeing him in it night after night for perhaps six months, may forget that he is capable of better things; but at the Français the same piece is rarely played on two successive evenings and never on three, and the actor who plays a poor part to-night knows that the next night he may have a better, or perhaps the best. This feeling leads to a generally higher level of acting; it gets more good players into one piece than is often possible with us. The duties of the stage-manager, by the way, are divided among certain of the elder male associates, who assume them for a week at a time; and for thus acting as *semainier* they get additional allowances.

The influence of the pernicious "star system" is so strong with us in America and in England that the London papers, commenting on the recent performances of the Comédie-Française in London, again and

* 'Journal Intime de la Comédie-Française (1852-1871), publié par Georges d'Heylli.' Pp. xii. 566. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern. 1879.

again spoke of Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt as the "leading lady," and of M. Febvre or M. Mounet-Sully appearing "in support" of her. No terms could well be less exact. Mlle. Bernhardt is not a superior, therefore her comrades do not appear "in support"; she is not even the leading lady: she is simply an associate of the Comédie-Française. On the playbills the names of the actors appear in the order of their election as associates, the salaried actors following their seniors; in "Ruy Blas," for instance, the name of Mlle. Bernhardt, who plays the *Queen*, is preceded by that of Mlle. Jouassain, who acts the far less important part of the *Duenna*, because Mlle. Jouassain was elected an associate in 1863, and so is the senior of Mlle. Bernhardt, elected in 1875. There are no stars at the Théâtre-Français, partly because the associates are all "stars," and partly because any individual prominence would break up the artistic unity which is the great beauty of the present organization. Rachel in her day was a "star," and the experience then gained will keep the Théâtre-Français from ever repeating it. As M. Sarcey says: "Rachel cost the theatre more than she ever drew, and she did more harm to art than she rendered it service. . . . The nights on which she played the receipts amounted to 10,000 francs, the whole of which went into her pocket. The next night the theatre was empty." M. d'Heylli gives us the annual gross receipts of the theatre for the past thirty years: while Rachel acted they varied from about 300,000 francs to 900,000 (in 1855, the exhibition year); from her death in 1858 to the war of 1870 they never fell below 800,000; after the war and the Commune they jumped to 1,262,000 in 1872, and rose steadily to 1,580,000 in 1877.

It will readily be seen that an institution as conservative as the Théâtre-Français is likely to take little initiative in bringing out new authors. Its function is not to discover new dramatists and lead in dramatic progress, but to consecrate and reward acknowledged merit. Many of the plays which it now presents with great success were originally produced at other theatres—among them are the "Ciguë" and the "Gendre de M. Poirier" of M. Augier, and the "Demi-Monde" and "Fils Naturel" of M. Dumas. These and many other plays of a literary character won success elsewhere—a success which the Comédie-Française ratifies by taking them to itself. Its company is so much stronger than that of any other theatre of Paris, or even of any two others, that it is sure to act the piece better than it was originally acted. It aims at a perfect performance of the masterpieces of French dramatic literature, old and new. The best plays of Molière, Racine, Corneille, and Beaumarchais are always in readiness, and are frequently performed. As the bill is changed nightly, a week rarely passes without one or more opportunities of seeing a classic drama, comic or tragic. A successful new play, like M. Augier's "Fourchambault" or M. Dumas's "Étrangère," is acted at first three or four times a week; then, as its attraction lessens, it is seen but twice or even once a week. It does not finally drop out of the bill sometimes for two or three years, and it may then at any time be revived for another series of performances. It takes much longer for a play to attain its hundredth performance at the Français than elsewhere, but there a good play is above the chances of ill-luck, sickness of an actor, temporary lack of public interest, and so on, which beset it at other theatres. As the new play alternates with the play of last year and of the year before, and as these alternate with the plays of two centuries ago, standards of comparison are supplied, and it is easier to judge a piece at its true value. The Théâtre-Français is, in fact, a museum of dramatic art, and as such it is fostered by the Government. The subsidy is intended especially to provide for the proper performance of the classic drama, which has rarely been able to attract paying audiences. But the present director, M. Perrin, has been skilful enough to make Molière and Racine fashionable, and, therefore, as profitable as the latest new work of M. Augier or M. Dumas.

M. d'Heylli's volume, which has served as the text of these remarks upon a subject made timely by the great attention justly paid to the Comédie-Française by the English public and press, and abundantly echoed by our papers, is a journal of the doings of the company during the Second Empire (1852–1870). The author, to whom we already owe an admirable edition of Beaumarchais's dramatic works and also model monographs on M. Regnier, M. Bressant, and Mme. Arnould-Plessy, published as they retired from the stage, begins by giving us a description of the Comédie-Française as it stood at the end of 1852, from which we see that M. Arsène Houssaye was then the director and that Offenbach was the leader of the orchestra—a post no longer in existence, as the theatre has now no orchestra. After this we then find, under dates, accounts of each new play with its cast, of each first appearance, of each revival, of each resignation or vacancy caused by death, supported by frequent extracts from contemporary criticism; Jules Janin, Théophile Gautier, and M. Francisque Sarcey being constantly drawn upon. In the course of the journal we have eclectic criticism and biographic details of nearly all the leading dramatists of France, and of all the members of the Comédie-Française. In an appendix are given a table of the performances in Paris of Rachel, a summary of the career of the theatre since 1846, with the gross annual receipts, and a description of the present Comédie-Française, interesting to compare with that which opens the volume. From these details it is evident that M. d'Heylli's book is valuable to the student of the contemporary French stage, and that it is useful as a work of reference to all who take any interest in the drama of the day. Its value for the latter purpose is greatly increased by an ample index of plays and persons, covering nearly eleven double-column pages.

PLANT ARCHÆOLOGY.*

II.

AS we have seen, the vegetable world has had an eventful history, and this history Count Saporta undertakes to reconstruct from ancient and authentic documents.

These documents have settled one point with certainty, viz., that the great changes in the temperature of the polar regions have not resulted from any change in the earth's axis of rotation, such as certain physical geologists have supposed. That this has remained steady throughout the whole period in question is as good as proved by the identity of the miocene and other tertiary fossil plants in all longitudes, from the Mackenzie River and Alaska round to Spitzbergen, Iceland, and Greenland—in part the same species, in all the same or equivalent combinations. Not indeed the same species in the same latitude any more than now, but such latitudinal distribution as to show that the curvatures of the miocene isotherms were quite analogous to those of the present age. Moreover, the monotony which characterizes the sub-polar vegetation of the present day—when the most of the species and the combinations of species occur all round the world—equally characterized it then when clothed with forest trees of a temperate zone.

Upon the data in hand, now much extended, and on the supposition that the same species of tree has not appreciably altered meanwhile in its relations to temperature, Heer long ago elaborately compared the miocene climates with those of our time, and Saporta corroborates his conclusions. For the northern regions the difference is said to be equivalent to 25 or 30 degrees of latitude—that is, we have now, say in Europe, in latitude 40° and 45°, and in Atlantic America, in latitude 38° to 40°, the temperature and the vegetation which then flourished at latitude 70° in Greenland. Grinnell Land, in latitude 82°, only two hundred leagues from the pole, had a forest of coniferous trees; among them—associated with a poplar-tree, a hazel, and a birch—was the silver fir of Europe, and the bald cypress of the swamps of the Southern United States. The same combination, minus the cypress, must now be sought in the more elevated parts of Central and Southern Germany. The sequoias and magnolias and persimmons of Greenland, in latitude 70°, mingled with maples, oaks, and grape-vines, have their representatives partly in Virginia and on the Ohio River, partly in California. The miocene of the southern shore of the Baltic had laurels, oleanders, and camphor-trees, but no palms, so far as is known, thus answering to the Mediterranean flora, but miocene palms reached to Belgium and Bohemia; and Provence, on similar data, had then about the climate of the coast of Zanzibar.

Another conclusion which Saporta confidently reaches—and which indeed is reached from all sides—is that of a very moist quarternary climate. Looking back to this comparatively recent period from our own, everywhere the streams have dwindled. Through great river-beds shrunken streamlets now meander in insignificant channels; springs reach the surface much lower down the valleys than of old; and the "rivers without water" of Egypt and Syria, and the reduced level of the Dead Sea, are so many evidences of a dryness supervening upon a general humidity greatly in excess of the present. These fuller water-courses of themselves indicate a more temperate or mean climate, a more equal distribution of heat and cold through the year. Was this equable climate frigid and rigorous or comparatively mild? Were Europe and the United States simply arctic and to be compared with present Greenland and Spitzbergen, as the school of Agassiz maintains? Or should the

*'Le Monde des Plantes avant l'apparition de l'Homme. Par le Comte de Saporta. Avec 13 Planches, dont 5 in couleur et 110 figures dans le texte.' Pp. 416, 8vo. Paris: Masson; New York: F. W. Christern. 1879.

comparison rather be made with Southern New Zealand, where tree-ferns almost overhang the terminal moraines of existing glaciers, in a climate which is neither cold nor warm? Saporta maintains the latter, and he is not alone. He insists that the high Alps and the Pyrenees are not the types of glacial Europe generally; that the arctic animals and plants, and the rigorous climate which we associate with these, belonged only to the close neighborhood of glaciers, but that the valleys below enjoyed a climate even milder than now, although vastly more humid. So, likewise, Mr. Ball (in a lecture recently delivered before the Royal Geographical Society of Great Britain) ventures to affirm that, even during the period of maximum cold, the highest ridges of the Alps were not completely covered with snow and ice; for we still see, by the appearance of the surface, the limit above which the ancient ice did not reach; and in the middle zone the slopes that rose above the ancient glaciers had a summer climate not very different from that which now prevails. And he concludes that the effect on the growth of plants in the Alps was to lower the vertical height of the zones of vegetation only one or two thousand feet.* This would seriously affect the forests of Europe, but would not permanently disturb the alpine and subalpine vegetation.

Yet cold it must have been when the reindeer and musk-ox roamed over the plains of Central Europe, and when the elephant or mammoth, and even the rhinoceros which accompanied them, were equally clad with a thick coat of hair. But, says Saporta, with the remains of these very animals from which a frigid arctic climate is inferred, occur also, in the alluvia of the Somme and the Seine, those of an elephant nearly related to the Indian species, the hippopotamus of the African rivers, and the hyena of the Cape; and the vegetable remains include the laurel of the Canaries along with the vine. The trees of the same epoch farther north were pines, lindens, maples, and oaks. So, according to Saporta, even the glacial period formed only a seeming interruption to the general course, the steady and really unbroken diminution of terrestrial temperature from the earliest geological periods to the present. This must be admitted if the two classes of animals and plants—those adapted to cold and those to warmer climates—were really contemporaneous. Our geologists have maintained that they were not, but that climates have oscillated, and that warmer periods than ours intervened between the glacial epoch and the present, or were intercalated in the glacial period itself. But is not the distinction of periods an assumption for explaining the two kinds of fossil remains?

We need not enter here into the discussion of the cause of the higher temperature of ancient climates, and of that peculiar and temporary state of things attending and originating the glacial epoch, with which Saporta concludes his third chapter. And no space is left us in which to sketch even the outlines of the second part and main staple of his book, the history of the vegetable periods, beginning with the "primordial marine plants" of the Laurentian and closing with the pliocene, in which existing trees are everywhere identified. The general conclusion of these very rich, elaborate, and well-considered chapters is that the vegetation of the earth has been continuous through all ages, and that the explanation of the present is found in the past. The history of the genus Sequoia—of the two "big trees of California"—as recently sketched by Heer in a popular journal, *Das Ausland*, is a fair illustration of this. The difference between these two trees is as notable as their resemblance and their isolation. They are the survivors of a numerous family, of wide distribution, which is first recognized in the cretaceous formation, in several species, and which reached its maximum in the middle tertiary, in fourteen recognizable species or forms. Almost from the first these separate into two groups, one foreshadowing the coast, the other the sierra, redwood, yet with various intermediate forms. These intermediate species are extinct, the two extreme forms have survived. The likeness of these two trees is explained by their genealogy, their marked difference by the extinction of the connecting forms which in earlier times bridged the interval.

* But Mr. Ball is fairly astounding when he assumes that our arctic-alpine flora may have been the flora of high mountains at low latitudes in the carboniferous period.

† 'The Rougon-Macquart Family. By Emile Zola. Translated by John Stirling.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.

RECENT NOVELS.†

IT must be a robust admiration for M. Zola which survives the reading of such books as 'The Rougon-Macquart Family.' His own susceptibilities may endure the unrelieved odiousness of his characters, but his readers require some training for the steady contemplation of organizations only less guilty because more diseased, of moral baseness unvaried by even a gleam of rectitude, of evil inheritance which is fatal, the whole developing itself in a social condition which offers stimulus and means to the wicked, but neither help nor suggestion of anything better as possible. The old strife of Ormuzd and Ahriman is in the dim past, and the evil spirit has conquered. We are warned against judging the French people by their literature; what are we to infer when such an aspect of human life is the result of so able a man's observation and conviction? We see that some persons find the loves of Miette and Silvère a gleam of light across the darkness of the story, but considering Silvère's unhealthy excitability and the unsoundness, so to speak, of both, the light is faint. The book begins the history of a family who illustrate various vices and diseases in their own persons, and bequeath complicated evil to their descendants. These in their turn are specimens of what the coarsest vice can make of human beings, and from these threads M. Zola spins his web. The *Coup d'état* is copied in miniature in the little town of Plassons, and one cannot but suspect that the author has greater people in his mind as he describes in detail the falsity, the cowardice, the murderous gluttony of those who find themselves at the top, when all is quiet again.

A complete and, to many people doubtless, a refreshing contrast is M. Theuriet's last book. M. Theuriet is rather an optimist; his view of life suggests gay ribbons and holiday jollity in the main, and though it has its shadows they are not very sombre. But he is very much of a poet, and in an idyllic story like 'Young Maugars' is at his best. The love-making is very charming and done with great delicacy. It quite atones for M. Theuriet's *naïf* blundering in painting a villain of a deliberate and frank execrability with which M. Zola, who knows villains to their finger-tips, would never think of enduing his worst character. An exception to this criticism, however, which is worth pointing out for the subtle art with which a thoroughly corrupt nature is exhibited, is the scene between young Maugars and Mlle. Marcelle. Mlle. Marcelle is very real; you see the evil in her at the same time that you are conscious of her charm. The book is excellent for its contrast between the virtues of the peasants and the vices of the *bourgeoisie* in a small French town, and for its many pleasant pictures of out-of-doors. These, though they give a somewhat episodical character to the story, are in a subdued key, and, since they are by their author, they are admirable in technique.

'Left-handed Elsa' is an honest little story in excellent print. It has an odd mixture of reality and *diablerie;* but just that is attractive to some people, and homely honesty and truth at last win the day.

'The Breton Mills' comes near to being a really powerful story. The author calls it a romance, and therefore, we suppose, disallows beforehand being called to a strict account for knowledge of human nature or probable succession of events; but it is a pity, since he has experience and ability to do as well as he does in the earlier part of the book, that he should not have bestirred himself to do a really good piece of work. As it is, the story is like a chimera, which begins with a human figure and ends in arabesque. The Breton Mills are apparently woollen mills, owned entirely by one man. There are a thousand work-people in these mills, and the interest of the book consists in the exposition of the poverty of the operatives and the imperious will of the owner—one aspect of the strife between labor and capital. There are powerful pieces of description. The burning of the mill, with the varying instincts and influences acting on the operatives, who could have saved it but do not, is very dramatic, and the cautious endeavor to deal justly and kindly on the part of Philip Breton, when he inherits the mill property, with the early gratitude and subsequent discontent of "the hands," is well described; but the heroine of the love-story is an impossible creature, who elopes with an eloquent "workingman's orator," lives with him for more than a year, and then returns to her father's house to be as much as ever the "idol and the fancy's queen" of Philip Breton. He marries her with enthusiasm, in spite of the gravest doubts as to her reputation, and presently flings up all his plans, gets rid of his mills, and flees with his wife to Europe, since the speech and the looks of those around her express a surely justifiable contempt for her. This is a lame and impotent conclusion, resembling the fall rather than the rise of the rocket. Nevertheless, the book is worth reading for its insight into the life of the workers with their hands. There is exaggeration and incoherence in the style, but there is also some knowledge and some sympathy.

We have read six chapters of 'Cora Lynn,' two at the beginning of the book, two in the middle, and two at the end. Thereupon a proverb

'Young Maugars. By André Theuriet.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.
'Left-Handed Elsa.' Boston: A. K. Loring.
'The Breton Mills: A Romance. By Charles J. Bellamy.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.
'Cora Lynn: A Novel. By John M. Hartley.' Philadelphia: Robert J. Hayward & Co. 1879.

suddenly recurred to our memory, which says "It is not necessary to drink up the sea to know that it is salt," and we joyfully ceased to read, having found nothing of interest or even of common sense in the portions selected.

'Money' is a harmless little story, quite free of offence, sketching a part of the lives and fortunes of a group of reasonably interesting French people.

'My Queen,' which is of the same series, is a love-story, with fabulous wealth and beauty on the one side, and a stern and haughty heroism on the other. That frequent modern resource—a desperate fever—brings the solution to the plot, and we leave the chief couple to live "rich, handsome, and happy" for the rest of their lives.

'Ruth Erskine's Crosses' is not a bad book; on the contrary, there is a great deal of goodiness in it. All the characters are constantly praying and reading the Bible, and the model girl thinks it the most natural thing in the world to ask a stranger at a first interview "whether she knows the Lord"; yet the impression left on the reader is that a great deal of false morality and worldliness is quite compatible with an uncomfortable amount of religious slang, which some of us have painfully learned.

'Somebody's Ned' is a shriek of a piercing kind against society for tolerating the making and sale of liquors, the sentencing of criminals to prison, and the contracting for convict labor. There are passionate appeals to "the great state," "the wise government" to prevent the inevitable consequences of various acts, and the opinion is manifest (as it is in sundry recent American stories) that it is the function of Government to interfere with more than paternal care in the lives of its subjects, to avert natural results, and provide constant stimulus and oversight for the weak and the wicked. The notion that Astræa Redux is to be handed in by some high Government functionary, seems growing in the American mind.

'The Last of the Kerdrecs' is published in London. It is a sketch of two Breton families who are involved in the cyclone of the French Revolution. It is difficult to write of that time without exciting some interest, at least of association, and that moderate degree belongs to this book. There is no harm in it, nothing incompatible with the facts of the case. We suspect it was easy to write, and it is not difficult to read.

'The Leavenworth Case' deals with all the most potent stimuli. Murder, law, love, and disinheritance are a good allowance for a single volume. The story is well constructed, and is much more comfortable reading than some of Gaboriau's law novels, with which one naturally compares it, as it is all told in the first person by the lawyer who officially watches the legal proceedings and assists in the subsequent investigations as counsel for the Leavenworth family. The motive-power of it all rests in the fascinations of Miss Mary Leavenworth, one of the two nieces who make the family of the murdered man; and the "moral to be deduced" is that young ladies should not be rash, scornful, or worldly-minded. It might also be wished that they should not appear before a considerable number of strange men in "wrappers," but we suppose this is too much to ask of American writers. It is difficult to say much of the book without exposing the plot, which would be most unfair, as the mystery is maintained with much skill to the very end of the book, and the reader is obliged at the close to reconsider his previous impressions as in real life.

We have made the most laborious efforts to read 'Under the Bells," but, having failed, we can offer a few extracts which may serve as a guide to some intending reader: "How could she ever have association in my mind with one who always delighted in bright apparel, attuning her presence with rare equity to the sunshine of her heart?" "The one a tall and graceful figure, replete with types of radiant loveliness that forced themselves unresistedly on the eye with full power of their engaging, alluring superfluity." Complete mental exhaustion is the natural consequence of forcing one's way through such verbal tangles.

First Blows of the Civil War. The ten years of preliminary conflict in the United States, from 1850 to 1860. A contemporaneous exposition. By James S. Pike. (New York: The American News Company.)—This volume is mainly composed of letters written by Republican politicians and editors during the ten years from 1850 to 1860. To these are added editorials from the *Tribune*, with which Mr. Pike was connected at one time as a correspondent, and letters of Mr. Pike from Washington to that paper on current events. Mr. Pike, who afterwards became minister to the Netherlands, was, earlier in his career, a slashing Washington correspondent, and among the "first blows" of the war his letters must not be forgotten. None of them are of much permanent value, except to the future historian, for whom they may throw light upon disputed points. They will certainly throw some light upon the condition of journalism before the war. They are of a kind that are not to be found now in the regular Washington correspondence of any New York paper. They are editorials, argumentative, laudatory, denunciatory, designed to cheer the faithful and defend the good cause, and lash the enemy to fury, and in their day they no doubt served their purpose. But their day is quite gone, and they are as hard reading now as old sermons. Among the private letters contained in Mr. Pike's collection the most entertaining are those of Mr. Greeley, Mr. C. A. Dana, and Count Gurowski. With the lively and irascible Count it was, it seems, Mr. Pike's custom to discuss "the sublime questions of ontology, trinity, general and special philosophy," though there is remarkably little trace of any such discussion in these pages. The book would have been much more interesting if the letters and editorials had been connected by the author by means of a running narrative. As it stands, it is rather a confusing jumble of "first blows," and a captious critic might perhaps find fault with the author's picture of the preliminary fray, on the score that the conflict is made to centre about the figure of Mr. Pike himself rather more than historical truth would warrant us in believing that it actually did. But time settles all questions of this sort in a way so mortifying to human pride, that authors must claim the right to manage their own perspective in their own way while it is still in their power.

Summer-Savory. By Benj. F. Taylor, LL.D. (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 12mo, pp. 212. 1879.)—This is an unusually miscellaneous bundle of papers; one may find among them descriptions of Western travel, of picnic parties, of the dog-days, of country ball-rooms, of thunder-storms, of retired farmers; besides short essays on Hats, on Winks, on Funeral Extravagances; and recollections of the author's childhood—none of them important subjects; yet neither did Elia choose important subjects always. Mr. Taylor's strong point, like Elia's, is his manner. A glance at his manner may be worth taking. We quote the first sentences of his book, the "specimen brick" in this case showing quite accurately what the house is like:

"The world is out of sight," says Mr. Taylor. "The high tides of midsummer have rolled over it. The green volumes of the maples, the chopping seas of the swath-ridged meadows have submerged and washed our planet quite away. The armed squadrons of corn are marching to the tune of 100° in the shade. . . . The English sparrow goes on with its saucy talk and its ceaseless paternosters of beaded eggs the year round. What a pugnacious, aggressive ounce of British bird it is! O for another Bunker Hill! And yet some cry, Spare, oh, the sparrow!"

'Summer-Savory' may be called a note-book of fancies—a poet's note-book, if you choose; in which every fancy that rises is set down without choice or pruning. They are not select enough for poetry, nor chastened enough for prose; they remind us too pressingly of Mr. Talmage's vivacities. But in all fairness let us read the best thing in the book; it is a description of what we see whenever we look out of a railway train going at high speed:

"A man hatched and reconsidered. There's a dot on the track about the size of a Darwinian primal egg. It begins to hatch! It develops legs and arms and feet and head. It is as tall as a pen-holder, a walking-stick, a man. It *is* a man; and the man stands not 'upon the order of his going,' but goes at once, bolts the track and makes for the fence. We pass him, and behold, he shuts up like a telescope and diminishes by swift degrees, and rolls back into an egg, a dot, a nothing. It is as if he had never been hatched at all."

'Money: A Tale. By Jules Tardieu.' Handy Volume Series. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

'My Queen.' Handy Volume Series. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

'Ruth Erskine's Crosses. By Pansy, author of 'Hester Reid,' 'Four Girls at Chautauqua,' etc., etc.' Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

'Somebody's Ned. By Mrs. A. M. Freeman.' Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1879.

'The Last of the Kerdrecs. By William Minturn, author of 'Travels West." London: Samuel Tinsley & Co. 1879.

'The Leavenworth Case: A Lawyer's Story. By Anna Katherine Green.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.

'Under the Bells: A Romance. By Leonard Kip, author of 'Ænone,' 'The Dead Marquise,' etc.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Abbott (B. V.), Dictionary of Terms and Phrases used in American or English Jurisprudence, 2 vols	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Bacon (F.), The Essays, or Counsels Civil and Moral	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) $1 25
Champlin (J. D., jr.), Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Common Things	(Henry Holt & Co.) 3 00
Cowley (C.), Reminiscences of James C Ayer, swd	(Penhallow Printing Co.)
Dorr (Julia C. R.), Friar Anselmo, and Other Poems	(Charles Scribner's Sons) 1 25
Fothergill (Dr. J. M.), The Maintenance of Health	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Gladstone (W. E.), Gleanings of Past Years, Vols. v., vi., vii.	(Charles Scribner's Sons) 3 00
Inman (Dr. T.), Ancient Pagan and Modern Christian Symbolism, 3d ed.	(J. W. Bouton)
Jennings (H.), The Rosicrucians, 2d ed	" "
Longfellow (H. W.), Poetical Works, illustrated, Parts 7, 8, swd	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 50
Markham (Capt. A. H.), Northward Ho!	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Monkhouse (W. C.), Turner	(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Parkman (F.), La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West, 11th ed., revised	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Potter (Louisa), Lancashire Memories	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Sheldon (E. E.), Short German Grammar	(Ginn & Heath)

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 2, 1879.

The Week.

WE hope the statement of the *Commercial Bulletin* that the celebrated Silas B. Dutcher has obtained a month's leave of absence from Secretary Sherman "to stump the State for A. B. Cornell" is not true. If it were, it would indicate that Secretary Sherman had taken an amount equal to one month of Dutcher's salary out of the Treasury for electioneering purposes without warrant of law. It would, too, be a substantial violation of the civil-service order, and it would not be "civil-service reform." It would, moreover, fully justify a Democratic President in dismissing Dutcher when he came into office, and putting a man into his place who would stump the State for the Democrats. For these and many other reasons we cannot help believing that the *Bulletin* has been imposed on by one of Dutcher's enemies.

Harper's Weekly has at last recommended the scratching of the Republican ticket as the best means of defeating the Machine and saving the convention of next year from being managed by Conkling. In doing so it furnishes some striking evidence of the depth of the dissatisfaction felt by Republicans throughout the State over the doings of the Machine at Saratoga. We must now hope the *Times* and *Evening Post* will follow its example. The *Times* will have the less hesitation in doing so as it has notoriously lost the organship, which has passed to the *Tribune*. Mr. Cornell himself has accepted his nomination in a letter which has attracted the admiration of the Organ by its "modesty." But he could not help being modest; he has nothing to boast of that would bear the light. You surely would not have him tell the voters that during the past ten years he had controlled so many hundred primaries, laid so many miles of "pipe," pulled so many dozens of "wires"; had done so many days of log-rolling; had hung his banner so many times on the outer wall, wheeled so many times into line, and presented so many unbroken fronts to the enemy, and had been a true and faithful henchman. And yet it is of these things that his record is made up.

Apropos of all this, let us again call the attention of the Republican malcontents to the fact that the Independent Republican Committee which has initiated the scratching movement has been surprised by the magnitude which the movement has assumed, and needs money to meet the demands on it for ballots and correspondence and other details of organization. Those who are interested in "reform within the party," and wish to see New York appear in the Presidential Convention on the side of good government, and break up the Machine in this State, would do well to send it contributions, however small. Its post-office address is, we repeat, P. O. Box 4295, New York City. The number of scratches necessary to keep Mr. Cornell in his present position of political "runner" for Mr. Conkling are apparently now within reach, if they are properly sought for, in spite of his alliance with Kelly and Tammany, of which there is no sort of doubt. We would suggest to the Committee the propriety of adding the State-Treasurership to their list of blanks. A well-informed correspondent drew attention last week in our columns to incidents in the career of Wendell, the Conkling candidate for this place, which the Committee ought to examine before sending out their ballots.

The extraordinary General Term convened by Governor Robinson has granted the order, application for which we noticed last week, prohibiting Judge Westbrook from proceeding with the Nichols case, and Nichols will now have to take the usual course of citizens who seek redress for alleged grievances. As this postpones his reinstatement until after the election, if not for ever, Nichols ceases to occupy the prominent position in the public mind which he has lately held, and Tammany will probably take less interest in him as a martyr than it has done as a possible Police Commissioner. Judge Westbrook hastened on Friday to add another string to the Tammany bow, and issued an order summoning the Police Board to show cause why they should not be compelled to appoint the Tammany election inspectors forthwith, and restraining them from appointing any others in their stead until after the determination of the General Term, before which the order was made returnable. The effect of this was to enjoin the Police Board from doing what the Corporation Counsel had instructed them it was their duty to do. They could hardly be expected of their own motion to obey the implication of the order and appoint Tammany inspectors, and as the time for the appointment of inspectors was about to expire, a possible disfranchisement of the entire city was talked about rather wildly. But even Judge Westbrook saw that he had been led into hasty and ill-advised action by Mr. "Tim" Campbell and his friends, and on Saturday modified his order by vacating the injunction part of it. The matter was argued Monday before the General Term, which, of course, denied the application, expressing the opinion that it was the business of the Board to select inspectors, and advising them to make appointments without reference to the claims of any local factions. At the present writing the Republican inspectors and poll clerks have been appointed and half of the Democratic candidates, the latter from the Anti-Tammany list.

The *Times* does not produce or refer to the speech or speeches, or resolution, in which "the South presented in Congress the doctrine on which the theory of secession rested," and in which it declared its purpose once more to attempt the application of this doctrine to the administration of the Government. If the *Times* has no such speeches or resolutions to draw on for authority, it has been guilty in its own calling, for electioneering purposes, of a kind of fraud which is only excusable, if excusable at all, in a Machinist addressing a controlled primary. Leading journalists ought not to do this kind of work for "the party."

Mr. Field has replied to Mr. Tilden's elaborate and artistic "interview" in the *Times*, in a long newspaper letter which contains a little of everything save proof of his original charge that Mr. Tilden "sold him out" in violation of a distinct agreement. This, which Mr. Tilden denies, Mr. Field reiterates, which is perhaps less surprising than the fact that he adduces nothing to substantiate his assertion—nothing which would be valuable evidence in the event of the lawsuit which Mr. Field at first said some third person contemplated, but of which we hear nothing of late. We do not see how it is possible, with every desire of course to have something positively heinous fastened upon Mr. Tilden, to avoid the conclusion that Mr. Field exaggerated the strength of his case in his first statement. It appears now to have been reduced, as he says, to a question of veracity, which "the public must decide by weighing probabilities." Such a decision, he thinks, must be in his favor. "Is it likely," he asks, "that I would undertake a negotiation abroad with the full freedom of my associate to defeat it at home?" The answer to this is that this is just what Mr. Field appears to have done. There seems still an exasperating lack of proof that the "understanding" which Mr. Field speaks of was shared by his "legislative ally"; and the fact that he supposed the contrary is nothing against the wisdom of abandoning the proposed suit for damages, which we may now conclude has been determined upon. The second of the original charges is much better substantiated; Mr. Tilden has very little to say, nothing convincing indeed, in reply to the accusation of

having failed to call upon Mr. Field since the latter's return from Europe. Mr. Field rightly dwells on this charge, which has never been satisfactorily answered. He says that Mr. Tilden not only avoided calling at his house, but that being once in the next room, when "he had but to open the door and walk in," he instead "put on his hat and walked out." He does not "mourn his (Mr. Tilden's) absence," however, and contents himself with having his own opinion of the reasons for it.

There is one feature of the case which would possibly have been overlooked had not Mr. Field pointed it out as plainly as he does, and that is his motive in calling public attention to Mr. Tilden's delinquencies. His friends tell him, he says, that he is making a great fuss over "a very common form of sharp practice," and that "such things are done in Wall Street every day." He retorts to this, with eminent justice: "Yes, but they are not done by a President-elect of the United States," and very properly adds that "no matter by whom they are done" they display a low standard of commercial morality and business honor. Mr. Field thinks they show how "the greed for money has eaten like a dry rot into the very core of our national character," and feels that "it is time the thing was checked." "I mean," he declares, "to do my small part, by God's help, toward checking it." No better way of checking it occurs to him than that of "singling out the most conspicuous instance" of this greed for money that he has ever met. Hence his exposure of "the old humbug of Cipher Alley." What has seemed heretofore like an overflow of indignation at a private wrong now appears to be the performance of a public duty. This is the more creditable to Mr. Field since almost any other man would have been likely to entertain a personal feeling towards a "legislative ally" who had sold him out. His remark that the national standard in respect to the means of money-getting "will never be raised so long as men keep silent about it," is probably true; but if raising it depends upon speaking one's mind about Mr. Tilden the outlook for the future is bright with hope.

Mr. Tilden's vitality and continued hold of the Democratic Machine are made all the more remarkable by the rapid succession of the misfortunes which overtake his reputation. His refusal to pay the pedigree man in London for "a handsome family tree" until compelled by threats of legal proceedings, as reported by Mr. Field, was a great blunder; so was the disappearance of the books in his railroad suit. Now comes another in his moving for a bill of particulars in his income-tax suit. He said in his affidavit that he was ignorant of the particulars of the claim made against him, and therefore wanted to know what items of his income the Government thinks he concealed. But to this Judge Choate, in denying the motion, made the crushing observation that "he (Mr. Tilden) does not swear that he is ignorant of the particulars of his income during the periods in question." (The Court might have added that if he were, all he had to do was to apply to the New York *Times*.) Therefore the Government could not surprise him on the trial. If they alleged that he had received money which he had not received, contradictory proof could be easily adduced. Disapproving as one must do of this old candidate's conduct, one must acknowledge that he bears his load of opprobrium in a very gallant manner, and, though bowed down with iniquity, still gives full work to at least two dozen able-bodied Republican moralists, and nothing but daily exposure seems to be considered sufficient to keep him out of the White House.

Kearney has been twice refused a reception by General Grant on sending up his "card," and that, too, after a Chinese delegation had been respectfully admitted. The Sand Lots hero and his followers and patrons are also in deep trouble over a recent decision by Judge Deady, of the United States Circuit Court in Oregon. Judge Deady decides that the Oregon law which prohibits contractors from employing Chinese on work to be paid for by a municipality, is unconstitutional; the Burlingame Treaty conferred upon the Chinese the right to a permanent residence here, and this, according to the decision, involves their right to earn a living here, which right is invaded by such legislation as that in question. The new California constitution contains the same prohibition, which accounts for the alarm and indignation at the decision which finds vent in the San Francisco papers. One journal argues that the right to live in a country by no means implies the right to keep one's self alive in the said country, and that Judge Deady is not a good lawyer. He is nevertheless, it should be said, in full sympathy with the opponents of Chinese immigration, though he cannot avoid recognizing perfectly clear distinctions as they seem to require him to do.

A special reporter of the Chicago *Times*, who was sent to Yazoo City to ascertain the facts in regard to the killing of Dixon, has given a long and apparently conscientious account of the murdered man's history. It appears from this that Dixon, who was born in Virginia in 1847, and who ran away to join the Confederate army, arrived in Yazoo early in 1866 as a professional gambler, and presently opened a gambling-house, which he gave up only a short time before he ran as independent candidate for sheriff, and on the stairs of which he was lately assassinated. In 1872 or 1873 he openly shot down a negro to whom he owed money. In the political campaign of 1875 he became the head of a body of regulators called "Dixon's Scouts," among whom was Barksdale, and who passed their time in breaking up Republican meetings, terrorizing the colored population, and hanging such of them as were charged with crime or were otherwise obnoxious. One of these victims had $1,600 on his person, which he begged the "Scouts" to send to his mother in Ohio. Dixon demanded this money of the man to whom it was entrusted, and pretended that he paid it into the Democratic campaign fund, to be used "to stuff the ballot-boxes, if necessary"; but the Democratic Committee denied having received it, and the probability is that Dixon appropriated it for his own advantage. In January, 1876, on the eve of the Democratic return to power through the efforts of the regulators, the county treasurer's safe was robbed of $50,000, an act of which the outgoing treasurer could not be accused, for he had handed over his accounts, but which was publicly fastened upon Dixon by a fellow-gambler named Harrison. This led to frequent encounters between the two men, until Dixon had killed his accuser. He was tried, but was acquitted and escorted home with a brass band. Barksdale at this time was deputy-sheriff, and during the imprisonment an enmity arose between them which culminated in Dixon's death. Barksdale is said to have shot him not because he was trying as a negro candidate to divide his party, but because he had made the grossest and filthiest attacks on the character of his mother and sister. It appears, however, that Dixon was getting to be regarded as too dangerous a man to be tolerated any longer, and that there was some concert in his taking off. In spite of his many atrocities the negroes eagerly followed him as a political leader, and it is plain that the power of such a man in the community, with such a constituency, was as much to be dreaded as if he had been a Northern carpet-bagger.

During the week $8,577,000 more foreign specie arrived at New York, of which all except $720,000 consisted of gold. This brings the total specie imports since the resumption of specie payments up to $39,700,000, all of which, except about $4,500,000, has arrived since the first day of August, or during the months of August and September. The demand for currency on the New York banks from the interior has been very large; and during the week the banks which owed the Government for 4 per cent. bonds made their final settlements, so that with all the gold arriving the reserve of the banks was reduced. As the Treasury has drawn all the money from the banks which it can on account of 4 per cents., and as it has a fund of twenty-odd millions to pay out for called bonds as they are presented, and about $8,000,000 for October interest, the Treasury movements will help the money market during the remainder of the

year. All departments of trade are very active, but the healthful improvement in legitimate enterprises is endangered by the unwholesome and wild speculation at the Stock Exchange. Even the coal stocks and Erie have become respectable beside some of the new "fancies." Silver bullion in London ruled at 51½*d.* to 51⅝*d.* The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar here was $0.8662.

The elections for direct electors to choose deputies to the Prussian Diet took place on Tuesday last, with a result, so far as is known at this writing, decidedly adverse to the Chancellor's pretensions. There are three parties in the field: the Conservatives, who are supporting Bismarck, and who maintain under his guidance that the issue is economical reform and the possession of the railroads by the Government; the National Liberals, who maintain that it is the preservation and development of parliamentary institutions, now threatened by the Chancellor; and the Ultramontanes, who maintain that it is the liberty of the Church. The last have been thrown into a state of great excitement by the formal announcement through the semi-official paper that all stories of negotiations between the Government and the Pope are false; that the nuncio, Roncetti, was never authorized to open any such negotiations, and has never opened them. Moreover, the new Minister of Worship has just returned an answer to the petition of the clergy of the dioceses of Münster and Paderborn which shows that Herr Puttkammer is not a whit more pliable than Dr. Falk. The petition claimed for the Catholic prelates the right of participating in the organization and inspection of the schools, and asked that the ordinances now depriving them of that right might be abrogated, and the exclusive state inspection and control modified. The Minister replies that the act they complain of is simply a new expression of what has always been the Prussian law, and that the situation is of their own creating, and that no change of any kind will be made. The *Germania*, the Ultramontane organ, therefore denounces him as Falk with a new name. But the Socialists have elected two members in Saxony, which is a severe blow to the Chancellor, and has made some sensation throughout the country.

The *Germania* also meets the National-Liberal cry for "war against Rome" by declaring that the real danger to Germany comes from the growing numbers and influence of the Jews, and makes four capital charges against them: (1) That they are appropriating an amount of the public fortune out of all proportion to the services they render to society, and make their money either without labor, or by very light labor, or by trickery; (2) that they mix themselves up in Christian quarrels for the purpose of rendering them more bitter, and attack Christianity itself; (3) that they labor systematically for the corruption of the Christian world by their sensational press, their immoral novels, and their indecent engravings; (4) that in all the political movements of the day they are among the most radical and revolutionary, and wage bitter war against all that is legitimate, historical, and Christian in the national life, and promote all upturnings, knowing that Judaism has always flourished on ruins. The Liberal papers make fun of this, but all acknowledge that Jews are taking possession more completely every day of the press, the finances and trade of the Empire, and playing a more and more prominent part in all fields of national activity. The returns show that the attendance of the Jewish youth in the secondary schools and universities is larger by far in proportion to their numbers than that of the youth of any other sect. The Rumanians, who are making desperate attempts to avoid literal compliance with the clause of the Treaty of Berlin which directs them to emancipate the Jews, have drawn attention to the Coney Island and Saratoga demonstration against them in this country as proof that the Jews are increasing in America to "an alarming degree." Nothing would do more to drown this prejudice than a movement among the Jews towards agriculture, but of this there is no sign. We doubt if a Jewish farmer can be found in either hemisphere. For their wonderful success in all other pursuits there seems to be only one remedy, and that is the slaughter of all Jewish children.

The conflict between the Opposition and the Ministry with regard to the Jews in Rumania continues. The Ministry wish to comply with the requirements of the Treaty of Berlin by naturalizing all really resident Jews, or "naturalizing by categories," as it is called, while the Opposition are only willing to naturalize select Jews by name. In Wallachia, where the Jews are mostly descendants of Spanish and Portuguese refugees, born and bred in the country, the question gives little trouble. In Moldavia, on the other hand, the Jews are mostly emigrants from Poland and Russia, and so numerous that they are said to make 75 per cent. of the population of Jassy, the capital. The Opposition maintain that the only bad consequence of refusal will be non-recognition of the Principality as an independent state by the Powers, and for this they do not care; but the Ministry fear that if there should be another outbreak of the Eastern Question the country might suffer in the settlement for its recalcitrancy.

The conflict between the Government and the clergy over the management of the public schools in Belgium grows more bitter. The bishops had already directed the priests to refuse absolution to the teachers of the primary schools, and to both teachers and students in the normal schools. They have now gone a step further and applied the prohibition to the parents of the children in the primary schools. These schools under the law of 1879 differ in no respect from those of this State, except in making more distinct recognition of religion. A place and hour are provided in them during which the clergy may give religious instruction to the children of their own denomination. If the clergy refuse, the teacher may, if he pleases, give children the elementary religious instruction prescribed for the purpose by their respective denominations, in the catechisms, if the parents desire it. But the Catholic clergy actually insist on having the appointment and dismissal of the teachers, the inspection and control of the instruction, and the provision of the books, and in default of this threaten every adult person connected with state education with eternal damnation.

A correspondent who knows what he is talking about discusses elsewhere the military aspect of the Afghan problem. The newspapers brought out by the last mails from England are full of its political bearings. The Liberals are trampling on their fallen foe by reproducing the past deliverances of the members of the Cabinet on the "Imperial policy," and in these, of course, Lord Salisbury cuts the worst figure. His despatch to Lord Northbrook, urging him to impose on the Amir by inventing an excuse for sending to Kabul an ostensibly temporary mission, to be subsequently converted into a permanent one, is—now that the Ministers have been guilty of so much other falsehood and evasion—curious reading. Lord Northbrook indignantly refused, and he was replaced by a showy novelist who knew nothing of the East. Lord Beaconsfield's contemptuous reply to Lord Lawrence, too, when the latter as chairman of the Afghan Committee sought an interview with him, is reproduced with damning effect; and so is Mr. Gladstone's solemn warning as to the probable fate of the embassy uttered in full debate. The French press is rubbing the poison in with its sarcasms. One paper, alluding to the rôle which two "second-rate novelists" (Lord Beaconsfield and Lytton) have played in the catastrophe, asks whether, if the Tory Cabinet should be reconstructed, "Ouida" and Miss Braddon would have places in it. Luckily for the Ministers Parliament is not sitting. The news from Afghanistan shows that every exertion is being made to occupy Kabul; but then all the world knows that this will not be the end of the trouble, but the beginning of it. The Amir has come into the camp with a small escort, which is a confession that he has lost whatever power he ever had. Behind this dismal collapse of the Imperial policy there is the growing distress, both agricultural and manufacturing, which must tell seriously on the revenue during the current year.

THE PARTY OF DISCONTENT.

THE fact that after a canvass of extraordinary vigor, aided by returning business prosperity and the apparently complete success of resumption, the Republicans of Maine were able to make no impression on the Greenback vote and came near losing the State, has a good deal of significance. So also has the fact that Butler, who last year with a very feeble organization came near equally dividing the vote of the State with the Republicans of Massachusetts, has this year returned to the charge, supported by some prominent Republican politicians who are noted for their love of being on the winning side, and has in his platform avoided all mention of national issues. In other words, he proposes to fight simply on economical questions and questions of local government, and he evidently believes that he will lose nothing by refusing to manifest any interest in the subject of "State rights," which was last winter the latest political "fancy" in Washington. In New York, although the Republican platform as drawn up at Saratoga was full of Washington troubles, and the Democratic platform had a fair allowance of them, both the candidates have avoided all mention of them in their letters of acceptance. No one would suppose from either Mr. Robinson's letter or Mr. Cornell's that the coming election was likely to determine the position of the State next year in a deadly conflict with the South over the very questions which brought on the war, as the Washington politicians would fain have us believe. Mr. Wheeler made a vehement "bloody-shirt" speech at the Republican Convention, but we believe it is undeniable that it was listened to with undisguised weariness. In California the Republicans have carried the State, but not in sufficient force to prevent Kearney's party from getting possession of the municipal government of San Francisco, and two out of the three railroad commissioners, who wield very great power under the new constitution. Whether the Republicans would have done so well if their opponents had not been split into so many sections—there were five State tickets in the field—is more than doubtful.

To appreciate all this correctly, it must not be forgotten that the elections which are occurring this year are the last before the meeting of the Presidential conventions, and their result is naturally regarded with extraordinary interest on account of the influence it is likely to have on the public mind in the intervening months, as well as on account of the indication it will afford as to the probable relative strength of parties a year hence. It must also be borne in mind that the Republican platforms and orators have generally evaded the remaining difficulty of the financial situation by treating gold and silver as of equal value and as likely to remain so—there being actually a difference of fourteen or fifteen per cent. between them—and by ignoring the fact that the redeemed greenbacks are reissued or held for reissue. Mr. Sherman, who is franker on this subject than most other speakers, endeavored to dispose of it in Maine by holding out the hope that we should before long have a bi-metallic convention with European nations, which would relieve us of our load of silver; but we verily believe that there is little foundation for this hope beyond a conversation of Prince Bismarck with Mr. W. D. Kelley, in which Bismarck, probably perceiving the mental condition of the person he was dealing with, served out to him the kind of talk he thought would be most likely to please and excite him.

All this—and we might, if we had the space, add a great deal to it—does not support the theory that the Greenback movement is dying out under the influence of specie payments and returning prosperity. The desire that the Government should not redeem the greenbacks, or that it should make fresh issues of irredeemable paper, probably *is* declining; but the Greenback movement does not depend on this solely. What it covers and represents is not simply a particular financial heresy, but a loss of interest in the questions by which the two great parties have been divided since 1856; an unwillingness to accept the new issues got up in Congress between the Brigadiers and the Stalwarts; and, finally, a widespread desire to discover some mode of improving the condition of the working classes, including the struggling farmers, through legislation. In fact, the name Greenbacker is a mere accident. The discontent may next year take another name, but it will continue. Many Republicans seem to take comfort in the fact that it now and then, as in Massachusetts and Maine, swallows up the Democratic party; but we do not see how this mends matters. The 110,000 who voted for Butler last year have to be met and overcome under the name of Butlerites as well as under the name of Democrats. They differ from Democrats simply in refusing to take any interest in the Southern question and thus present one issue on which they could be fought and beaten; but they are for this reason none the less formidable or difficult to deal with.

It would, in fact, appear as if Mr. Sherman's opinion, uttered in Ohio, that the great State-rights contention in Congress is "infinitely more important than money or bonds, or property in silver and gold" (in Maine he put "labor" on the list), is by no means shared by a large and increasing number of voters. The truth is that in this country, as in all countries in our time, questions of labor, of property, and of money underlie all other questions, and, though often kept temporarily in abeyance by the sudden and overpowering excitements arising out of foreign quarrels or quarrels over the seat of the sovereignty, such as the late rebellion, they form the deepest and most permanent interest of the bulk of the population. They furnish the source of industry, the raw material of morality, and the most powerful governing motives of the lives of the great mass of men; and any party which tries to ignore them, or which puts them for a long period in a secondary position, is sure to suffer for it. They are pushing their way to the front in the politics of all civilized countries, in spite of the efforts of kings, and princes, and chancellors, and managers to keep them out of sight. They are at this moment the impending questions of the politics of this country.

How closely and in what troublesome forms they are likely to press on us has been set out in the last number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, by the very able writer who has been during the last year contributing to that periodical a remarkable series of articles on the mental and moral condition of the working classes. His description of the views about the sphere of government which are making their way among the workingmen, and which are preached by the "sincere demagogues" who lead them, are worthy of the attentive perusal of all who desire to know the nature of the problems which American political parties will be called on to solve during the next fifty years. They are problems, too, which we shall not be able to deal with from afar, with the aid of "troops," collectors, and United States marshals, like the Southern question, but which every man will have to solve at his own door and in his own farm or store. That article not only goes far to explain the persistence of the Greenback movement, and the Butler movement, but prepares us for the appearance of others of like nature, possessing more coherence and a better organization. It explains, too, the growing difficulty of keeping people in Maine and Massachusetts, who have a hard struggle to get bread and education for their children, in a fever-heat of excitement because the civilization of South Carolina is still low, and because human life in Mississippi is less sacred than in New York and Ohio. It does, however, more than this. It indicates very clearly that any party which, like the Republican party, boasts that it contains the conservative intelligence of the country, and assumes the responsibility of maintaining and defending the existing social order, must devise for this purpose some better instrumentality than electing a dictator or keeping alive the dying embers of bloody strife. It must go back to the spirit as well as to the agencies of its early days, and begin the slow and perhaps dull process of educating the discontented masses, both Southern and Northern, into sound economic and social ideas, as it once educated them into hatred of slavery, by the lectures and speeches and books of men who love the party as the early Republicans loved it; not as the means of getting so many offices for so many "workers," but as the means of making the popular morality a sure and lasting foundation for rational political liberty.

THE FISHERIES QUESTION.

IT was hoped that the Halifax Commission and the enormous sum which we paid as its award had settled all disputes about the fisheries in Canadian waters for some years at least. But we now have the strange spectacle of our fishermen, who were supposed to be vitally interested in the right to fish inshore, memorializing the Government to abrogate the Treaty, our Government negotiating to surrender privileges for which we have paid five and a half millions, and the Government of Great Britain reluctant to do away with provisions which it had contended were detrimental to it to the extent of more than a million dollars a year. The causes of this anomalous condition of things are not hard to find.

In the first place, the local governments of the Dominion have statutes, to which, they maintain, fishermen from the United States as well as their own subjects are bound to conform, of a nature to impair greatly the value of our treaty rights. These laws prohibit seining herring or squid, which are the principal bait for cod, between the middle of October and the middle of April, making a close season of six months, during which the only way in which bait can be obtained is by the slow process of jigging or by purchase. Fishing for squid or herring on Sunday is also prohibited. There are also onerous restrictions as to the kind of seines to be used and the manner of using them. The superintendent of Canadian fisheries has issued a circular in which he interprets a provision against throwing overboard offal and dead fish as prohibiting seining for mackerel. The Government of Great Britain, in answer to remonstrances by our Government, say that they claim that aliens and subjects alike should obey the local laws of the jurisdiction within which they find themselves, but that "if a local law has been inadvertently passed which is in any degree or respect at variance with the rights conferred on a foreign Power by the Treaty, the correction of the mistake committed, at the earliest period that its existence shall have been ascertained and recognized, is a matter of international obligation." Meanwhile the laws stand, and our fishermen, though instructed that our Government does not consider them bound by those laws and will sustain them in their violation, not unnaturally are unwilling to risk the loss of their vessel and catch for the chance of reparation at some distant day, even if they were not forcibly prevented from fishing against the laws, as has been the case in two instances at least. A claim for $103,000 has been made against Great Britain for the trouble at Fortune Bay a year and a half ago. The natives of Newfoundland make a very good profit on the bait which they sell to our cod-fishermen, which may account for the violence of their indignation when their laws are broken.

Another reason why our fishermen are anxious for the Treaty to come to an end is because they, having expensive outfits and being obliged to go a long way from home, are unable, without a protective tariff, to compete in the markets with the fishermen of the Dominion, who go out for a day at a time in their small boats and are engaged in farming at other times. The result is shown in the diminished number of our mackerel fleet in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, there being said to have been not more than forty or fifty there this summer, as against about two hundred and fifty in 1873, and one hundred and sixty in 1874. With a duty which was almost, if not entirely, prohibitory before the Treaty, mackerel-fishing was barely profitable, and with free competition with the cheap labor and outfit of the Canadians it has ceased to be so at all. Probably less than a third of all the mackerel caught by our fishermen are taken in the grounds gained by the Treaty, and for the privilege of taking these few they are exposed to disastrous competition.

On the other hand the Canadians want reciprocity, of all things. Their market is this country, and if cut off from that they are crippled. When there was a heavy duty on fish they found it almost useless to try to compete, and many of their fishermen sailed in American bottoms to avoid the duties. Though by the present Treaty they have reciprocity only in fish and fish-oils, and though they not unnaturally feel aggrieved that this Government refuses to recognize cod-liver oil as a fish-oil (on the ground of its having been treated medicinally), and that a heavy duty has been imposed on the tin cans in which the fish are packed, still they know they cannot afford to lose even this limited reciprocity under which their fishing interests are reviving.

In this condition of things—when those supposed to be benefited by a treaty seek its abrogation, and those injured by it insist on its continuance—it is hard to suggest any remedy. Our Government has had a vessel with Commissioners in Canadian waters the last summer to collect facts to aid in negotiations with Great Britain. This Commission has not yet reported, and the result of its investigations is not known. If the Treaty is abrogated we are at once thrown back on the continual quarrels and complaints, on the one hand of infringements by our fishermen within the three-mile line, and on the other of illegal seizures and harassing searches and detention. These disputes must exist wherever we are excluded from fishing within an imaginary line, whose whereabouts must, in the very nature of things, be practically determined by a guess. And the guess of a Gloucester skipper is likely to be very different from that of the captain of a British cruiser. We cannot be free from trouble unless we have the right to fish inshore, and this right Great Britain will certainly not concede for a less return than she now gets under the Treaty. But what is meant by the right to fish inshore—whether it means for the whole year or for such part as the wisdom of the local legislature may decree, whether by such means and with such implements as are most suitable or with such as the local legislature shall allow—must be fully agreed by the Governments of the two countries. If we are carefully protected by mutual agreements in these matters, the provisions of the present Treaty seem as fair to both sides as any that can be devised.

VIOLLET-LE-DUC.

THE extraordinary popularity in this country of some of the works of Eugène Emmanuel Viollet-le-Duc is a sufficient reason for devoting to his life and labors an amount of space which our American journals seldom find it convenient to give to a writer in another tongue than the English. Born in 1814, Viollet-le-Duc was well launched on the sea of study and research, for his family counts many names not unknown in literature and art. His father, who lived until 1859, was peculiarly a student of early French literature ; and his uncle was E. J. Delécluse, a voluminous and valued critic and historian, who was called "le doyen des critiques français" when he died in 1863. Eugène, however, must have taken to his own especial task very early in life. It was at the age of twenty-six that he was employed on the Paris Sainte-Chapelle under the direction of others, and as director-in-chief of the elaborate and long-continued works of restoration and almost rebuilding of the nearly ruined abbey-church of Vézelay. He had previously prepared himself for practical work by extended journeys, and by an amount of labor and study in the presence of the monuments of Italy, Sicily, South Germany, and above all of France, of which we can best judge from the really amazing results embodied in books published long afterwards. Nor was his work merely preparation for the future : in Gailhabaud's 'Monumens Anciens et Modernes,' the monograph on the Campanile of Giotto is by him, we remember, and probably others are as well. From about 1836, for a number of years, he exhibited frequently at the Salon elaborate drawings of ancient buildings, as he found them, and as conjecturally restored. He taught at the École de Dessin until about 1845, and contributed freely to periodicals, while continually new architectural work was entrusted to him, generally in the form of repair, restoration, and completion of cathedrals and other edifices of the Middle Ages. During his first ten years of active work he was employed by the Ministry of the Interior upon public works at a dozen cities at once, especially at Carcassonne, at Sens, and at Amiens. In 1846 he was architect of the Abbey of St. Denis, and about the same time he was employed with Lassus, who soon after died and left him alone in charge upon the Cathedral of Paris, Notre Dame, where an amount of work was done difficult to conceive in view of the building as it stands to-day, and only to be partly estimated by comparing with it the photographs and drawings of forty years ago.

Viollet-le-Duc was set down by his contemporaries as wholly devoted

to mediæval art and building, as was natural from his early appearance as an advocate of the careful preservation and study of Romanesque and Gothic buildings. The interest in these forms of art was as strong in France as in England in those early days, and far more intelligent, though it led to no well-marked "Gothic Revival" in modern building. As the champion of mediævalism as a correlative study, too important to banish completely, as the Academic mind thought right, Viollet-le-Duc became a partisan perforce. No reader of his books needs to be told that he would have advocated just as eagerly the study of Greek art or of Roman building, had it been one of these which the Paris *écoles* and *ateliers* insisted on ignoring. But it was his mission to speak for the forgotten past of France, and he spoke for it and worked at its rehabilitation with an energy and a skill that put him at the head of his associates. The year 1854 or 1855 saw the completion of the first volume of his 'Dictionary of French Architecture from the Eleventh to the Sixteenth Centuries,' a book in ten volumes, which took ten years to complete. 1858 was marked by the first volume of the 'Dictionary of French *Mobilier* [a word easier to convey than to translate] from the Carlovingian Epoch to the Renaissance'; but this book was not completed until long afterward—after the French and German war, and great changes in our author's position in life. A host of pamphlets belong to the years 1856–1864, many of them afterward incorporated into his great works, but some of them more temporary in their nature, and nearly related to almost the only failure in Viollet-le-Duc's career.

He was closely allied to the Napoleonic court. The Minister of Fine Arts, a certain Count de Nieuwerkerke, of Dutch family, a sculptor of some reputation, who had come to the front during the Republic of 1848, seems to have had unbounded respect for him, and the immediate household of the Emperor is reported to have looked to him for advice and aid in their artistical vagaries—from decorations for fêtes to the collecting of works of art. In the autumn of 1863 a decree of the Emperor ordered certain important changes in the organization and system of the École des Beaux-Arts, the most marked one being an apparent substitution of the direct will of the Ministry for the influence of the Academy of Fine Arts in the guidance of the School. Five days afterwards the nominations appeared to the new offices. The director was to be Robert-Fleury, a painter of the old school; the three professors of painting were Pils, Cabanel, and Gérôme; the professor of engraving was Henriquel-Dupont, engraver of Delaroche's "Hemicycle"; the other professors were well-known men, and the chair of Æsthetics and the History of Art was filled by Viollet-le-Duc. The greater part of the new system was destined to be permanent; but in the case of Viollet-le Duc the rebellion of routine, old tradition, exclusiveness, and *esprit de corps* was too strong for him to subdue, and, after a scandalous uproar and a violent controversy in scores of journals, he resigned his chair, to which was appointed soon after a very different person—a writer of whom no one was jealous, an "available" candidate, as we should phrase it in America—M. Taine. Another result was, if we do not read amiss some undated prefaces and notes, the series of 'Entretiens sur l'Architecture,' a very important work, of which one-half has been translated into English by Mr. Van Brunt and published in Boston. These lectures seem to be what he would have delivered to his pupils, had they been willing to listen.

Vapereau's Dictionary, from which we have taken a date or two, says, by way of summing up, "Artiste ou Écrivain, il montre partout une sympathie exclusive pour le Moyen Âge." It is amusing to read this sentence just after the list of his exhibited water-color drawings of ancient buildings; but there is truth in almost all assertions—truth or the shadow of truth. As "artiste"—that is, as practising architect—nine-tenths of Viollet-le-Duc's work was in connection with cathedrals, fortresses, abbeys, and civic buildings, the slender remains, in France, of the Romanesque and Gothic ages. The other tenth we ask no one to admire. Skill and boldness in planning are not strange or rare among French architects, and a daring employment of new styles of design is not admirable unless the result is fine. It is hardly worth while to speak of his different designs, or of the books in which they can be found; for there is, we think, little disagreement among students as to their character. Intelligence there is in them, resource, dexterity, but scarcely a spark of genius, scarcely any evidence of power of artistic design. We name only, as an instance of the most complete failure when a great chance was given, the color-decoration of the chapels of Notre Dame, published in an accessible volume by M. Ouradou. The evidences of study of Gothic art appear in all the designs of our author, but seldom predominate in them. He might be called a very modern, a very realistic designer, taking his good where he found it, except that his designs are really of no great value.

His mission was to instruct, to criticise, to build up a whole system of study, and to set an example of constant, intelligent, and uninterrupted labor. His books are extraordinarily new, underived; they are the result of his own investigations. The great dictionary by which he is best known contains in its first volume the threefold essay "Architecture," civic, ecclesiastical, and military—three hundred and fifty pages long, or a volume in itself. This is succeeded, enlarged, supported, and verified by an essay nearly as long on Construction, in the fourth volume. Separate papers under different headings develop, as we go down the alphabet, the important parts of the study. Thus, by the time V is reached, there is a great deal to say, under "Voûte," about Roman, Romanesque, and Gothic vaulting which had not been said before. Now, of all this mass of fact, and of explanatory theory deduced from fact, there is scarcely a line that is not our author's own—the measurements and the knowledge of buildings are of his own getting, the conclusions are of his own drawing. Occasionally he refers his reader to another book than one of his own, but it is when M. Verneilh or M. Amé, or MM. Verdier and Cattois, have published drawings so accurate and complete of some building or detail that he thinks it unnecessary to give his own. The frequent use of pictures taken from ancient manuscripts and of passages from early French literature, which every reader will notice, may be the result of the aid of others; it is not impossible that secretaries and amanuenses have found and copied the latter and have hunted up the former for the author himself to copy. Moreover, his all-knowingness in mineralogy and in branches of mechanical science not necessary to an architect, such as dynamics, leads one to suppose skill in eliciting from specialists what he needed of their specialties. But the chief part of his varied knowledge is his own. It is true that he enjoyed extraordinary opportunities. He knew Gothic vaulting by heart; but then he had had to take down and rebuild Gothic vaults of all the epochs. He has been called the discoverer of the forgotten system of defence adopted in the fortresses of the later Middle Ages; but then he had been employed for years, and at good salaries, to rebuild Coucy and Pierrefonds, and the walls of Carcassonne. He gives us drawings of mangonels and balistas which, as he says, would really work and be formidable if they were constructed, instead of the absurd impossibilities of various iconographic works of our fathers. But, then, the Emperor had paid the cost of actually setting up one or more of them, for it had been his specialty, ever since he was Prince Louis, to study the history of artillery in all ages. In all these treatises, though Gothic art is his special subject in most of them, the taste of Viollet-le-Duc is generally catholic, and his power of discrimination active, and, indeed, his most marked characteristic. In the 'Entretiens' his subject is the architecture of all ages, and certainly in that treatise the analysis of each style and the comparison between styles is critical in the highest acceptation of that term. Oddly enough, the only exception, as it seems to us, is in the case of one of the Gothic styles: in his earlier volumes he is completely at sea about Italian-Gothic, missing in it what he especially admired in French work, and failing to see its one peculiar charm. In later essays we think he means to make amends for this error.

As for the immense number of illustrations which crowd his thirty volumes and pamphlets, it seems to be established that they are all his own—those which we have in wood-cut drawn with his own hand, the others engraved or lithographed directly from his drawings. All his life he lived "pencil in hand"; everything he saw he made a drawing of, and his drawings he always knew where to find and how to make use of. We shall be told here that his drawings of sculptural detail and of *meubles*, such as furniture and stuffs, are not accurate. It is true. Photographic exactness, such as Jules Jacquemart knows how to give when his subject admits of it, Viollet-le-Duc disregards. A curious instance of it has been pointed out; the two "chaires" given in the great 'Dictionary' as remaining in the cathedrals of Augsburg and Avignon are also given by Mr. Waring in his folio of etchings, and no one need doubt which is the more nearly correct of the two ways of reproducing them. We are inclined to regard this mannerism in representation as a necessary condition of doing such an amount of work. A swift and powerful draughtsman, profoundly impressed with his subject, may perhaps be allowed to put down his impression of a decorative object in twenty minutes rather than to give a longer time to careful elaboration. Exactness is dear to us. Whoever will bring out a new edition of the 'Dictionary' with photographic additions will render a great service. But we take what we can get out of a man who must die at sixty-five, and in this case are very thankful for it.

SOCIAL-DEMOCRATIC ORGANIZATION IN GERMANY.

LEIPZIG, September 8, 1879.

NEVER before has the hope of immediate political gains been so great as at present among the Social-Democrats. The election of Hasenclever at Breslau; the funeral of young Geib at Hamburg, where forty thousand Socialists marched to his grave, and especially the fact that the moderate wing has now chief control, have awakened confidence and activity. The Exceptional Law has acted most strongly against the immoderate wing; it has cleansed the party both from the faint-hearted and the insurrectionists; and Most, who has fled to London and is now publishing there his little sheet, characteristically printed in red ink, is now accused by the leading Socialists of being the tool of Bismarck. The opinions of Karl Marx, of London, the master-Socialist, have now full sway, while the general knowledge that his disciples, Liebknecht and Bebel, possess power as well as moderation, has allayed the fears of the middle classes.

It may be well here to give the present leading tenets of the Socialists, which I am enabled to do from long talks with Marx and Liebknecht. They hold that the industry of the world is ever tending towards a grander scale; that large industries are rapidly swallowing the smaller; that capital is passing ever into fewer hands; and that a time must come when the industry of each country will be controlled by a few persons. Then, and then only, the people will step forward and claim that to them —to the state—belongs all capital, and they will carry on all industries by democratic control. But before the state can govern industry centralization must immensely develop, and as this can only be accomplished by the concentration of wealth in a few hands, the bourgeoisie are but the necessary instruments for reaching a condition where Socialism is possible. Consequently there is no desire among Socialists to hinder the growth of the capitalists; the faster that growth the faster the approach of Socialism. They confess that in the present non-centralized condition of industry any attempt at state control would be futile and ruinous. But, while they are willing to let centralization take its course, it is their desire that the people shall so advance in education and independence as to be able at the proper time to control all industry. For the present, therefore, placing Socialism in the background, they aim only at the moral and intellectual improvement of the masses; and in their demand for a responsible government, for the reduction of the army, and for the abolition of indirect taxes, they differ in no respect from the advanced Liberals. Their demand for the state control of the sanitary condition of factories and workmen's dwellings is the only Socialistic tenet at present advanced. They are, according to their own statement, Democrats first and Socialists afterwards. Their Socialism depends entirely on industrial changes; and should experience show that capital is not tending towards fewer hands, then they are no longer Socialists. For the present, and even for generations, they are content to be only Democrats, and to let experience show them the proper course.

The expounding of the above opinions, combined with the general knowledge that had the Socialist leaders said the word they could for the moment have seized Berlin, Saxony, and Hamburg, has created among the Liberals a better feeling towards the Socialists. "By thus refraining," said Liebknecht to me, "we have shown that we are the party of peace and the Government the party of discord." It is this kind feeling of the Liberals that the Socialists are now striving for. The latter easily see that under the military rule of Bismarck there is no hope of propagating their Socialistic tenets, as their writings will be suppressed and they themselves imprisoned. Their first desideratum is liberty of speech and of the press. But this can only come through the help of the independent bourgeoisie, and as the Socialist leaders are thoroughly convinced that in a few years the bourgeoisie will make a revolution for such liberty, they are determined to unite with their former enemies, or rather bring them over to their own party. For the Socialist leaders assert that they alone have been consistent in their opposition to Bismarck, and, as the Liberals are now forced into the same policy, they must necessarily join the Socialists. These expectations, however, are far too sanguine, since the probable adoption by the Liberals of the Socialist stand of uncompromising opposition to Bismarck by no means implies their adoption of the Socialists as leaders, both on account of the superior numbers of the former and the social prejudices against the latter. Again, it is noteworthy that while all the Socialist leaders agree that the centralization of wealth is the necessary precedent to Socialism, the rich are nevertheless hated by both leaders and the ranks, and this must prevent a close union between them and the bourgeoisie. Still, it cannot be denied that the Social-Democrats have made, and will make, considerable gains among the middle classes, and such is the general confidence of the leaders that I have been informed, by those best capable of judging, that should a dissolution now occur in the Reichstag the number of Socialist members would be more than doubled.

The final victory of those advocating the Marx idea of letting industrial evolution take its course must have great effect on a party whose members obey so implicitly the commands of their leaders. There is much difference of opinion among the Social-Democrats, on account of the crude and undigested nature of their views, but seldom is there a lack of harmony in their action. The masses of the party have at last risen against the military system and have some independence, but a German independence only; centuries of hard discipline cannot be effaced in a decade, and the ranks of the Socialists march to the command of their leaders, like well-drilled and docile soldiers. The Marx idea, then, must drive all thoughts of immediate Socialistic attempts from the minds of the masses for years, and in the meantime improvement in trade and changes in industry may still further postpone pure Socialism.

The suppressive measures are still active, and in Dresden several young men have recently been imprisoned on account of their newspaper articles. Imprisonment in Saxony is by no means to be dreaded, as the privilege of books and writing materials furnishes the opportunity for a few months of quiet work. But in Prussia neither books nor writing materials are allowed. The letters of the Socialists are still opened by Government officials, and their houses are often searched. Their journals also have suffered; the circulation of the *Social-Demokrat*, their leading organ, of which Liebknecht is editor and which is now published under another name, has been reduced two-thirds, and this is a fair example. To counteract this, however, measures have been recently started for organizing a paper called the *Social-Demokrat* in Switzerland, and for sending the papers into Germany in sealed envelopes. Against this the Exceptional Law, which in its nature is more repressive than punitory, has no power.

In spite of the strictness of the police, party organization and electioneering have gone on among the Social-Democrats, who often poll votes of a magnitude surprising to their opponents. A good example is at Planitz, in Saxony, where an election for the Saxon Landtag is to occur in a few days. So sure are the Conservatives of returning their candidate that recently their leading organ congratulated its readers on the prospect of a non-contested election. The Socialists, however, have been working in secret and are confident of success.* A meeting, also secret, was recently held in Planitz, when Herr Puttrich, the Socialist candidate, gave his address. It differed from the Liberal platform only in advocating the abolition of the Saxon Senate and in promising reforms in the *Knappschaftskassen*, or mutual insurance fund for miners. This is of very ancient origin, and has long been established by law in every iron and coal mine in Germany. A certain portion of each miner's wages is reserved for this fund, while the employer must also contribute a sum not less than half the total payment by the laborers. From this fund a weekly allowance is paid to the laborer when injured, or to his widow on his death. The miners allege, however, that they have no voice either in the distribution or investment of the funds, which have been long mismanaged; and that, as never more than one-half the entire fund need be distributed, the employer, having the other half in his business, pays far less than the miners. Again, dismissal, which is in the power of the employer, deprives the miner of the benefit. The miners, therefore, demand a change of the law, and as Herr Puttrich's supporters would be mostly miners, he promised in his address such a change. The miners throughout Saxony are nearly all Social-Democrats, and are being rapidly banded together in trade-unions, both in order to unite politically and to oppose the masters. In fact, the present system of organization with the Social-Democrats in Germany is fast approaching a system of trade-unions in all departments of industry.

EGYPTIAN FINANCES.

CAIRO, September 8, 1879.

GORDON PASHA, the Governor-General of the Sudan, arrived here in the latter part of August after a rapid journey *via* the Nile from Khartum. Gordon was only twenty-three days *en route* between Khartum and Cairo, and brought to the Khedive the welcome news that the revolts of the slave-traders in Darfur and the Bahr-el-Gazal Provinces have been at length quelled by Gordon's lieutenant, Gessi Pasha. The crushing of this rebellion, however, involved a ten months' campaign with eleven

* They have, in fact, succeeded.—ED. NATION.

thousand men, and has made sad havoc with the Sudan finances, which are now in a worse plight than those of Egypt proper. The estimated receipts in the Sudan were $2,800,000. Scarcely $900,000 have thus far come in, and only the most sanguine hope that $900,000 more may be collected. The yearly expenses in the meantime have been $3,000,000, thus leaving a deficit for this year of $1,200,000 at least. Last year the result was but little better, for, although the deficiency was only $500,000, yet $1,000,000 of Abyssinian war-expenses being charged to the Sudan made a deficit of $1,500,000. Thus in two years the Sudan becomes indebted to Egypt for $2,700,000, or the amount of the average total receipts of the Sudan for one year.

These figures are the more significant if the fact be borne in mind that, when the slave-trade was in full vigor, the money over and above all expenses which was paid yearly into the treasury at Cairo was often not less than $2,500,000; and besides, this surplus was obtained at a time when the Sudan administration did not control one-half of its present extent of territory. Egypt has certainly paid dearly for the suppression of the slave-trade in her dominions, and the sincerity of Ismaïl Pasha's efforts to that end cannot be doubted. By this costly campaign of Gessi Pasha the slave-traffic has been stopped, but whole districts, once cultivated and thriving, have been laid waste, and are now little better than a desert. Villages have been destroyed, and the most enterprising inhabitants killed or driven away by want of food. The remedy has been as bad as the disease, and it is now probable that the larger part of Darfur, together with the Bahr-el-Gazal Province, will be evacuated by the Egyptians and left to their own fate; the cost of the proper administration of those countries being deemed too great for the existing state of Egyptian finances, and the hoped-for profits being too remote. Under these circumstances Gordon Pasha has resigned the Governor-Generalship of the Sudan, and the resignation will go into effect upon his return from Abyssinia in about two months.

Although the Darfur revolts have been put down, their moral effect is likely to be most mischievous. Scarcely had Gordon Pasha arrived in Cairo when an envoy from King John of Abyssinia also arrived, and demanded of the Khedive the restoration to Abyssinia of the port of Massowa and a large tract of fertile territory to the north and northwest of Abyssinia, known as the Bogos country. As King John is doubtless aware, such a demand could not have been made at a more unfortunate moment for Egypt, when there is not a piastre to spare from the treasury, and when the army has just been reduced to eighteen thousand men by order of the Porte. The Khedive informed the Consuls-General of France, Germany, and England of the demands of King John, and requested their advice. The result was that, after consulting their Governments, the Consuls-General of France and England drew up a joint-note forbidding the King of Abyssinia to make war upon Egypt, and Gordon Pasha, bearing this note, left here on the first of September for Abyssinia, where he will endeavor to cause the King to withdraw his inopportune demands. Gordon Pasha's mission is rendered more difficult by the fact that King John has reduced to submission two of his most rebellious chiefs, and has already promised them handsome portions of Egyptian territory. The Egyptian soldiers are, moreover, utterly despised by the mountaineers of Abyssinia, who have already exterminated two Egyptian expeditions, each of about fifteen hundred men, commanded by Europeans, and have driven from their country a third expeditionary force of no less than twenty thousand men provided with Remington breechloaders and batteries of Krupp guns, and accompanied by about thirty European and American officers. King John is said to be confident of obtaining his demands, and does not put much faith in any military interference on the part of England and France. Hence the result of Gordon Pasha's negotiations is looked forward to here with no little anxiety.

Much discontent has been caused here by the persistence of the French Government in forcing the services of M. de Blignières upon the new Khedive. Only a few weeks ago the Khedive said to the correspondent of the London *Times*:

"I am grateful to the Powers for much consideration they have shown me, but they are making a blunder in proposing the return of Mr. Wilson or M. de Blignières. Personally I am friendly with both, but they have been tried once and have failed. They cannot be the only men available. We should annul the past and start afresh. I say this openly now, because I never intrigue. If Europe insists I cannot refuse. I will welcome them as friends cordially, and as Khedive assist them; but I distinctly decline all responsibility for what I consider an unnecessary blunder."

Almost every European resident here holds the same views as the Khedive in this matter, and regrets to see the return of M. de Blignières to the post of French Controller-General, which will inevitably reopen many bitter personal wounds that would otherwise have been forgotten. The English Government had the tact not to send Mr. Rivers Wilson, but Major Baring, for whom the Khedive professed a preference. The French Government, on the other hand, seems to regard the return of M. de Blignières as a point of honor—a view which is not held by any one in Egypt, inasmuch as the deposition of Ismaïl Pasha is deemed an ample reparation for the slight offered to France and England by the dismissal of Messrs. Wilson and de Blignières. In a legal point of view the forcing of M. de Blignières into the position of Controller-General is an insult to Egypt, for by the terms of the decree of November 18, 1876, there is not the slightest doubt but that the choice of the Controllers-General rests solely and exclusively with the Khedive.

THE CATASTROPHE AT KABUL.

LONDON, September 16, 1879.

IN my letters to you on "The Results of the War in Afghanistan" I exposed the hollowness and unreality of the Treaty of Gundamuck and the perilous character of the engagements we had entered into with Yakub Khan. At that time I did not anticipate that retribution would overtake us so speedily as it has done; but during the few weeks that have elapsed since those letters were written the signs of an impending storm have been accumulating in Afghanistan. And so unmistakable had these become that just a week before the murder of Major Cavagnari I warned a leading Liberal politician that he must be prepared to hear of a catastrophe. The Ministry, in its foolish fashion, went on to the very last circulating optimistic accounts of the state of feeling in Afghanistan, as if the hostility could be conjured away by pretending that it did not exist.

The newspapers will have given you all the particulars which are as yet known of the manner in which Major Cavagnari and his comrades perished. I need not, therefore, repeat a story which all your readers will know already. The objects of my present letter will be (1) to delineate the military situation as it is at present, and (2) to attempt to estimate the future consequences of the catastrophe on Great Britain and our Indian Empire.

The first Afghan war was not less remarkable for its folly than for its iniquity; but the authors and advocates of that war had at least one excuse which cannot be pleaded by Lord Lytton: they did not act counter to the teachings of experience. The almost incredible vanity, ignorance, and unteachableness of Lord Lytton caused him to engage in this war in defiance of historic precedents and the warnings of every man of eminence who had acquired a thorough knowledge of the matter. In his despatch giving a history of his policy he says that "carefully-verified facts" had convinced him that all his predecessors in India were mistaken, and that he alone was the wise and discerning statesman who understood Afghanistan and its people. Among these "carefully-verified facts" was the ridiculous hallucination that the Afghans were so wearied of the oppressions and exactions of the late Amir Shir Ali that they would hail our advent in their territories as deliverers and friends; and in his despatch he says that the events of the war proved the anticipation to be correct. This statement is a good example of the romance-writing in which the Government, both at home and in India, sought to hide the actual facts of the war in Afghanistan. So far from being weary of him, the whole country remained loyal and steadfast to Shir Ali up to the day of his death. No rival competitor dared to show himself in the field; no tribe tendered its submission to the English invaders. On the contrary, we were everywhere encountered by unmistakable proofs of dislike. The flanks and rear of our columns were perpetually attacked; our baggage was always in danger of being plundered; neither officer, soldier, nor camp-follower could move beyond the precincts of the camp, except in parties and armed; and we did not hold a rood of territory on which our troops were not actually encamped. In the face of all these proofs of inveterate hostility, Lord Lytton chose to act as if the Afghans were entirely friendly. An undefended British envoy was stationed in Kabul. The Afghans waited until our troops had withdrawn within the new frontier—until the columns had been broken up and the baggage animals scattered—and then they massacred the envoy and his escort and declared war against the infidel.

The difficulty of carrying on military operations in Afghanistan is caused not so much by its physical character as from the want of food. The country is about the size of France, but the entire population is certainly not five millions. Only a small portion of these are agriculturists,

and they obtain from the soil no more than suffices for their own wants. These patches of cultivated land are divided by vast interspaces of stony waste, without inhabitants and productive of nothing on which human beings or animals can subsist. The consequence is that an army entering Afghanistan must carry its provisions. Hence the enormous trains of camels which are needed before a column can advance from its base of supply. But of all animals the camel is the most difficult to keep alive. A camel that is born and bred in a particular district, unless attended to with the greatest care, will sicken and die if he has to live outside of it. Camels that were born and bred on the plains of India dropped and died by the hundred as soon as they were transferred to the bleak highlands of Afghanistan. The official narrative estimates the number of camels which died during our recent raid at 61,000. The result is that the columns lately engaged in Afghanistan are at present almost entirely destitute of carriage, and until this want is supplied an advance on Kabul is impossible. How utterly destitute the troops are of carriage can be divined from the following circumstance : The news of the murder of Major Cavagnari reached Simlah on the 6th of September. Orders were immediately sent to Brigadier Massey, commanding at Ali Kheyl, to take possession of the summit of the Shutar Gardan. But though Ali Kheyl is distant from the summit of the Shutar Gardan only twenty-five miles, this advance was not effected until the 13th. Want of carriage was of course the reason of the delay. But if carriage is so scarce that a small force cannot be moved twenty-five miles, weeks—nay, months—may elapse before an army sufficiently strong to advance upon Kabul is provided with the baggage-animals necessary to enable it to move. These baggage-animals cannot be largely reduced in numbers by limiting the personal baggage of officers and men, because it is food which they have to carry—their own food as well as that of the men and camp-followers. But long trains of camels moving through a difficult country swarming with robbers require strong guards and numerous posts to keep open communications, and these again require to be fed. Thus it is that the preparations which have to be made in order to penetrate to the interior of Afghanistan are out of all proportion to the armed resistance which is to be expected.

But at the present time the transport difficulty is only one of many which have to be overcome before an advance can be made. A considerable time must elapse before a sufficient number of troops can be concentrated for a movement upon Kabul. In the late war the strongest columns of invasion entered Afghanistan, the one under General Stewart from Sukkur on the Indus, through the Bolan Pass, and so on to Kandahar; the other, under General Sir Sam. Browne, marched through the Khybar Pass on Jalalabad. Of these the first reached Kandahar with its transport train completely destroyed, and eight thousand men were immediately withdrawn to India, to rescue the army from starvation. About four thousand men, very scantily supplied with carriage, now hold the long line from Quetta to Kandahar. They cannot be reinforced from India, because the Sinde desert is impassable until the end of October, and also because Sinde has been swept so bare of camels that animals could not be provided for the reinforcements. Consequently, on the Kandahar side no movement in the direction of Kabul is possible. General Stewart will have done all that can be expected of him if, with his small force, he maintains his hold upon Kandahar during the long winter.

The troops under General Sir Sam. Browne, which maintained the line from the Indian side of the Khybar to Jalalabad, suffered grievously during the war from sickness ; and still more heavily when evacuating Afghanistan. Cholera and typhoid fever assailed the column on its march home with such virulence that many of the regiments are still quite unfit for active service. As with General Stewart, the transport train of this column was entirely destroyed from fatigue, exposure, and want of food, and there is hardly the possibility that a force can be organized to advance along this line in sufficient time to obtain possession of the passes between Jalalabad and Kabul before they are made impassable by the winter snow. The only hope, therefore, of a speedy occupation of Kabul depends upon the state of the troops in the Kurram Valley.

The summit of the Shutar Gardan is distant from Kabul only fifty-five miles. But the mountain is eleven thousand feet high, and the descent into the Loghur Valley is very steep and difficult ; indeed, impracticable for artillery. Moreover, the Kurram Valley, Khost, and the Shutar Gardan swarm with tribes bitterly hostile to the English invaders, and an advance to Kabul along this line could not be attempted except in great force. The number of troops reported to be in the Kurram Valley at the present time is 5,500, English and natives. I suspect that this includes native soldiers absent at their homes on furlough; and it is certain that there is a great deal of sickness among the English regiments. Any way, it is a force which would be exposed to much peril if pushed on unsupported to Kabul. Neither from the Khybar nor Kandahar could it look for support or co-operation, and by the beginning of November the winter snows would close its communications with British territory on the further side of the Shutar Gardan. It would have to pass the winter at Kabul, in complete isolation, surrounded by hostile tribes, without magazines, and with no crops upon the ground. It would, in fact, find it impossible to subsist, and fall a victim to famine, if not to the enemy. According to the last news, General Roberts has applied to have this force raised to twelve thousand, and his application, we are informed, has been granted. But it is very doubtful if such a force can be organized in time to advance before the setting in of winter. In the Kurram Valley, as elsewhere, there is a terrible want of camels. It is, besides, the sickliest period of the year in the Punjab. The regiments that might most speedily reinforce General Roberts are prostrated with fever ; and it is my impression that Kabul will not be occupied until the spring. There is nothing to be gained and much to be hazarded by attempting an earlier advance. The tribes are at present fired by religious zeal, and would be likely to offer an obstinate resistance. A British army, having to pass the winter at Kabul, would be exposed to very considerable danger; whereas, if we occupied the winter in getting together supplies and an adequate train of camels, we might next spring take the field in such force as to overawe all resistance and march unopposed upon Kabul.

But the situation is full of peril to our Indian Empire on other accounts than the campaigning difficulties. The unjust and arbitrary manner in which Lord Lytton treated the late Amir Shir Ali is not an exception to the general character of his administration. It has all along been harsh, unjust, and thoroughly unwise. The statesman who, despite all warnings and experience, plunged into this insane war, is not likely to exhibit sound judgment in other matters, and Lord Lytton has succeeded in creating throughout India an irritation and bitterness towards our rule which would speedily pass into acts of overt hostility if any disaster befell us in Afghanistan. The man ought to be recalled ; his capacities are well fitted for making complimentary speeches after dinner, or at the opening of a Fine Arts Exhibition, but for more serious business than this he is unfit. Assuming, however, that no new troubles occur, and that we obtain possession of Kabul without much trouble, what are we to do then ? It is extremely puzzling to find an answer to this enquiry. The ministerial journals are striving desperately to make out a case in favor of a return to the arrangements formulated under the Treaty of Gundamuck ; and this is a good sign, in that it evinces that the Ministry are aware of the insuperable difficulties in the way of annexation. At the same time it is quite impossible to fall back on the Treaty of Gundamuck, because the provisions of that treaty were based upon the assumption that a certain state of things existed in Afghanistan which never has existed there, and is now less likely than ever to exist in the future.

Since 1842 the constant endeavor of each successive Governor-General has been to draw closer the ties of friendship between ourselves and the rulers of Afghanistan. But the peculiar constitution of society in that country has made it impossible to establish intimate diplomatic relations with the ruler. Afghanistan is not the home of a nation, but of a number of tribes ; the Amir is not the ruler of Afghanistan, but of Kabul. His authority over the tribes extends exactly so far as he can enforce it, and no further. Consequently the Amir is nothing more than the chief of a party which the whirligig of fortune brings uppermost for the moment. At any moment his supporters may desert his standard to swell the ranks of a rival, and then his power is at an end. It rests upon force, not upon a national conviction of its legality. This circumstance it was which made Lord Lawrence so sedulous to avoid entanglement in the internal affairs of Afghanistan. He was the friend of the *de-facto* ruler of Kabul, but he steadily resisted all proposals to interfere with the free choice of the Afghans by the interposition of British troops. Until the tribes had, to some extent, coalesced into a single organized kingdom, he felt that his wisest policy was to win their confidence by rigorously abstaining from all encroachment on the wild freedom they so dearly prized. This policy of "masterly inactivity," as it came to be called, produced admirable results, and it was greatly assisted by the circumstance that at this time Afghanistan, under the conduct of two remarkable men —Shir Ali and his father, Dost Mohammed—made considerable progress towards the status of a nation. The internal troubles had given place to quiet and order, and a close alliance existed between Shir Ali and the British Government in India. Nothing was required of us but to afford Shir Ali every assistance in our power towards the completion

of the great work to which he and his father had devoted their lives. At the close of the year 1876 it was in these terms that the Government of India reported upon the rule of Shir Ali :

"Whatever may be the discontent created in Afghanistan by taxation, conscription, and other unpopular measures, *there can be no question that the power of the Amir Shere Ali Khan has been consolidated throughout Afghanistan in a manner unknown since the days of Dost Mohammed, and that the officers entrusted with the administration have shown extraordinary loyalty and devotion to the Amir's cause.* It was probably the knowledge of the Amir's strength that kept the people aloof from Yakub Khan in spite of his popularity. At all events, Herat fell to the Amir without a blow. The rebellion in Lalpoorah, in the extreme west, was soon extinguished. The disturbances in Budukshan, in the north, were speedily suppressed. *Nowhere has intrigue or rebellion been able to make head in the Amir's dominions.* Even the Char Eimak and the Hazara tribes are learning to appreciate the advantages of a firm rule. . . . But what we wish specially to repeat is that, from the date of the Umballa Durbar to the present time *the Amir has unreservedly accepted and acted upon our advice to maintain a peaceful attitude towards his neighbors.* We have no reason to believe that his views have changed."

In their mad pursuit after a "scientific frontier" Lord Salisbury and Lord Lytton destroyed in a month the labors of half a century. They brought Afghanistan back to the state of anarchy from which Shir Ali had succeeded in raising it. They rekindled old hatreds against ourselves, tore open the half-healed wounds we had left behind us when we abandoned the country in 1842, broke down all semblance of stable government ; and it is with this seething chaos that their supporters in the press tell us we can now establish permanent diplomatic relations, precisely as if nothing of all this had occurred. The notion is monstrous, absurd. We cannot establish stable relations with the Afghans, because there is neither a nation nor a central authority with which to establish them. The only alternatives possible are annexation or withdrawal from the country. In my former letters I explained the dangers of annexation, and will not repeat them here. I do not believe that we could retain India for thirty years after the annexation was consummated. There remains, then, withdrawal. It is hardly possible for the present Government to adopt such a policy without abandoning office and leaving to their opponents the task of carrying it into effect. I do not suppose they are likely to execute upon themselves a "happy despatch" of so meritorious character. But there are signs in the air that the nation is not unlikely to take the matter in its own hands, and declare emphatically that it will not submit to be burdened with the costs and incalculable risks of a policy of annexation. We cannot now withdraw from Afghanistan without a grievous loss of reputation; but it is the least of two evils. It ought to be done as a solemn national act, repudiating a policy which had been "sprung" upon the nation, but which it had never sanctioned and never approved.

Correspondence.

DUNKIN'S 'NOTICES OF ASTRONOMERS.'

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In your notice of my little book, 'Obituary Notices of Astronomers,' given on p. 100 of vol. xxix. of the *Nation*, your reviewer, through a slip of the pen, has been very incorrect in his extracts of the number of pages occupied by the principal notices, on which the following sentence is founded : "The space devoted to the several notices shows that harmonious treatment is not attempted, as the importance of the work done by the subject of the memoir bears no relation to the extent of the notice." This sentence would read differently if the following corrections were made :

Sir John Herschel, for 7 pages read 39.
Sir William Herschel, for 39 pages read 30.
Laugier, for 30 pages read 8.
Le Verrier, for 8 pages read 34.
Littrow, for 34 pages read 7.
Main of Oxford, for 7 pages read 24.

In fact, considering that more than one-half of the book is devoted to Delaunay, the two Herschels, Le Verrier, and Main, you will see that "the importance of the work done by the subject of the memoir bears *some* relation to the extent of the notice." Your reviewer will, I am sure, acknowledge this.

I should not have troubled you with this letter if the preceding misprints had not unfortunately crept into your article. I may also add that the book is printed principally for private circulation, only a limited number of copies being offered to the public.

You will oblige me by sending this letter to the writer of the review, who I am sure would be the last to put into print what he knows to be erroneous. I am, sir, yours truly,

Edwin Dunkin.

14 Kidbrooke Park Road, Blackheath, London, Sept. 9, 1879.

[Mr. Dunkin's numbers are correct. Our own were obtained by *differencing* the pages in the table of contents, and are, we regret to say, wrong. But though they were chosen to *illustrate* an inadequate treatment, the notion of inadequacy was not founded on them. We still consider our strictures just.—Ed. Nation.]

THE ANCIENT RECORDS OF YUCATAN.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir: Your issue of the 17th of April last reached my hands only a few days ago. On page 265 I read a few lines signed "A. D.," kindly mentioning Mrs. Le Plongeon and myself. Permit me, through your columns, while thanking the kind writer, in her name and mine, for his appreciation of our labors among the ruined monuments of Yucatan, to answer some of his remarks.

In all my writings on the subject of American archæology, either to the "Congrès des Américanistes" that assembled in Luxembourg in September, 1877, or to the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester, Mass., or to the Biblico-Archæological Society of London, or in my letters to Mr. Stephen Salisbury, jr., or any other friends, I have been most careful not to advance a single theory of my own. I have simply narrated bare facts as presented to my eyes during my study of the ruined monuments, and the recitals contained in the books of the few chroniclers of the time of the Spanish conquest who have written with "connaissance de cause" on Yucatan and its inhabitants. Landa, Cogolludo, Lizana I have found among the best informed, if I have to judge from the ruined monuments and the remnants of ancient customs and traditions still extant among the aborigines.

I rejoice of course to see the few historical treasures discovered by me in Yucatan submitted to an honest and unprejudiced critical analysis, examined in the light of documentary evidence. Truth must spring from the shock of ideas, as sparks from that of hard bodies. But where is that documentary evidence to be found, unless in the study of the bas-reliefs graven on the monuments presented by me to the world in the shape of photographs, or of the mural paintings of Chichen, or in the books *pic-huun* of the ancient H' Menes ? These I would long ago have presented to the world had not my investigations been so arbitrarily interrupted by the unlawful acts of the petty officers of the Mexican Government, who, having robbed me of my scientific treasures, and scattered to the wind the few leaves of the pre-historic American history I was trying to gather to bind, have convinced me that, unless protected by the American Government, it would be even criminal in me to disturb the precious volumes, and exhume them from the hiding places where the wise men of Itsa concealed them, in order to save them from destruction at the hands of the Nahuas fifteen hundred years ago, lest they also should fall victims to the vandalism of the Mexicans.

We can scarcely admit as documentary evidence the writings of the chroniclers of the Spanish conquest as to what concerns the habits and customs of people who lived thousands of years ago, whose country had been invaded and devastated by different races (four of these are plainly discernible among the aborigines of Yucatan), and their modes of living consequently altered. True, some of the customs of these most ancient dwellers of the Yucatecan peninsula had survived the vicissitudes of time, invasions and revolutions. They were yet extant among the inhabitants of Mayapan at the time of the Spanish conquest, but somewhat altered, however. Just as the Chinese of to-day, whose reverence of the memory of their ancestors amounts even now to worship, have preserved the customs, the very dress even, of their progenitors, but somewhat altered, however.

Let "A. D." take my word for it—and by the study of my photographs and the perusal of my correspondence with Mr. S. Salisbury, jr., he will soon become satisfied of the truth of my assertion—that I have not advanced a single hypothesis or theory, but merely related facts, sustained even by the chroniclers. Let him also remember that the world does not possess to-day a single true description, scientific and critical, of the monuments of Yucatan ; and I hope, when I am able to publish my

notes, he will be convinced of that fact. What evidence has, then, the scientific world, in order to pronounce authoritatively on the subject? Nay, more; all the relations and descriptions published up to the present day are incomplete, many untrue, not a few futile, all unscientific, lacking even proper observation.

As to the suggestion to Mr. S. Salisbury, jr., and myself on the importance of gathering MS. relations, official documents, etc., etc., I beg to inform "A. D." that in Yucatan the work of collecting such papers will prove useless. I have attempted it without success. Nay, more; I may assert that such documents have long been used by the grocery clerk to despatch two cents' worth of rice or sugar. A member of the clergy, Presbyter Don Crecencio Carillo, of Ancona, a dear friend of ours, the founder of the "Museo Yucateco," has dedicated himself since many years back to the gathering of all papers, documents, MSS., relating to the past history of Yucatan. An able and fluent writer, he has published, at his own expense (he is not rich), all he could find concerning the history of the land of his ancestors. He has spared neither time, money, nor patience to secure every obtainable scrap that could throw light on the subject of his earnest enquiries. He may tell "A. D." about the results of his untiring work. Yet, if anybody was in a position to obtain such documents, Don Crecencio Carillo was the man. A member of the clergy, at one time a favorite—in fact, the confessor—of the ill-fated Empress Carlotta, he has had access to the libraries, private and public, of the state, those of the bishop's palace, of the churches, of the religious corporations; many of those of private individuals are open to him. Above all, he is a Yucatecan. Very meagre indeed has been his harvest.

The reasons assigned for this absolute lack of ancient documents and MSS. are:

1. The destruction of the Franciscan Convent of Merida and its contents, library, furniture, and all, by the mob headed by Don Juan Rivas Ortiz, then political chief of Merida, of the 30th of May, 1820. When the new constitution obtained by the patriots in Spain reached the colonies, books, papers, archives, documents, MSS, were scattered in all directions, as well as the three hundred friars inmates of the convent.

2. The complete devastation of most of the cities of Yucatan, their churches, convents, public edifices, with their archives, political, civil, and religious, by the half-savage and infuriated Indian population, at the time of its uprising in 1847.

3. Whatever paper, book, document, or MS. escaped the vandalistic fury of the mob in 1820, and the revengeful wrath of the Indians in 1847, has been used by the revolutionary rabble and soldiery during the many civil strifes which have devastated the State of Yucatan, since 1820 to the present day, either to wrap their powder in and make cartridges or to kindle their bivouac fires.

The hunt for such documentary evidence in Yucatan is, therefore, and must remain, useless. The only thing that remains in order to obtain a perfect knowledge of the habits, customs, and attainments of the people who dwelt in ages gone by on this continent is to disinter the libraries of their wise men. That I am at present most unwilling to do. I do not wish to lend my hand to help in their destruction. Let them remain in safety where they were deposited by their owners and authors until the American Government, answering to my claims presented by the Hon. Geo. F. Hoar, Senator for Massachusetts, to the consideration of the Senate, on the 7th of May, 1876, protects me and the books from the arbitrariness of the Mexican Government and its minions.

I remain, Mr. Editor, yours very respectfully,

AUGUSTUS LE PLONGEON, M.D.

COLONY OF BRITISH HONDURAS, BELIZE, Sept. 2, 1879.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & CO. have in press 'The Mound-Builders,' to which is added an investigation into the archæology of Butler County, Ohio, by J. P. MacLean. The book will be copiously illustrated. They also announce a practical treatise on 'Etching,' by Louisa M. McLaughlin; 'Insect Lives,' by Julia O. Ballard; and the life of a Catholic Missionary to this country in the first quarter of the present century, the Rev. Charles Nerinckx.——A. S. Barnes & Co. issue immediately 'Ancient and Mediæval Republics,' with a review of the causes of their decline and fall, by Henry Mann.——Porter & Coates announce the 'Posthumous Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1773–1815.'——Macmillan & Co.'s 'Poems of Wordsworth,' selected by Matthew Arnold, whose preface we lately remarked upon, on occasion of its separate appearance in a magazine, is a volume having all the beauty of the Golden Treasury Series in addition to the unimpeachable excellence of the editing. It is divided, by an arrangement not strictly progressive, into Poems of Ballad Form, Narrative Poems, Lyrical Poems; Poems akin to the Antique, and Odes; Sonnets; Reflective and Elegiac Poems.——'American Poems: Longfellow, Whittier, Bryant, Holmes, Lowell, Emerson, with Biographical Sketches and Notes,' is a small volume of 455 pages just issued by Houghton, Osgood & Co. It was prepared "with special reference to the interests of young people, both at school and at home," and well enough serves such indefinite purpose. No young person will, however, it should be said, get a just idea of any of the poets represented from its pages alone, since but a few of the poems of each are given, and these are selected not because they are specially characteristic, but on account of their length. Its aim is to supplement the many reading-books and popular collections in which only the shorter poems appear.——G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their 'School and College Classics' a compact and convenient edition (16mo, pp. 347) of Bacon's 'Essays,' with an introduction and notes by Henry Lewis, M.A., Principal of Culham College, England. The character of the introduction may be judged from this sentence: "No reader of Bacon's *Essays* would ever infer from them that he was a *good* man, but they bespeak a *shrewd* and *clever* man"; and of the notes from the following to the Essay of "Marriage and Single Life": "History, both national and domestic, records numberless instances in which wives and children have been the very opposite to *impediments*."——'Taghconic: the Romance and Beauty of the Hills,' by Godfrey Greylock, recently published by Lee & Shepard, is a somewhat desultory but sympathetic collection of the anecdotes and traditions in which Berkshire County, Mass., is particularly rich. It appears to be a venture of a literary aspirant in whom the "romance and beauty" of nature excite a desire to express the emotions which they stimulate, though it is far from a pretentious piece of book-making and is not without interest for persons who know Berkshire.——'A Sketch of Shakespeare' (Wheeling: Stanton & Davenport; Boston: A. S. Williams & Co.) is the substance of three addresses delivered by William Leighton, who has published several volumes of poems, to the Wheeling Shakspere Club. The author asks that "enthusiasm in his subject be permitted to stand, in some degree, as an excuse for the book," which is modest, but not unreasonably modest.——On p. 645 of the October number of the *American Naturalist* will be found an account of the latest Boston notion in regard to science-teaching in the public schools. Wealthy ladies furnished the funds, the Institute of Technology a hall, the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy hundreds of duplicate specimens, hotels "such parts of birds as were needed to illustrate one lecture," and as a consequence the audience of teachers have carried away with them or otherwise been supplied with seventy-five thousand specimens of minerals, rocks, plants, and animals, since 1871.——A German translation of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' by Frank Siller (Milwaukee, 1879), may be recommended to American students of the German language as a very faithful and perfectly smooth version of the original poem.——Part VII. of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' (B. Westermann & Co.) begins the history of Peter the Great, by Dr. Brückner, and brings it down to the year 1716. Four interesting historical portraits accompany the text. The nearly simultaneous appearance of the first part of Mr. Eugene Schuyler's life of the same ruler (in *Scribner's* for November) should not be overlooked.——Fresh English announcements are the 'Memoirs of Mme. de Rémusat' (1802–1808), by her grandson, Paul; the 'Life and Writings of Henry Thomas Buckle,' by Alfred Henry Huth; 'Witchcraft in Queen Elizabeth's Time in general, and in Shakspere's Plays in particular,' by T. Alfred Spalding; 'Jesus of Nazareth,' by Edward Clodd; 'Up the Amazon and Madeira Rivers,' by Edward D. Mathews; 'Up and Down,' by Capt. W. J. Barry, being personal experiences in Australia, New Zealand, California, the East Indies, etc.; and 'Branches from the Main Routes around the World,' by James Kingston.——The *Sanitary Engineer* of this city is about to offer prizes amounting to $500 in all for the best plans of a model school-house. Their competition for tenement-house plans has had a wholesome effect upon legislation, and is leading to practical results in the shape of building associations.

—The completion of 'The American Catalogue' deserves more than the passing notice which we gave it last week. Previous attempts at trade-lists of American literature have not been very successful. Roorbach's unsatisfactory volumes (1820–68) no doubt cost their compiler a certain amount of labor and were useful to the booksellers, but for literary and library purposes were provokingly, exasperatingly insufficient. Their omissions, their mistakes, their at best meagre information would excite the contempt of a German bookseller. The poverty of plan was

matched by slovenliness of execution. Kelly's two volumes (1861–71) were an improvement, yet left much to be desired. In this branch of bibliography we were worse off than the Germans of course, than the French, than the Dutch; worse off even than the English, which is saying much. But our reputation is now in part retrieved. We have not yet a bibliographical list of American literature that will compare with Kayser and Heinsius. And, in truth, the impression forced upon one in turning over these pages is that the greater part of American books do not deserve bibliographical description. But although we have not all that we could desire, we have a list, probably nearly complete, of books in print and for sale July 1, 1876, prepared with great trouble, and with as much fulness and exactitude as could be expected. That it is not better is not the fault of the compilers but of the American publishers, who are notoriously indifferent to the books they issue, except as articles of merchandise. This carelessness of publishers and neglect to reply to the circulars sent to them by the compilers has led to one of the serious defects of the book—the failure in many instances to give the date of publication. For all books issued too late to be found in Allibone, where is one to look for the time of original appearance—often a question of considerable interest in literary, scientific, and historical investigations? The compilers have not depended solely on the publishers, but have searched catalogues of libraries and other sources with a result, on the whole, satisfactory, both as to this and other matters of detail, and, so far as we have had the opportunity of testing the work by use, it has seemed to be printed with unusual accuracy. Yet, with commendable honesty, in each part a list of errata is given and a request to readers for more.

—A correspondent writes us from Boston under date of Sept. 22:

"'A.,' in last week's *Nation*, says you are 'very incorrect' in saying that the orderly sergeant does all the official work in the company, except certain official signatures and posturings. I was an enlisted man in the Army from 1857 to 1865. I knew of the company-writing in dozens of companies in the cavalry, infantry, and artillery. I wrote in the company, in the medical, the adjutant's, the commissary, and the quartermaster's departments. 'A.' says an officer keeps his own accounts. I never knew of an officer's doing it, and I never knew of an account's coming back. The officer only signs his name. This work is all done by enlisted men."

—In the *Athenæum* of September 13 Mr. Edward Scott prints a letter which he discovered while cataloguing the papers of Sir Edward Nicholas, Secretary of State to Charles I. and Charles II., and which, he considers, throws some light upon Milton's divorce from his first wife, Mary Powell. She was the daughter of a Royalist, Richard Powell, and married Milton in the spring of 1643 at Forest Hill, near Oxford; Charles was at Oxford during the whole of this year; and within three months after his marriage Milton divorced his wife. These circumstances, taken in connection with the letter, in which one William Garret sets forth that he "did often send Inteligence to your Honour at Oxon by the hands of Mr. Richard Powell," who, it is stated in a postscript, "lived at Forest-Hill neare Oxoñ," induce Mr. Scott to believe the Royalists at Oxford gained information of the Puritan movements through the brothers of Mary Powell, the new wife playing the spy, as she could have done to good purpose in so important a household as Milton's—whence the divorce. Mr. Scott also found an original draft of an answer in Secretary Nicholas's hand to Garret's letter, certifying to Garret's diligence and faithfulness "by giving frequent and good intelligence through my hands whilst his Majesty was at Oxford of the then Rebells movements and other matters." In the light of his surmise Mr. Scott has looked up passages in the 'Samson Agonistes,' from which he quotes at lines 382, 488, and 773 to show that blindness, abstemiousness, marriage with an enemy's daughter, etc., were not the only resemblances between Milton and his hero, and that to these should be added the betrayal of his secrets by his wife. The conjecture is certainly reasonable enough, though, beyond mere circumstantiality, the most that is to be said in its favor is perhaps that nothing is to be said against it.

—The *Catholic World* has long been noteworthy for the literary excellence it displays in circumstances often peculiarly trying. Its task has sometimes seemed similar to that of the Laputan scientist who sought sunbeams in cucumbers; but it has pursued it with a spirit of devotion and calm acquiescence in the dearth of temporary applause in a high degree admirable, and commendable to the imitation of heated and frivolous controversialists. Its view of literature is not wholly unlike the view of science taken in the recent Encyclical of His Holiness. Catholic literature does not indeed stop with St. Thomas Aquinas, as Catholic science is admonished to do in that document, but of other than Catholic literature the reviewers of the *Catholic World* have generally held the same opinion as that held of modern atheistical science by the Holy Father—an opinion expressed almost invariably in excellent English, though at times, it has seemed, with needless ferocity. Violence is, however, natural when one has to maintain a difficult position, and there have been evidences that the position which assumes distinctly Protestant and Anglo-Saxon literature to be of trivial import has at times seemed difficult to the *Catholic World*. The cordiality with which it welcomed Mr. Mallock, and the admiration with which it regards St. George Mivart, are evidences that it is glad not to be entirely shut up to the general run of contemporary Celtic and Catholic literature, varied now and then by Mr. Aubrey De Vere's verses. The best course is, however, often the boldest, and taking the bull by the horns is often the safest way of dealing with him. This is what has been done by a writer in the October number, who proclaims "The Need of a New Dunciad," and formulates the creed of the magazine with frank precision. "Whatever power, beauty, or strength the English language has," he thinks, "it owes in the main to the Latin element, as modified through the Norman-French." All the oratory and poetry of the language "belong to Erin and Caledonia." The Anglo-Saxon intellect is "slow, cautious, and prosaic," and its literary style is "a heavy and labored attempt to make its meaning clear." To Anglo-Saxons also are to be attributed "all the blunders in the use of figures cited in the school-books." "Shakspere himself," it is added, is not free from this Anglo-Saxon habit of making "false and absurd metaphors." No mention is made of the forgeries known as Sir Boyle Roche's speeches, but we are assured that "the most charming social and literary essays, *vers de société*, and the choicest *belles-letters* in our unmanageable tongue are the productions of Irishmen." In fine, we infer that if it were not for the Anglo-Saxon element in our literature, it would rival that of the golden age of Erin, when, in the words of an eloquent Celt, "Ireland was full of kings who ate off tables of gold and had libraries filled with thousands and thousands of volumes of the most beautiful poetry." It is possibly towards a renaissance of this era that the *Catholic World* labors so cleverly and consistently.

—A French critic, Arvède Barine, has been comparing the English and the American schools of fiction, and the result is not altogether favorable for either. In the first the critic finds, with a very few brilliant exceptions, fecundity and mediocrity; in the second, fervor, audacity, and a grain of poetry, qualities which might win a victory for the Americans were it not for one unpardonable defect—want of taste. He then analyses, as typical examples, Trollope's 'Eye for an Eye' and 'The Modern Mephistopheles.' The American romance (which, it is well to add, belongs to the "No Name Series") is highly praised, even for the tact with which some of the most famous scenes of the German poet are imitated, yet this fatal want of taste is declared to be, as it were, the trade-mark of an American romance. The phrase "a passionate perfume" and Gladys' taking hashish are the only instances given.

—M. Jules Simon and his associates in his opposition to the Ferry law restricting the liberty of teaching have received a weighty accession in the person of M. Littré, the veteran lexicographer and Comtist. In an article in a recent number of the *Philosophie positive* M. Littré defines what he calls "le catholicisme selon le suffrage universel," and which we may translate as Catholicism subdued (or attempered, or accommodated) to universal suffrage. The peculiar characteristic of this body, which he appears to regard as the *gros* or mass of the French population, is that while sincerely observant of all the church requirements as to attendance on preaching, the confessional, communion, the marriage sacrament, extreme unction, etc., when it comes to vote for deputies, counsellors-general, and municipal officers it is completely indifferent to the religious professions of its candidates, and is concerned only about their political opinions, its chief care being respect for the essential conditions of modern society as the Revolution established them. Hence, on the other hand, it votes to exclude from office everything clerical, ultramontane, or jesuitical—or, in other words, the avowed and implacable enemies of lay government. This qualified Catholicism has two sorts of foes, the Radicals and the Clericals. Against the Radicals, who would have no Catholics, its security is guaranteed by the Concordat, which the present Republican Government has inherited, and which it will be slow to terminate at the bidding of those who wish to suppress the budget of public worship, thereby seeming to declare war on the faith. As for the Clericals, they would, like the Radicals, if they could, use the temporal authority to crush what they deem a seditious revolt, not less hateful than Gallicanism; but perforce resort to spiritual weapons, relying especially on education to change the mind of the masses, and render them submissive to

the Syllabus. Should they succeed, the votes of the Catholics "selon le suffrage universel" would presently raise into power men profoundly hostile to Republican institutions, and ready to precipitate another 16th of May with increasing chances of success. This great danger requires the utmost vigilance on the part of the Government, and it can be met in one of two ways, viz., prevention or repression: by interdicting such and such associations, such and such modes of instruction, or by interference only when necessary, with a general reliance "for the defence of the dearest national interests on the lay institutions in their totality, vigorously sustained and developed."

—Of this latter policy M. Littré declares himself an adherent, and he justifies his position by prudential considerations, as that the Jesuits, if persecuted for teaching the doctrines of the Syllabus, which are held by a multitude in France and out of it, would find secret modes of propagandism which would quite compensate them for having their schools closed and teachers dismissed. He also argues frankly in favor of according toleration to those who do not tolerate, liberty to those who deny it to others, free permission to teach to those who "falsify history, disfigure morality, and pervert politics," opportunity to create in the midst of the nation a hostile nation bent on ruining the lay establishment, just as the monarchical parties are seeking to overthrow the present régime. Still, he would not *laisser faire, laisser passer* simply. He would have "the defensive organized with vigor, and perseveringly followed up." The programme of perfect equality for all beliefs in the eyes of the Government will in the long run, if faithfully carried out, be a persuasive advocate in the forum of individual opinion. Meantime, the moral forces of modern society will be more than a match for those of its opponents, and will have on their side the University, improved by competition, and free to teach all branches of knowledge independently of any prejudice or dogma. Once M. Littré agreed with Comte in desiring the abolition of the University; now he considers that time has proved both him and his master in the wrong. The measures immediately demanded are that the state should have restored to it the conferring of degrees, and should refuse henceforth to accept *lettres d'obédience* as equivalent to the examinations which lay teachers, male and female, undergo; and that, under one form or another, private courses should be authorized. Regarding the contest philosophically, M. Littré concludes that the creeds will gain but little upon each other, but that notable gains will be made by lay government upon theological government, the former everywhere approaching a uniform type, in which the social régime will be subject to sociological laws, studied, applied, and utilized in the same manner as natural laws.

—Few poets are more interesting as regards personal character than was Heine; and though his life was not eventful, it fell in such times and places that whatever observations he may have made could not fail to be agreeable reading. In his collected works are snatches of autobiography (as the famous passage in which he describes, in his boyhood, seeing Bonaparte ride up the Schloss-Allée at Düsseldorf); but, charming as these are, they are tantalizing from their brevity. It now appears that he wrote voluminous memoirs, which are supposed to be still in existence, but where and in whose custody is a matter of dispute. A person who calls himself "Ein Eingeweihte" writes to the *Deutsches Montagsblatt* that two volumes of the memoirs, covering the years 1800–1836, are kept under lock and key in the archives of the Finance Ministry in Vienna, and gives a curious account of how they came there. The poet had a brother named Gustav, who was a journalist of none too respectable a character apparently, in Vienna, where he throve both pecuniarily and otherwise. In 1852 Gustav Heine visited his brother in Paris, finding him, as usual, in great need of money. As security for a loan of 5,000 francs, Heinrich offered him the MS. of the memoirs, which thus changed hands and reached the Austrian capital, where Gustav was now editor of a semi-official paper, which he to this day controls. For reasons unknown, however, he did not care to keep the papers in his own possession, and therefore conveyed them to the Government, receiving in exchange the sum originally advanced. Soon after this he was made a baron. The discussion thus started by "Ein Eingeweihte" is taken up by Heine's friend, Alfred Meissner, who says Heine one day showed him a great pile of MS. which he said was his memoirs, to the writing of which he had given several years. Mr. Meissner, however, has strong doubts of the memoirs being in the possession of the Austrian Government, for why, he asks, should the Austrian officials think it worth while to buy the autobiography of a man of letters, in which Austria was perhaps not once mentioned? The answer to this argument is that Baron Heine had reason to wish his brother's memoirs out of the way, as well as to get back his money. Yet, as he held the MS. only as security for the payment of a debt, he could not sell it, much less destroy it, and so hit upon the plan of burying it, so to say, alive. The Government, on the other hand, presumably had grounds for wishing to please Baron Heine.

—Those who are interested in the famous mediæval romance of 'The Seven Wise Masters' will be glad to learn that the Syriac version has at last been published under the title, 'Sindban, oder die Sieben Weisen Meister' (Leipzig, 1879). The work contains also a German translation and introduction. Heretofore the oldest Oriental version of 'The Seven Wise Masters' has been the Greek 'Syntipas,' which the author, Andreopolus, says in his prologue he translated from the Syriac. The existence of the latter was doubted until it was made known by Rödiger in 1866. This work, now accessible in Baethgen's edition, is undoubtedly the original of the Greek translation. The Syriac MS. is unfortunately defective; in the body of the work the story known as "Balneator" is wanting, and the last three stories are lacking. The Syriac version in turn is only a translation from the Arabic, and its original is probably also the original of the interesting Spanish version, 'Libro de los Enganos de las Mugeres,' published by Comparetti in his 'Ricerche intorno al libro di Sindibâd' (Milan, 1869). As to the age of the Syriac version, it can only be said that it is of course older than 'Syntipas,' which Comparetti in the work just mentioned has shown was composed at the end of the eleventh century. As long as the Arabic version or Sanskrit original is not found, the Syriac version is, as the editor remarks, the oldest evidence of the Buddhistic work, which, according to Benfey in the introduction to his translation of the Pantchatantra, is, with Kalila and Dimna, of the greatest importance for the history of culture, and stands at the head of an extremely extensive and influential literary cycle.

—There are few more interesting questions in historical geography than the steps by which the petty states into which the Duchy of Lower Lotharingia was split drew together again, by their natural affinity, disjoined themselves by degrees from the German Empire and (in union with some cognate French states) formed themselves into "the Netherlands." The Duchy of Burgundy, built up chiefly by Philip the Good and Charles the Bold, was the principal agent in the work. The process was, however, going on before this, and an important stage in it has just been brought to light by Prof. Fredericq, of Ghent, in a paper entitled "Le Renouvellement en 1578 du Traité d'Alliance conclu à l'époque de Jacques Van Artevelde entre la Flandre et le Brabant," presented last November to the Brussels Société pour le Progrès des Études philosophiques et historiques. The title of the paper sufficiently shows its scope: the treaty concluded in 1339 under the inspiration of James Van Artevelde (Hainault soon acceded to it) created "a sort of confederation, which was the first germ of the Netherlands, such as the Dukes of Burgundy and Charles V. organized them afterwards." Thus Van Artevelde not merely established the liberty of his native Flanders, but was chiefly instrumental in bringing her from the union with France into the more congenial fellowship of the Lotharingian states. This alliance did not long survive its founder; but, as is shown by Prof. Fredericq, its memory was revived and it was made the basis of new action in the time of William of Orange.

THE RUSSIAN ARMIES IN TURKEY.*

ON the outbreak of the late Russo-Turkish war Lieutenant Greene was assigned by the War Department at Washington as military attaché to the Legation in St. Petersburg, for the purpose of observing the operations in the field from the Russian side. He proceeded without delay to St. Petersburg, readily obtained the Czar's permission to join the army on the Danube, reached the Imperial headquarters on August 5, 1877, and remained with the army throughout the campaign, and until peace was definitively assured by the Berlin treaties of July, 1878. He then returned to his post at the legation in St. Petersburg, where he collected and digested the official war reports, as well as the data for a study of the military system of Russia. The book before us is a reprint of his official report to the War Department. "This report aims to give, first, a concise but accurate description of the Russian Army; second, a narrative of the course of the campaigns in Europe and Asia Minor; and, third, a brief discussion of the use of temporary field fortifications in connection with the modern breech-loading musket." Of the four parts into which the work is thus naturally divided, the first (pp. 3–136) is a literal compilation (with brief résumés) from Russian official books on the

* 'The Russian Army and its Campaigns in Turkey in 1877–1878. By F. V. Greene, First Lieutenant in the Corps of Engineers, United States Army, and lately Military Attaché to the United States Legation at St. Petersburg.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879. Text, 8vo, pp. xii. and 459; atlas, plates 26.

recruiting, organization, armament, administration, and tactics of the army; the third (pp. 377–418), a short sketch of the campaign in Armenia, based on no personal observation by the author; and the fourth (pp. 421–455), on the defence and attack of fortified positions, interesting only to specialists; the second part (pp. 139–374), on the campaign in Bulgaria, forms the main portion of the whole, the most valuable to the general public as it is the most extensive and interesting. It is this part alone which we will here consider.

Lieutenant Greene's opportunities for observation and study were ample. "The Russian authorities extended to all the foreign officers who came properly accredited to them . . . the most complete facilities for observing the course of events as they actually transpired." They were granted full permission to join whatever troops they chose, and to pass from one detachment to another. Lieutenant Greene, whose sympathies, like those of a large majority of his countrymen, were known to be on the side of Russia, while with the troops at the front usually received copies of the field-orders for every movement, and, after the issue, more than once obtained oral communications from the leading commanders which shed light on the reports for publication. Having arrived at headquarters after the first two defeats before Plevna (in the latter half of July) and the failure of Gourko's first expedition beyond the Balkans, he was personally present, August 23 and 24, in the battles of Shipka, where Suleiman Pasha recklessly threw away the chance of forcing the retreat of the demoralized enemy beyond the Danube; witnessed, September 11, the most terrible repulse of the Russians by Osman Pasha—their loss in those days exceeding eighteen thousand, according to their own reports; rode along the line of the Tzesarevitch's outposts and positions between the Lom and Yantra in October; passed the Balkans with Gourko's column during the winter, witnessing the battle of Tashkessen on the last day of 1877, and the fights near Philippopolis, January 15–17, which forced the bulk of Suleiman's army, under Fuad Pasha, to disperse and seek safety in the Rhodope Mountains; and then joined General Skobeleff, who had just decided the fate of the Turkish army at Shipka, and now commanded the advance guard, which in February arrived in front of Constantinople. Lieutenant Greene saw thus a great deal with his own eyes, and his personal experiences must have been varied and often highly interesting. These, however, he entirely passes over in silence, nor does he in the least indulge in pictorial descriptions of marches, assaults, or combats; of landscapes smiling in peace or hideous with thousands of mangled corpses; or of princely cantonments radiant with victory or dismayed by unexpected defeat. All these he has left to the Forbeses and MacGahans, and the other independent "Froudes and Macaulays" of the campaign; *his* account is an exclusively *military report*, the account of a military man addressed to his superior, on military movements and nothing else. In spite of this strict limitation, however, the narrative is highly interesting not only to those who study war as an art, but to all to whom the study of contemporary history is more than a pastime and worthy of serious application. Its attractiveness for this wider circle of readers it owes chiefly to its plain and good style, its lucidity of statement, and the clearness and fulness of the maps which accompany it.

To his narrowly limited programme the author adheres with the utmost—we must say, with excessive—strictness. He writes only on the army and war before him. The preceding history, the conditions and comparative resources of the warring empires, are not touched upon. We are not told why and how the war arose; the Herzegovinian insurrection of 1875, the Servian and Montenegrin wars of 1876, the dethronements in Constantinople in the same year, the diplomatic negotiations during these events, are totally ignored. More than that, the Montenegrin war of 1877, which so distracted Turkey during the whole course of the Bulgarian campaign, the simultaneous threatenings and disturbances on the Greek border, and even the new Servian campaign which opened on the fall of Plevna, and was actively continued to the time of the Russian armistice, are equally passed over in complete silence, barring a mere mention of Servia's declaration of war, and the statement that Suleiman came with his troops from Montenegro. The name Herzegovina does not occur in the whole book. The narrative is restricted to active operations, and chiefly tactical manœuvres; marches are only exceptionally described, and hardly anything is said about the Russian headquarters, camp arrangements, the commissariat, the engineering department, the quality of the regular supplies, the hospitals, the morale of the officers and men (apart from bravery and endurance), or the expenses of the campaign. Corruption in the army, as a source of delays, sufferings, and failures, is not alluded to. Nor are Russians, Turks, Rumanians, and Bulgarians contrasted with each other as soldiers or otherwise. The battling Russian army alone is considered. Its movements in important actions are most minutely described, and its courage, steadiness, and achievements heartily applauded. The omissions are generally to the prejudice of the Turk, but not designedly so, the Turk being only an indirect subject of the book. What also redounds to the prejudice of Russia's enemy is that the author has based his narrative mainly on Russian accounts, and "placed full reliance upon all the official reports"; only in a "few rare cases . . . the statement of relative losses seemed exaggerated." His pro-Russian bias, so natural under the circumstances, is most clearly betrayed in parallels drawn (pp. 367, 368) between the Bulgarian campaign and other late wars, where he declares that, "after all criticism has been made upon the faults of the Russians at the beginning of the war and around Plevna, still the campaign as a whole must be judged to be the equal in brilliancy and the solidity of its results of any in recent history," not excluding "the Franco-German war of 1870—the military marvel of modern times." Notwithstanding this bias, Lieutenant Greene evinces both candor and independence, and a modestly cautious judgment. In what vein he exercises his independence of judgment in regard to the high personages with whom he lately associated, may be seen from the following interesting fragment of the retrospect upon the disastrous repulse before Plevna, Sept. 11, 12:

"1. There was a certain lack of unity in the command of the army.

"The troops assembled at Plevna were under the command of Prince Charles of Roumania, as already stated; but this command was to a certain extent nominal, and the dispositions previous to the battle depended largely upon Lieutenant-General Zotof, who had commanded the troops before Prince Charles's arrival, and who was now his chief-of-staff. General Zotof was unfortunately not a general of the calibre to command eighty thousand men, but, even had he been a military genius of the first order, it would have been very difficult for him to gain a victory in the circumstances in which he was placed; for, a few days before the movement on Plevna began, the assistant-chief of the general staff, Major-General Levitsky, arrived at Poradim to explain to General Zotof the wishes of the Commander-in-Chief [the Grand Duke Nicholas]. On the day that the bombardment began the Commander-in-Chief arrived in person, and with him his chief of staff, General Nepokoitchitsky. He, of course, confirmed the dispositions already taken, but from this time forward he commanded. Although he rode over the field as far as possible, and even exposed himself imprudently to the enemy's pickets, yet it was impossible for him to be properly familiar with the ground before the assaults were made; so that while he commanded he had to rely upon the information and opinions of others rather than upon his own judgment. Finally, the Emperor was present, with the Minister of War and a large suite. The Emperor came merely as a spectator, to encourage his troops by his presence, and in the hope of witnessing their victory. But the Emperor of Russia is regarded by every Russian soldier, from the highest to the lowest grade, with a feeling which it is difficult to explain in other countries; *at all times* his will is law and his wish a command, and it is not possible for him to be a mere spectator. . . .

"The subject is a somewhat delicate one, and I have no wish to pursue it beyond a statement of the bare facts which were evident to every one present at headquarters who chose to see them. . . ."

The second reason of defeat was the Russian ignorance of the locality; "even the existence of the great Krishan redoubt, the key-point on the south, was not known" till the very beginning of the attack. The plan of battle, the product of divided and ill-informed authority, was thus a general idea of attacking on all sides, and "the Russians were defeated at Plevna, not because the position was impregnable, not because they did not have sufficient forces, but because they were ignorant of the enemy's position, and failed to concentrate their efforts upon the decisive points." Similar reasons are assigned, though only as current recriminations, for the equally disastrous failure of the previous attack on Osman in Plevna, at the end of July: "Shakovskoi [*sic* for Shakhovskoi] complained that Krüdener had not supported him, while Krüdener complained that Shakovskoi had not obeyed his orders. . . . Krüdener was the senior officer present, but Shakovskoi was also a corps commander, though he had only one brigade of his corps with him. Finally, the Grand Duke had given orders from a distance to attack a position of which he knew nothing." As to the first assault on Plevna, under Schilder-Schuldner, July 20, Lieutenant Greene is much more outspoken: "The almost criminal faults of this battle on the part of the Russian commander are so apparent that they hardly need to be pointed out." What, in spite of all these well-deserved failures, makes "the campaign as a whole" appear to our author so exceedingly brilliant is chiefly the double passage of the Balkans in the midst of winter, under Gourko in the west and Skobeleff and Mirski, of Radetzky's army, in the east, resulting successively in the dislodgment of the Turkish forces from the mountains before Sophia, the surrounding and capture of the Shipka army of thirty thousand men (Jan. 9), and the dispersion of Suleiman's near Philippopolis.

This vigorous advance he attributes to the influence of the Grand Duke against the counsels of Todleben, to whom again he gives all the credit for the plans which had brought about the fall of Plevna (Dec. 10). The insignificant operations of the Tzesarevitch on the line of the Lom he judges too favorably, considering them as originally designed to be purely defensive ; but this was hardly the case, as the repeated feeble attempts against Rustchuk show, which our author entirely ignores. Nor was Zimmermann's inactivity in the Dobrudja the result of design rather than of the paralysis with which the first disasters before Plevna struck all the operations of the invaders, and which lasted until the time when their forces, inadequate at the beginning, were by immense reinforcements made overwhelmingly superior to those of the enemy.

The plan of the work, as above stated, spares its readers the infliction of ghastly pictures of war horrors. Some of its plain statements, however, tell horrible tales : On Dec. 25, the 24th Russian division "had 6,013 men unfit for duty from frost-bites and sickness brought on by the terrible exposure." "At San Stefano, in the following May, . . . at one time 50,000, 45 per cent. of the whole force stationed thereabout, were in the hospitals." On Jan. 19 Skobeleff's men attacked an immense train of fugitives from the upper Maritza Valley—"over 20,000 wagons, containing 200,000 people"—escorted by several battalions of infantry. After a sharp fight the escort fled toward the mountains, "followed by the able-bodied portion of the immense caravan, who left the old, the sick, and the babes to perish in the snow. The train was so many miles in length that the Russians could not guard it, and the greater part of it was plundered by the Bulgarians of the neighboring villages, who also massacred the helpless Turks who had not strength enough to flee to the mountains."

FECHNER'S SECOND SOUL.*

NO one, with the exception of Helmholtz, has done more than Professor Fechner, of Leipzig, to put experimental psychology on a firm basis, and to raise it to the dignity of a true science. His epoch-making work on 'Psychophysik' is now indispensable to every student of modern philosophy, partly for its valuable researches on subjective sensations, and partly on account of the detailed examination in it of the so-called psychophysical law which expresses the relations between sensations and their objective causes, and, within certain limits, measures the intensity of the former by means of the latter ; thus refuting the notion of Kant, that psychology could never become an exact science because of not being subject to mathematical measurement. Professor Fechner has also made useful contributions to our knowledge of galvanism and the atomic theory, and three years ago he published his valuable 'Vorschule der Aesthetik,' in two volumes. Under the pseudonym of Dr. Mises he has issued a series of humorous and sarcastic essays, one of the objects of his sarcasm being Hegelism, which he correctly defines as "the art of unlearning how to form correct judgments."

Those, however, who would judge of the Leipzig professor by his scientific and literary work alone would be guilty of a serious oversight. Fechner, like Faust, though in a somewhat different sense, might say of himself :

> "Zwei Seelen wohnen, ach ! in meiner Brust,
> Die eine will sich von der andern trennen."

Of these two souls which struggle for the possession of him, one is responsible for his scientific work, while the second is identical with what Schopenhauer describes as the metaphysical instinct. This instinct has often led him to mount the philosophical Pegasus and soar away into regions where no telescope or other scientific instrument could follow him. He has written a book on the comparative anatomy of angels, and another on the souls of plants. He endeavors to make out that every diamond, every crystal, every plant, planet, and star, has its own individual soul, besides man and animals ; that there is a hierarchy of souls from the lowest forms of matter up to the world-soul—a sort of eclectic, semi-pantheistic nondescript ; and that the spirits of the departed hold psychic communication with souls that are still connected with a human frame—a point to which we may return on another occasion. What concerns us here is that in his last work, which he calls 'Die Tagesansicht gegenüber der Nachtansicht' (The Day-view versus the Night-view) he defends the crudest sort of absolute realism, which we had fondly hoped the critical labors of Locke, Kant, Schopenhauer, and the modern physiologists had for ever banished from the minds of trained thinkers. Professor Fechner frankly avows that he flings down the gauntlet to all philosophers of the day, be they idealists or materialists, Darwinists or anti-Darwinists, orthodox or rationalist. All these he throws together into one pot and labels them "Night philosophers," because, however great their differences in other things, in one point they all agree : they all teach that we know the external world not as in itself it is, but only as it appears to us through the modifying apparatus of our senses and brain, which themselves manufacture and project outwards the colors, odors, sounds, etc., that are supposed by ordinary people to be inherent *as such* in the objects themselves. This latter, naïve view of the people generally prevailed before the appearance of the critical school of philosophers; and now, with a strange perversity, Fechner comes forward, and, by a sort of metaphysical reversion or atavism, sets himself up as its champion. People are quite right, he insists, in maintaining that the sun emits actual light (instead of mere ether waves of unknown qualities), that the wings of a butterfly are gaudily colored, that flutes and violins give forth actual musical tones, whether there be any sentient organism to perceive these things or not. The sounds and colors exist, in the latter case, independently of sense-apparatus, nerve, and brain ; they exist in the universal consciousness which comprehends as constituent parts the consciousness of each individual brain. The belief that a nervous system is necessary for the manifestation of a soul is an antiquated superstition.

Were such views advanced by an ambitious youth of speculative propensities they would hardly deserve notice. But Fechner is one of the leaders of the small band of scientific psychologists, and it may be worth while, therefore, briefly to examine the motives which must have led him off the official highway. Evidently his "second soul," the unchecked metaphysical instinct, has led him into mischief, like so many of his countrymen who try to persuade themselves and others that they can still fly, in spite of the fact that Kant has cut their speculative wings : hence all the recent attempts to establish the Absolute, the Will, the Unconscious, the Imagination, and even the odorous effluvia of organic compounds, as the essence of the soul and the fundamental "principle" of the universe. Fechner deserves credit in so far as he has not committed the unpardonable mistake of adding a new quack "essence" to this list of metaphysical narcotics, and also because he lacks the sublime impudence with which, *e. g.*, Hartmann endeavors to persuade weak-minded people that *his* "essence," the Unconscious, is a panacea for all human ignorance. His own "principle," as already stated, is a mere compound of previous conceptions, and he is honest enough to admit—and this is a great advance in honesty on his predecessors—that he cannot prove his notions, but only make them seem more or less probable. Yet even this he has not succeeded in, although he secures the sympathy of the uncritical reader for his theory that the world unperceived is identical with the world perceived, by means of two ingenious, though of course unconscious, sophisms, which it is the duty of the critic to expose.

This can be done in a few words. The "Day-view," says our author, has at all times been the firm conviction of the unsophisticated people, and he cannot but think that such a primitive and wholesale conviction must rest on a good basis. This is an optimistic argument which takes no account of the innate ignorance, so to say, of the mass of mankind. Up to the time of Copernicus all the world believed that the sun and the stars moved about the earth ; and even nowadays, though we are all theoretically convinced of the contrary, it is not at all easy to throw off the old illusion and clearly realize that we are moving through boundless space at an amazing velocity, and on a little planet which, from a cosmic point of view, is a mere grain of sand. But while elementary astronomy is now part of every school-boy's education, the knowledge of the mechanism of our senses is of such recent origin that comparatively very few are aware as yet that what they suppose to be a direct and immediate perception of, say, a landscape, is, in fact, a most complex process of psychological chemistry, in which remembered impressions of touch and movement, associated with remembered impressions of sight, together with the fancy-work of the imagination, play as important, if not a more important part than the direct visual perception or sensation itself. This unconscious fusion of varied sensations and memories into one illusory picture makes it difficult for even a philosopher not to believe that his eyes are windows and his brain a mirror in which the external world is reflected just as in itself it is. The idealists of the last and present century tried very hard to eradicate this illusory belief ; but none of their *à priori* arguments had the convincing force of the facts brought to light by modern physiology of the nervous system, which has shown in an unmistakable manner that our sense-perceptions are cerebral, or a product of the activity of the brain, and from there projected into the external world, which furnished only the raw material for the sense-per-

* 'Die Tagesansicht gegenüber der Nachtansicht. Von G. T. Fechner.' Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel, 1879 ; New York : L. W. Schmidt.

ception, just as a sheep furnishes only the wool out of which our machinery weaves cloth of varied and complicated patterns.

And this brings us to Fechner's second sophism. He seems not to be aware that the epithet "Night philosopher" is an absolute misnomer, or what is known as a question-begging epithet. For these philosophers do not assert that the external world in itself is "dark," any more than they assert that it is light. They modestly confess that they know nothing whatsoever about it. A wave of ether enters the eye, passes the cornea, the lens, the aqueous and vitreous humors, passes through the ten layers of the retina, starts a current in the optic nerve which is conveyed to the brain; and not till it arrives there do we become conscious of it, as is known by experiment. But what we here become conscious of is evidently not the external agent, the unknown ether, but the nerve-current started by it. The resulting sensation is a joint product of the external stimulus, the complicated optical apparatus of the eye, the chemical constitution of the afferent nerve, and the reaction of a particular part of the brain. To say that a sensation is a real image of the external object which caused it is, therefore, like asserting that a ready-made suit grew on a sheep's back.

What makes it so difficult for the average intellect to assimilate this critical view of the external world is partly our unfortunate habit of using the word light to designate both the subjective sensation and the objective ether wave, and partly the absurd assumption of pure idealists, that since we can only *know* the world as perceived, therefore it can only *exist* in so far as it is perceived. With Fechner, however, the case is different. His revolt against critical agnosticism is due to the wild desires of his second soul to go beyond the limits of experience, and find out what lies beyond the Chinese wall which Kant has spitefully built up in front of the unknowable, or the "Ding an Sich." As the ordinary methods of inference—induction and deduction—do not suffice for this purpose, he resorts to analogy, and by way of securing the necessary physiological organism for his planetary soul he compares rivers to the circulation of the blood, day and night to waking and sleep, ebb and tide to the pulsations of the heart, the green covering of the earth to the human skin, etc. Such things are quite interesting from a poetical point of view, but in modern exact philosophy analogies are unfortunately of no more value than bows and arrows would be in a war between France and Germany. And here we wish to make a suggestion which it may be worth while for metaphysicians to ponder. We propose that metaphysics be made a branch of belles-lettres, and all works of the kind classed under the head of fiction. This would establish an absolute boundary line between it and psychology as an exact science; and it would relieve metaphysicians of the disagreeable necessity of trying to persuade themselves and others that they really believe what they teach. They would then have a full right to their favorite maxim: "If facts do not agree with our theories, so much the worse for the facts." As works of fiction metaphysical treatises would have to pay a little more attention to language and form, and a new Hegel would hardly be read even by the proof-reader.

Difficile est satiram non scribere; but we are perfectly in earnest. The metaphysical instinct is ineradicable from the human mind. In the way in which it still manifests itself it is injurious, because it discredits all philosophy. When, for instance, a speculative pessimist in all soberness describes how the world is destined to come to an end by a general consensus of all mankind to cease to "will" at a given moment, one wonders whether he thinks all his readers are idiots, or whether he himself is not rather a fit subject for pathological treatment. Such tomfoolery in the last half of the nineteenth century is an insult to every rational being. But on the other hand the metaphysical craving to know ultimate truths and the essence of all things has been at all times a great stimulus to investigation of mind and nature, and its presence is usually a sign of a gifted mind. For, if anything can be worse than the logical jugglery of full-blown metaphysicians, it is the cow-like indifference to the countless mysteries surrounding us that characterizes many people. To such people everything seems self-evident, whereas in truth nothing is self-evident, not even the fact that a stone should fall downwards instead of upwards; and all our "knowledge" is therefore a mere classification of mysteries. Now, the value of metaphysical theories lies in the fact that a critical study of them first makes us aware of this fact, and therefore, as it were, awakens us from a dream in which everything, even the most improbable, seems self-evident, because we do not reason about it. For this reason it is irrational to condemn metaphysical speculation unconditionally, as is often done nowadays. Ingenious imaginary excursions from the known to the unknowable, described in poetical language, would possess both an intellectual and an æsthetic value; and we shall welcome and commend all works of this kind as soon as we shall find them in the catalogues under the head of philosophical fiction.

It would be unjust if these remarks conveyed the idea that Fechner's work consists merely of speculation, and has, therefore, only an æsthetic value. Far from it. In spite of its weak backbone it is yet a strong book, which well deserves reading and even re-reading. We have never seen such a piquant and striking characterization of materialism, pessimism, pantheism, monadology, and dogma as is given on pp. 90, 91; and the chapters on teleology, causality, determinism and free-will, monism and dualism, pessimism and optimism, or the quantitative measurement of pleasure and pain in the world, contain a great deal that is new and suggestive. In the last chapter, which treats of modern spiritism (spirit-rapping), the ominous "second soul" again makes its appearance. Fechner believes in the reality of the manifestations attributed to the agency of invisible beings, and he advances several ingenious theories to account for certain anomalies in these manifestations. He belongs, we need hardly add, to the trio of distinguished Leipzig professors who, a year or two ago, so scandalized German society by entering the ranks of the spiritualists. In regard to Zöllner's notion of intelligent beings occupying a fourth dimension of space, whence they occasionally make their appearance to us, he has not yet made up his mind.

The Great Speeches and Orations of Daniel Webster. With an Essay on "Daniel Webster as a Master of English Style." By Edwin P. Whipple. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1879.)—No design could well be more commendable, either from a patriotic or a purely literary point of view, than that which the publishers profess in issuing this volume—the popularizing of Webster, namely. The ordinary reader knows of Webster's fame and the grounds of it in a general way, but the only means he has of becoming familiar with Webster is the Everett edition in six volumes, which is both too bulky and too expensive to be popular. An edition such as this, containing a selection of over forty of his best speeches, complete in one volume, with clear type and good paper, and published at a reasonable price, was certainly worth printing. The publishers have adorned it with two steel portraits of Webster, and have prefaced it with an essay on "Daniel Webster as a Master of English Style," by Mr. E. P. Whipple. Nothing in the contents of the volume needs special remark at the present time, of course, except this last; but this, since it is a popular exposition of Webster's oratory, prefacing a popular volume, and addressed to plain people, is worth attention. We wish we could add that it merits praise as well as attention, but any one unacquainted with Mr. Whipple's reputation might reasonably say that it is so ill written as to raise a presumption against the ability of the writer to write about Webster or style at all. It is almost comically unconvincing, for example, to find a writer writing of Webster's simplicity in a highly inflated style; of his power of "organizing" his orations, in an utterly disorganized essay; of his directness, with circumlocution; of his "sincerity of imagery," with far-fetched illustration and garrulous digression: of his compactness, with diffuseness. This carries its own antidote with it, in general, of course; but plain people, ignorant of Webster, cannot be presumed to see that Mr. Whipple has only a general and sentimental admiration for him, without any serious intellectual sympathy with him; that he conceives Webster in the loosest sort of way, much as a small boy conceives the "head of the school," and does not depict him with any firmness of outline whatever. Plain people are not even accustomed to reflect that commonplace has not only the disadvantage of being colorless, but the defect of becoming, on the most unexpected occasions, paradoxical.

Mr. Whipple begins with an account of Webster's school-days, and relates how he escaped the falseness of thought and feeling characteristic of school-boy "compositions" by cutting loose from all prevailing restraints and rules and expressing himself naturally in his own way. Two pages of his forty-three are devoted to this episode, and he uses it to show that the "sophomorical" style is bad and can be best avoided by being natural. Of course this is in the nature of commonplace, but, like commonplace, it loses sight of a vital qualification; and it is perhaps Mr. Whipple's fundamental error that in concentration upon the truth here involved he insensibly ignores the other truth, that it depends entirely upon what one's nature is whether he should be "natural" or not, and that one of the chief uses of education is to guide, restrain, and discipline "naturalness." Mr. Whipple's uncurbed naturalness is the worst thing in his essay; it prevents his displaying any of the measure, proportion, and propriety essential to an essay on "style." When he has occasion to al-

lude to Milton, for example, he speaks of an "almost seraphic soul"; mentioning the New England phrase, "the neighbors," he says "Webster knew it in all the intense significance of its meaning"; a cross-examination by Webster "rivalled in mental torture everything martyrologists tell us of the physical agony endured by the victim of the inquisitor when roasted before slow fires or stretched upon the rack"; during the Dartmouth College speech "Chief-Justice Marshall's eyes were filled with tears, and the eyes of the other justices were suffused with a moisture similar to that which afflicted the eyes of the chief." Mr. Whipple speaks of earning the right to use words, and then uses them in this way: "Imagery makes palpable to the *bodily* eye the abstract thought seen only by the eye of the mind," and "the florid *foolery* of his early rhetorical style." He speaks of Webster as a poet, and says his imagery was of the same sort as that of the farmer who called a drought "God's flat iron," and that of a comparison of slowness to "cold molasses," which latter, he observes, "perfectly answers to Bacon's definition of imagination." It is probably his "naturalness," too, that is responsible for "He could not take a glass of wine without the trivial fact being announced all over the country as indisputable proof that he was a confirmed drunkard, though the remarkable characteristic of his speeches is their temperance"; and for this, which we are inclined to call the prize sentence of his essay: "He passed through life with his head enveloped 'in a cloud of poisonous flies,' and the head was the grandest-looking head that had ever been seen on the American continent." Mr. Whipple's literary instinct is never, indeed, particularly happy. He singles out Webster's use of "interesting" and "respectable" as parallel to Chaucer's use of "greenness," Barrow's of "rest," and Edwards's of "sweetness," merely because Webster uses them, and without suspicion that Webster's poetic sense is sometimes quite amiss. Indeed, he finds no blemish in his subject, and one feels that there is no trait of Webster's style which does not seem to him a beauty. Hence his treatise not only loses in reality on account of its lack of light and shade, but it loses in truthfulness. It is, in fact, a eulogy rather than a critique, and its criticism is only a semblance of criticism. It is, however, deliberate and detailed, and will pass as criticism with plain people who are unfamiliar with elementary text-books on rhetoric, and have no means of distinguishing between criticism and an employment of certain rhetorical terms. But a popular introduction to the writings of such a man as Webster ought surely to differ more widely than Mr. Whipple's differs from an unrevised essay by a student of Blair or Whately.

The Roman System of Provincial Administration, to the Accession of Constantine the Great. Being the Arnold Prize Essay for 1879. By W. T. Arnold, B.A., formerly Scholar of University College, Oxford. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 240.)—Mr. Arnold's essay upon the Roman provinces is an excellent discussion of this important topic. It consists of six chapters; the first is introductory, three are historical (devoted respectively to the Republic, the early Empire, and the later Empire), and two treat of Taxation and the Towns. All parts of the book are well written and scholarly, but the last half, covering less familiar ground, appears to us to have on the whole the most merit. It is not only comparatively new but very important ground, inasmuch as it is in the period of the later Empire, and especially in its financial and municipal systems, that the most important points of connection between ancient and modern institutions may be traced. We should, indeed, have been glad of even more elaboration here; a fuller statement of the distinctive features of the several provinces or groups of provinces, in view of the several nationalities which were afterwards built upon them, would have been very acceptable. But the limitation "to the accession of Constantine" cuts off many points of great interest.

Mr. Arnold has made good use of the labors of previous explorers. In this field, more than in any other, the materials are largely epigraphic, and the work is of such a nature that every new laborer must, in the fullest degree, enter into the labors of those who have gone before him. Marquardt is, of course, the authority upon whom he builds from first to last; besides him, Mommsen, Zumpt, and others; and he is evidently a careful student of inscriptions at first hand. We are surprised to see no use made of Emil Kuhn's 'Entstehung der Städte des Alterthums'—a work which one would have supposed indispensable for the preparation of the chapter upon the Towns.

We do not know any English writer who has firmly grasped the notion of the Greek and Roman town—*πόλις*, *civitas*—in which the contrast of *urbs* and *rus* is purely local and social, the *rus* being as integral a part of the *civitas* as the *urbs*, and the proprietors of the *rus* being dwellers in the *urbs;* for a clear statement of the institution we must go to writers like the German Kuhn or the French Coulanges. So that, while we cannot point out any real error in Mr. Arnold's account of the towns, it is yet felt to be inadequate. For example, in the valuable sketch of the towns existing in the several provinces, we find the statement (p. 205): "Pompey made out eleven towns in Pontus, and twelve in Bithynia; other places were villages." The statement, like most of those in this paragraph, is taken from Marquardt (vol. i. p. 198), whose expression is "*war . . . getheilt*"; but Mr. Arnold overlooks his previous expression (p. 192), "*welchen Pompeius in* 11 *Stadtgebiete theilte.*" (The word used by Strabo is *διεῖλε*.) The expression "made out" is, therefore, strangely inaccurate. Now, Kuhn gives nearly three pages (pp. 390–2) of commentary to this passage of Strabo, establishing in detail what the eleven cities were, so far as it is possible to determine them. And these eleven cities comprised the entire territory in question: they were not eleven cities *in* Pontus, and the rest villages; the villages were a part of the cities, and there were no "other places." Again, Kuhn's account of the establishment of cities in Gaul (pp. 434–453) would have been precisely to the point for Mr. Arnold's purposes.

We find a slip on page 71, where Publius Rutilius Rufus is called "governor" of the province of Asia; he was only *legatus* to Quintus Scævola. On page 115 is the surprising statement that governorships were sometimes "given to centurions, or even to ordinary veterans." The references are far from supporting this. The centurions who "governed" the Frisii and Batavi were simply officers detailed to govern a district; the Frisians and Batavians were not *provinces*. And the "ordinary veteran" turns out to be Pomponius Flaccus, governor of Mœsia, whom Tacitus (Ann. ii. 66) calls *veterem stipendiis* (referring to previous service *in Mœsia*), but who had been consul two years before (A.D. 17). A misprint (p. 41) is 179 for 197, and (p. 175) *reign* for *resign*.

An excellent discussion of the condition of the subject countries, and the degree of their self-government, at the time of their conquest by Rome, is found in the first chapter; and the nature and limitations of their self-government under the Empire are admirably brought out in a paragraph (p. 120) ending with the words: "The weakness of those who have conquered and ruled with eminent success is to be sceptical with regard to the fitness of others to do a similar work; and a Roman governor would probably be as incredulous if you spoke to him of a genuine parliament at Lyons or Corduba as an Indian official would if you suggested a Hindu parliament at Delhi."

Upon the difficult subject of the origin of the *coloni* we should not accept Mr. Arnold's statement (p. 162) that the view suggested by Savigny (that they were derived from barbarians transplanted to the soil of the Empire) is unquestionably correct, except as to the way in which a portion of the class originated. And when he goes on to identify the Bagandæ with the *coloni* he is no doubt right; but it was not Savigny's *coloni*, but a totally different set of persons. The peasantry of Gaul were serfs, or, as he calls them, villeins—that is, *coloni*—even before Cæsar's conquest.

Chapters three and four contain an excellent historical sketch of the condition of the provinces under the successive emperors; and the sketch of Diocletian (following mainly Preuss) is particularly full and instructive. We could call attention also to the summary of the epigraphical information about Britain on pages 133 and 134.

Life of Victor Emmanuel II, First King of Italy. By G. S. Godkin. In two volumes. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—The writer's admiration for the truly kingly qualities of Victor Emmanuel amounts almost to the loyalty of a subject, which an evidently long residence in Italy has fostered. The English audience whom she had in mind, and whom she frequently directly addresses, will find this sentiment not unnatural, and will also take kindly to her pronounced anti papal if not to her equally decided anti-Mazzinian views. Sometimes the reader almost suspects that she may have intended to interest the young in the example of the *Rè Galantuomo;* but this comes rather from the simple and familiar tone of the narrative than from any disposition to keep out of sight the blemishes in his conduct. The chief defect of the book, which for the present takes the place of any critical biography in English, is in chronological distinctness. Of this as good an instance as any is chap. xxx., which embraces without either pause or transition the Œcumenical Council of 1867, the Barsanti incident (March 24, 1870), and the Franco-Prussian war. Finally, to the author's absence from

England may be attributed several printer's errors, such as *Gardic* for Sardic, *Carioli* for Cairoli, etc.

The permanent value of this biography lies in its extracts from the chief Italian memoirs on the period under survey and in its translations of speeches from the throne, orders, letters, etc.; while its interest is secured by a good assortment of anecdotes, of which the following, from chap. xxxiii. (p. 217), is a sample :

"Just at the beginning of the war of 1859, Signor Plezza was appointed governor of Alessandria ; but, on hearing that the Emperor of the French was expected to call there, begged to be excused on the plea that he was unfit to receive a foreign sovereign. Count Cavour said he had need of him in that post, and refused to cancel the appointment. Plezza then appealed to the King, saying that he understood nothing of etiquette, and could not represent his sovereign.

"'Is it possible ?' said Victor Emmanuel.

"'It is true, your majesty ; I never came to court but on public business, and I am quite ignorant of the etiquette necessary for such occasions.'

"'You understand absolutely nothing of etiquette ?' asked the King again.

"'Nothing, sire'

"'Then, since it is so, give me your hand. You are entirely fitted to represent me, for neither did I ever understand etiquette.'"

Leaves from a Lawyer's Life, afloat and ashore. By Charles Cowley, Judge-Advocate S. A. B. Squadron. (Lowell : Penhallow Printing Company. Boston : Lee & Shepard. 1879.)—Mr. Cowley, who served on the staff of Admiral Dahlgren, made it his custom, as he says in his preface, to keep a record of all important events which happened in the squadron under that officer's command. He also noted the events that had taken place in Admiral Dupont's time as they were related to him by eye-witnesses. This record he has made use of since his return to civil life for the purpose of correcting the errors committed by historians of the war. These he has found to be numerous, and for future editions of the histories in question his corrections ought to be of value. His narrative of the events which took place under his eye is too dry to be interesting as literature, though it cannot fail to have some historical value in the manner just indicated. Of the attack of the Confederate rams on the Federal gunboats off Charleston (Jan. 31, 1863) he gives a very clear account.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1879.

The Week.

THE enormous speculative transactions at the Stock Exchange have at length begun to attract general attention. The business in shares alone has averaged over 400,000 shares each day, and on one day the aggregate was 489,000 shares. All stocks are dealt in on a par of $100, and brokers' commissions are one-eighth of one per cent. on this par. A remarkable feature of this business, which averages over $40,000,000 per day (par value), is that less than one-fourth of it is in stocks which pay any dividends. The fluctuations in prices, too, are as remarkable as the great number of shares which change hands. Although speculation is wild, and such reasons as there are for a recovery from the depression of the last five years are greatly exaggerated, yet the speculation is not unaccountable. The resumption of specie payments enlarged the currency, inspired confidence, and put the money market on the same basis as foreign money markets. Then the refunding of the public debt turned out of (5 and 6 per cent.) U. S. bonds a great many millions of dollars, part of which returned to 4 per cent. bonds, and a part went into other securities paying higher interest. During the transfer there was a strong inducement for all who had speculative ventures to float to bring them out in the most attractive way. Refunding of the debt induced the Treasury to use its influence to keep money very easy, which helped outside speculations as well as the Government bond market. Following this refunding, with its direct and indirect influences, came the good harvests in this country and the short crops throughout Europe, and as the logical result of this came the importation of gold. Since August 1 nearly $39,000,000 of foreign specie, almost all gold, has arrived, and about $15,000,000 more is afloat bound for New York. Except for these specie imports the speculation which had been built on the favorable events of the early part of the year must have broken down for want of money facilities; but the gold imported has been sufficient to move the crops, to carry the new securities which have come into being by the million, to sustain the advance in the price of old securities, and to furnish bank facilities for the enlarged volume of mercantile business. It has, however, been barely sufficient; there has been nothing to spare. These are the main reasons why Wall Street and other departments of speculation are wild.

The notable events of the week were: the gold imports above alluded to; the final settlement of the 4 per cent. bond account, which was completed without the loss of a dollar to the Government; the speculation in Erie, which, with the aid of reports that Vanderbilt is seeking a controlling interest, carried the price of the common stock up to 42 from 32¼, and the other share and bond issues in proportion; the rise of 3 to 8 per cent. in the coal stocks, on the hopeful attempt to form a new combination; and the rise in United States bonds on the final closing up of the Syndicate accounts and the discovery that there are yet outstanding somewhat over $25,000,000 of called bonds, a good part of which must eventually be replaced with 4 per cents.

The *Times* has at last produced its authority for the assertion that "the South had presented in Congress the doctrine on which the theory of secession rested, and declared its purpose once more to attempt the application of this to the administration of the Government." This doctrine was, as we pointed out, the doctrine that the Constitution was a treaty between independent States, from which any one State could withdraw at pleasure, and in which, *à fortiori*, any State could, *by State legislation*, forbid the execution of any federal law within its borders. We pressed the *Times* on the matter because the revival of Stalwartism and the preparation of the public mind for "a strong man" in the White House, which are exercising such a debauching influence on politics, have, in our opinion, been largely brought about by the wild and reckless exaggerations and distortions of the newspapers as to the Southern position in the last session of Congress. The *Times* has done more mischief in this way than others, because it has an air of independence and a certain moderation and precision of statement, when not telling stories of "outrages."

It now confesses "that the South has not formally proclaimed its determination to try the experiment of rebellion a second time, if its pretensions to supremacy be not forthwith recognized." It has felt justified in announcing the revival of the Calhoun doctrine because Mr. Blackburn, of Kentucky, made "a sweeping declaration which, in substance, was that the South meant to wipe off the statute-book the Republican legislation of the war and reconstruction eras." What Blackburn said, therefore, was, in plain English, that he would, if he could get a majority of the House and Senate to agree with him, repeal certain acts of Congress. Now, when, Esteemed Contemporary, did it become "secession" and "revolution" to predict that a majority of both Houses of Congress would repeal laws passed in the same body? We ought to add that the *Times*, feeling that this was a little weak as an account of a "presentation" and "declaration" of the doctrine of secession "*in Congress*," proposes "to take in connection with it" "the virtual nullification" (where and by whom?) "of the three Constitutional Amendments," "open disregard" of certain laws, "and hostility toward local Republican governments." But when "taking things in connection," why not do it largely and liberally? Why not "take in" the widespread habit of alcoholic intoxication, the practice of carrying deadly weapons, and the cheating of the cross-roads grocers at the South?

The Organ is evidently greatly troubled in mind about "the mania for scratching" which he says is spreading, but he is evidently puzzled to know how to deal with it. On Friday he approached "the young men," who, he says, are afflicted with it, in the character of an Indignant Moralist, and solemnly warned them that "they were working for the Democratic party." Turning to Governor Robinson, he declined "to speak harshly of him," but predicted that within a few weeks he would be tormented by "bitter self-reproach." On Tuesday he took up the rôle of a very Wise Old (but saddened) Man who had seen and suffered a great deal, and knew the hollowness of youthful joys. He recalled to the young Scratchers the delusion of the "large-eyed boys" about the "tree-tops on the far horizon touching the sky," and about "the mirage"; and mentioned somewhat obscurely that, while the Wise Old Man "skirted the shores of what he hoped he had learned," "the barks" of the Scratchers "sat lightly on the furthest verge of what they thought they knew"—which sounds unpleasantly like a conundrum. He then went on to intimate to them that he had almost every variety of human experience and knew that "scratching" was vanity, that no good and some harm might come of it, and that when they had lived as long as this Wise (but sad) Old Man they would see this themselves. But we cannot help believing that he is not nearly as old as he says he is, and has not been through nearly so much as he says he has, or he would know that no young man was ever yet prevented from trying a thing by an old man's warning that there was no fun in it. In fact, the cases in which one man's experience has been useful to another man at any age are very rare. These young Scratchers will not be stopped from scratching by hearing that the venerable editor of the *Tribune* has tried it and thinks it foolishness. Nor should they. They will probably care

nothing for scratching when they are as old and weary as he is; but why anticipate the melancholy period when they will be, like him, "skirting the shores of what they hope they have learned"? Our advice to them is, after having read carefully the Organ's opinion, to scratch while they are young—and we venture to assure them that better scratching than Cornell they will never meet with. One of his attractions is that he is a powerful conductor—that is, that every scratch he gets will send a most uncomfortable thrill through the frame of every political trickster and wirepuller in the United States.

After a stormy week the police troubles have at length come to an end, and, on the whole, in a way which is more satisfactory to everybody interested in a fair election than seemed probable a month ago. The struggle for the last few days has been over the appointment of the fourth set of inspectors "claimed" respectively by Tammany and Anti-Tammany. These, not having been appointed on the 1st of the month, it was clear that the Police Commissioners must be mandamused to appoint them by the General Term, or they must be removed by the Mayor, or both. On the 1st, therefore, the Mayor notified Messrs. MacLean, French, and Morrison that they were charged "by and before" himself with not appointing inspectors of election, and that they would have an opportunity to be heard the next day in their defence. These new "charges" created the utmost consternation among the Tammany politicians, but they were met by an application to the General Term for a mandamus. Meanwhile in the Police Board matters had arrived at a deadlock amid scenes of great noise and confusion, the Republican Commissioners making a stand for Tammany inspectors, which the *Tribune* says was a sacrifice of themselves for the public good that can never be forgotten. On Thursday Messrs. French and Wheeler withdrew formally from the Board, on the ground that it was evident that nothing could be accomplished. The Mayor meantime postponed action on his "charges" until the matter of the mandamus could be determined by the Supreme Court.

On Friday matters came to a crisis in the shape of an argument on the application for a mandamus. At the conclusion of the argument the Court announced that they had arrived at a unanimous conclusion as to the true interpretation of the election law; that they still thought, as they had previously announced, that the duty of the Commissioners was to consider the Democratic party as an entirety, with a view only to its relations to State issues, and without regard to local organizations. But the Board had actually appointed inspectors from one faction without considering another faction. Two-thirds of the party in the city had been left unrepresented. The Board must select, if from either, then from both, and the court, therefore, considered it the duty of the Board to select the remaining inspectors from Tammany Hall. This announcement was followed by immense applause, and the judges adjourned the matter to give the Commissioners an opportunity to act without being actually mandamused. The decision of the General Term was speedily followed by a mandamus, and this by the appointment of the remaining quarter of the inspectors from Tammany Hall.

The result, therefore, is that the Republicans have two inspectors, anti-Tammany one, and Tammany one, at each place of registration and each poll. Among "practical men" the effect of this division upon the result of the election is variously estimated. Some "practical men" think that the Tammany inspectors will all be seduced to the Robinson side before the critical moment comes; others believe that the two Republican and the one Tammany inspector will unite for a campaign of fraud, and that no power can stop them. These three can select a chairman at each poll, and a chairman of inspectors is known to be a very important person. At the same time, if we do not assume that the object the inspectors have in view is to enable one or other party to cheat, a representation of all factions at the polls seems a tolerably just way of securing that sort of inspection which the election law seems to contemplate as a safeguard against cheating. But the mandamus has one extraordinary feature which ought to attract the attention of lawyers. It not only directs the Commissioners to exercise their discretion by choosing inspectors, but points out the particular body of persons from whom they are to choose, which, if we are not mistaken, is an unprecedented use of the writ.

Town elections were held and two constitutional amendments voted upon in Connecticut on Monday. The amendments, one of which substituted biennial for annual sessions of the legislature and the other fixed the expiration of the Supreme and Superior Courts' judges' terms at seventy-five years of age, instead of seventy as heretofore, were both defeated by large and in some places, such as New Haven, unexpected majorities. The town elections resulted generally in Republican successes. The "issues" were various in different sections. In New Britain, for example, there was unusual excitement over the choice of members of the School Board. It seems that in 1862 the board were persuaded to allow the Roman Catholics, who formed then and do now a large portion of the population, to erect and support a town school, with the restriction that there should be no religious teaching during school hours. Since then no Protestants have sent their children thither notwithstanding its nominally unsectarian character, and recently the Roman Catholic priest of the vicinage, who is a member of the board, asked town support for a convent just erected, and for permission for the nuns to teach in their ecclesiastical robes. The board granted his request, but their action roused such a storm of popular indignation that they had to rescind it. Eight of the twelve members were Republicans, but the successors of four of these were to be chosen Monday, and it was feared the Democrats might get a majority and assent to "Father Carmody's" demands. The Republican candidates were, however, elected, and for the present, at least, New Britain seems saved from the dominion of the Romish hierarchy. The incident may, nevertheless, be taken as evidence that the Roman Catholics by no means regard New England as sacred territory, and are indeed making headway in a region not many removes from the Puritan "burying-grounds" of Saybrook. We beg to call the attention of the female voters of Massachusetts to this matter.

The Chicago *Tribune*—whose condition for the last few years has caused so much regret to the friends of rational journalism—has apparently been roused almost to madness by the "beat" inflicted on it by the Chicago *Times* in its recent letters on the Yazoo trouble, which the *Nation* condensed. It ascribes to us "the opinion that murder is a proper check on the practice of inciting negroes to exercise their Constitutional rights in a lawful manner," and accuses us "of virtually declaring that Northerners in the South ought to be killed." To which we reply that the editor of the *Tribune* has apparently had no vacation this summer, and that he ought to take a long one and take it at once, and, if possible, in a foreign country where the noise of American politics would not reach him.

A new Indian war broke out during the week among the Utes, whose reservation is on the extreme western confines of Colorado. The immediate cause of it was an appeal from the White River agent, Mr. N. C. Meeker, for protection against a portion of his charge, who had forcibly resisted his attempts to plough a certain field, and had actually assaulted him and driven him out of his house on September 8. On the 16th Major Thornburgh, with three companies of cavalry, was ordered to the rescue, and on the 29th, when near Milk Creek, fell into an ambush of which he and eleven of his command were the first victims, while a large number were wounded. The troops, under Captain Payne, were driven back upon their wagon-train, and having entrenched themselves near water and sent out a runner with tidings of the disaster, maintained themselves as best they could. The news reached Omaha on October 1, when reinforcements were instantly hurried forward, and at this writing are said to have joined the besieged. It is reported,

and believed, that all the white residents at the Agency have been massacred, including Mr. Meeker's daughter and other members of his family.

The remoter causes of the outbreak are variously stated. According to the Western view, the Utes are "lazy, thieving, murdering vagabonds," "peaceable in so far as they are not in organized insurrection, but as individuals constantly committing depredations of the most exasperating character." The Eastern opinion, on the contrary, is that the tribe has the reputation of being very peaceful and friendly, and their present discontent is attributed to their not having received their pay for the San Juan mining district ceded by them in 1873; to the fact that the Unitarian Missionary Board had no hand in the naming of Mr. Meeker, as of previous agents under Grant's policy; and to Mr. Meeker's ploughing up land which he had no right to cultivate without the owners' consent. It appears that collisions during the past summer between the miners and the Utes have been frequent, that the Utes have extensively burned woods and slaughtered game, and terrified the settlers in North and Middle Parks by incursions from the reservation, and that fancied injustice or fear of mining encroachment has at last stirred them to revolt.

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has rendered a decision holding the County of Allegheny in that State responsible for losses occasioned by the Pittsburgh riots of 1877. The suit was brought to recover the value of whiskey shipped at Cincinnati for Philadelphia, and destroyed *en route*. The Legislature of Pennsylvania in 1841 passed an act making the counties of the State responsible for all losses by mob or riot within their borders, and it is on this act that the decision is based. The counsel retained by the county made the point that the disturbances through which the loss was caused were not such as were contemplated by the law, but amounted to an insurrection spreading through several States. The court, however, disposed of this very speedily, and no one who remembers the disgraceful circumstances connected with the Pittsburgh riots can fail to recognize the justice of its remarks:

"We see no evidence of any serious attempt upon the part of the local authorities to suppress it. At the time of its commencement a feeble attempt was made by the sheriff, resulting in the enrolment of some half-dozen deputies. But there was no proclamation calling upon the body of the county to come to his assistance in preserving the peace. No one doubts at this day that if a proper effort had been made at the proper time the mob could have been held in check."

It must be said, however, that the Alleghenians may fairly retort that if the State militia had not been in a very ineffective and demoralized condition the riots would probably never have taken place at all, and that the sheriff and his "posse," which is all the means that a county ordinarily has at its command to suppress disturbance, are of comparatively little use when the sheriff is an elective officer, dependent on the votes of the people whose outbreak he is to be called upon to quell, and the "posse" are longing to join the rioters. In one case in Pennsylvania, we believe, the sheriff was obliged to hire a "posse" at ten dollars a head, but even then when the pinch came these volunteers at the call of duty were not to be found. The only field in which the *posse comitatus* really rallies about the sheriff and disperses rioters and restores quiet is the imaginary *civitas* of the Southern Democratic orator. In actual life mobs are put down by soldiers with breech-loaders, or else they are not put down; and as a matter of fact this is what happened at Pittsburgh, where the mob took possession of the city and held it for some time against all comers.

The returns of the Prussian elections put the Liberals in a decided minority. The Liberals and Progressists together elected thus far number 135, while the Conservatives and Ultramontanes together number 246. There are about 25 nondescripts outside these divisions. A majority made up of Conservatives and Ultramontanes may not be very manageable, but in one way or another Bismarck will make it serve his purpose. He promises a reduction of direct taxes, the purchase of the railroads by the state, and a subsequent reduction of fares and freight charges by a reduction in the expenses of management. His visit to Vienna has been a great success. He was well received by everybody, and is said to have come to a thoroughly good understanding with Austria as to the course to be pursued in case of any further trouble in the East on the part of Russia.

We have discussed elsewhere the discontent of the Irish tenant-farmers, which seems to be becoming more and more formidable. The tenants in several large districts have refused to pay unless they get a large reduction—in one case they refused to accept 30 per cent. reduction—and, if they stand together, it is difficult to see how they can be made to pay. Wholesale eviction is simply impossible, and so is wholesale seizure of personal property. The Government are sending cavalry over, but cavalry can do nothing against general passive resistance. The worst of the situation is that a heavy lowering of rents under pressure of this kind must almost inevitably lead before long to the total abolition of rents by a similar process. The moral sanction under which Irish tenants pay their rent is so feeble that the discovery that they could not be legally compelled to pay would at once destroy it. Mr. Parnell is working for the holding of a convention of three hundred in Dublin to discuss Irish questions, but the other prominent Home-Rulers oppose it. Such bodies were illegal until a few years ago, when the Prohibitory Act, which probably kept scores of conventions from meeting, was repealed.

The news from Afghanistan, which now comes exclusively through military channels, press correspondents not being allowed to accompany the forces in the field, is varied. General Roberts is pushing on with a small and lightly-equipped force for Kabul, which he hopes to take by a *coup de main*, and was to have been before the place by this time. If, however, he should encounter an obstinate resistance, which is not likely, he would be in an awkward position, as his communications by the Shutar Gardan Pass are already difficult, and indeed interrupted, and the Khybar Pass line does not seem to be yet thoroughly open. At the Aylesbury dinner Lord Beaconsfield did not make the slightest allusion to Afghan affairs, which were then filling the public mind with the deepest anxiety, but continued his chatter about the three charges on land, a notion for which he seems to have a childish fondness. He seems to find it impossible to get it into his head that land might so fall in value that the man who bought it would lose his purchase money, and that it would only pay the laborer who tilled it. He thinks, apparently, that land produces rent, or a fund answering to rent, by a natural law.

There is little or no progress visible in the discussion of the land question by the politicians in England. The Liberals promise to take it up whenever they get into office, but nobody of note is willing to say what they ought to do. The discussion in the press seems to point to legislation removing some or all of the present legal restrictions on absolute ownership—that is, putting an end to entails under marriage settlements and wills, and perhaps forbidding mortgages; or, in other words, obliging a man when he wished to raise money on his land to sell some of it. This would gradually, no doubt, effect a great change of ownership. Land would pass rapidly from the possession of needy, indebted men into the possession of men who could pay cash for it. But who would these men be? The Conservatives maintain they would be rich men owning large estates, because poor men could not afford to own property yielding so small an interest, and the Radicals that they would be peasants seeking small holdings. The Conservative view assumes, probably falsely, that land would not fall heavily in value if it were no longer possible to use it as an inalienable basis for family influence, social and political. If it did fall heavily it would pay a very good interest.

THE REVIVAL OF THE GRANT "BOOM."

SINCE the arrival of General Grant in San Francisco the phenomenon known as the "Grant boom" has again begun to show itself—that is to say, the conviction has again begun to find expression in the press that he will be the nominee of the Republican Convention. The enthusiasm about him which prevails among the Republicans in all parts of the country, since his foreign tour, cannot be prevented, it is believed, from making its way into the Convention, and the tendency to nominate him under the influence of that enthusiasm, "by acclamation," will be stimulated by a variety of agencies. In the first place, there will be a numerically powerful body of delegates from the Southern States, who will be troubled by no sense of responsibility, inasmuch as they know they can supply no votes for any candidate at the election, and will therefore come to the Convention in the generous and reckless spirit of men who are about to spend other people's money freely. They will, therefore, support General Grant vigorously because they liked his ways when he was in power, and would be glad to be once more under his rule, and the difficulty of electing him—if difficulty there be—will not be their affair, but the affair of the Northern States. Thus they will do all that noise and numbers can do to carry his nomination by afflatus. In the second place, those Northern delegates who may doubt the wisdom of bringing him once more into the arena will be discouraged by the fact that they have nobody of mark to oppose to him. None of the prominent competitors, Blaine, Conkling, Sherman, and Edmunds, is very weighty, and only one of them—Blaine—has any "magnetism," and his "boom" is "sicklied o'er" by the probable difficulties of his canvass. Every one of them, too, would sooner see General Grant nominated than any of the others, and would probably work in that sense at the Convention. In fact, General Grant would be the only one who would have really ardent supporters. In the third place, the difficulties with which the Republicans find themselves contending in the various State elections—for we take it for granted that, even if they win in Ohio and New York, the victories there will not be much more inspiring than that in Maine—in a measure force them to take up the man who, whatever his faults, they think likely to get them most votes, and Grant is apparently that man. Some of them still, on third-term and other grounds, make a show of hesitating about him, and say they will not nominate him unless "the policy of fraud, intimidation, violence, and murder is to prevail at the South; unless the Constitutional Amendments are to be nullified and defied," etc., etc.

We need hardly say, however, that if they think it desirable to nominate him on other grounds there will be no lack of unanimity in declaring that all these necessary contingencies have come to pass. It is observable already that as the struggle draws nearer the case of the South becomes blacker and blacker. The crimes which are committed here and there over its whole area, which, atrocious as they may be, are but the natural and normal products of its social state, are treated as reasons not for the more perfect working of the old American mode of producing peace and order, but as arguments for a resort to a kind of veiled Cæsarism. If you ask them what Grant will do to convert the Southern Barksdales and Dixons into respectable citizens, they turn the conversation towards the necessity of "bringing public opinion to bear on these fellows." In fact, the Grant movement has all the strength of a foregone conclusion. It is very much like the Duc de Broglie's reason for converting MacMahon into a dictator. His account of the designs of the Republicans was always very dark, but when pressed for a bill of particulars he never got beyond a charge of "latent Radicalism," and of a desire to "destroy all the institutions of the country." Our Conservatives in like manner scent latent murder, secession, repudiation, arson, rebellion, and State-rights on every breeze from the South.

It is a curious fact, and one which well illustrates the immoral thoughtlessness which underlies the movement, that in two Republican States at this moment the best class of Republicans are fighting desperately against two of General Grant's most prominent favorites and confederates when in power, Butler and Conkling—men whose political influence was built up by the control of the Federal patronage in their respective States given them by the late Administration—and that no supporter of the movement has thought it necessary up to the present to give any reason for thinking that should General Grant be again elected these men will not resume their old places. That Conkling believes he will resume his, he does not in the least attempt to conceal. That General Grant has in a two years' tour in foreign countries, of only one of which he understood the language, at the ripe age of fifty-seven learned to distrust his old advisers, is a purely gratuitous assumption. His nomination after his return, by his old party, before he had opened his lips about his plans or intentions, would of course be to him, as to any man in like circumstances, a solemn and emphatic assurance that he did right in trusting them, and ought to do it again. He could not have a more distinct approval of his past style of administration, and it would be an approval against which the wisdom acquired in foreign hotels and at foreign dinner-tables would naturally and properly count for nothing. Another example of the spirit in which his "boom" is being propagated was supplied the other day in the sapient speech of a prominent converted "Liberal," that he had gone back to the party because Mr. Hayes had destroyed the Republican majorities, showing that the man's memory did not even go back to 1874 and 1876, when, under the inspiring influence of General Grant's Administration, the Republicans lost both houses of Congress, and but for the Returning Boards would have lost the Presidency.

That, if General Grant should be nominated in the manner we have described, his election would be made difficult by anything the Democrats will do, seems very unlikely. Even if they had any wisdom to show in their nominations, the opportunity of showing it would probably be denied them by the hold which Mr. Tilden has got on them, and which seems in the present state of political science to be unshakable. He has, as we pointed out some weeks ago, the only Democratic Machine in existence, and, however much individual Democrats may kick or complain, and however often the Republican moralists may expose him, the chances are that his forces will appear at the Convention practically unbroken, and that he will once again be a competitor for the Presidency—this time with the aureole of a defrauded martyr round his head. The alternative which this would present in 1880 to the friends of good government would not be a pleasant one.

To have to choose between Grant and Tilden at a crisis which, more than any other in American history, called for purity in administration, and for patient and steady reliance on the authority and the working of the law (rather than on any man's personal qualities) to wipe out the traces of the civil war, and enable conflicting races and classes to live together in peace and prosperity, is something from which every right-minded and intelligent voter must shrink in the quiet of his own home, if not when shouting at public meetings. The way to escape it, however, is not to keep quiet between now and next June, and treat the Grant "boom" or any other "boom" as a visitation of Providence which may not be pleasant in its outward aspects, but must be accepted and endured. A "boom," like other follies in a free state, is not impregnable to discussion and opposition. Behind all "booms" there lies the sober second thought, if not of the central mass of the party which votes the ticket in all weathers, of that large and growing body of independents without whose aid in the present state of politics neither party can elect its candidate, and which has only, as we now know, to show itself in time to inspire caution in the people who control primaries and manage conventions. The revival of the "boom" ought to show this class, which is now engaged in resisting the trickery and usurpation in this State of the leading boomster, the propriety of converting themselves between now and next summer into something like a permanent organization, through which the loose vote might threaten and restrain the sages who provide the parties with candidates, and give something and somebody to rally about, if necessary, after the conventions had acted. If

such an organization could do nothing else it could remind the Republicans that the nomination of a saviour of society is a desperate game, in which a political party stakes its very existence. A party which confesses it has nobody for its highest office but a soldier who has already more than failed as a civil functionary, virtually agrees to dissolve if it cannot elect him.

ENGLISH AND IRISH LAND AGITATION.

THE success of the Home Rule party in the British House of Commons in compelling the Government to pass the bill founding a new university in Ireland in a shape to suit the Catholic clergy, and in modifying the Army Discipline Act, combined with the fact that in many of the English boroughs the Irish voters now hold the balance of power, has given Irish discontent a weight which it has not had in English eyes since the death of O'Connell, and a respectability which it has not had within this century. For many years Mr. Isaac Butt was the soul and centre of the Irish party, and his talents and tact, and his Protestantism, did a great deal to secure it consideration. At his death it was supposed it would fall into contempt, but Mr. Parnell, also a Protestant in good social standing, has, after incurring boundless odium as an Obstructionist, achieved sufficient success as a parliamentary tactician to make him loom up very formidably as Butt's successor. He came out of the last session with considerable prestige, having distinctly got the better of the Ministry on several occasions, and has gone over to Ireland to engage in a land agitation, in which he appears as an agrarian of the most pronounced kind. His remedy for the troubles from which the Irish farmers in common with the English are suffering, is total refusal to pay rent, or what he calls passive resistance. If this policy were carried out, he thinks the landlords would either be content with a very low rent and concede absolute fixity of tenure, or else they would be willing to sell the land outright to the tenants for a trifle and take their departure. Talk of this kind makes one curious to know what Mr. Parnell is doing for his own tenants, for he too is a landlord; but we find no mention of this or even allusion to it in the English or Irish newspapers. If he is collecting his rents and holding on to his land like the others whom he is denouncing, it will be one more illustration of the facility with which popular agitators keep their private affairs separate from their politics. There is no more bitter enemy of capitalists and of luxury than General Butler, but he continues to be nevertheless a very grasping capitalist himself, and makes no scruple about keeping a large yacht. This contradiction between principle and practice is easier in Ireland than here, as a leader is there the object of much deeper homage. His followers, no matter what the nature of the gospel he preaches, think nothing too good for him in the way of material enjoyment, and it is not unlikely that Mr. Parnell's are quite prepared to enjoy the ministrations of a prosperous landlord who fiercely denounces landlordism.

The proposal to bring the landlords to terms by passive resistance is probably a reminiscence of the resistance to the tithes of the Established Church, which was completely successful. The Catholics refused to pay, and when their cattle or goods were seized and put up at auction by the tithe proctor such angry crowds attended the sale that no man dared to bid. This system of raising ecclesiastical revenues accordingly perished before Parliament had time to abolish it. But it was, after all, a trifling matter compared to the rent question. The tithes concerned no one but a handful of Protestant ministers. Rents concern everybody in Ireland who owns anything. Enormous amounts of money have been invested in or lent on land since 1847, and there are the same charges on it as in England in the shape of jointures and other annuities. Any serious interference with the landlord's title which did not involve full compensation would shake confidence in all owners of property to a degree that would be ruinous to the country. People are, in fact, already talking of the shrewdness of Sir Robert Peel in forbidding in his will the investment in Ireland of any portion of the fortune bequeathed by him. The plan of giving Irish discontent a final quietus by having the state buy the landlords out and resell the land to the tenants, who should repay it the purchase-money in instalments, is open to the probably fatal objection that the tactics which had succeeded against the landlords would be tried against tne Government, and successfully—that is, an agitation would soon spring up for the total remission of the debt, on the ground that the farmers could not pay it, and if they could that it was but a small portion of what had been wrung from the Irish peasantry by English oppression. In fact, it is all but certain that no ministry would ever be strong enough or brave enough to enforce the law against general opposition.

It is difficult to say how widespread the anti-rent agitation now raging is. It is probably as yet confined to districts in which the farmers have suffered to an unusual degree from the bad weather, and may subside as the times improve. The Catholic clergy, too, will discountenance it, as they discountenance all subversive schemes. But the failure both of Gladstone's Land Tenure Act, which practically protects the tenant against arbitrary eviction and gives him security for his improvements, and of the disestablishment of the Protestant Church, which constituted for two centuries the great sentimental grievance of the Irish Catholics, to root out Irish discontent, especially when taken in connection with the fact that the Irish are now a power in many English constituencies, is evidently making Irish politics a source of more anxiety in England than it has been since 1782. A land question in England threatening the English landlords with some sort of huge disturbance—nobody as yet knows what—is something to which no English politician looked forward as one of the possibilities even of the coming century. If any politician had foreseen it he would have predicted that it would infuse fresh gravity into Irish difficulties, as certainly as George III. predicted that the success of the American revolt would produce one in Ireland. If the Liberals take up the English land tenures as a party question, as now seems likely, they must inevitably give a strong stimulus to the restlessness of the Irish tenants, and these for half a dozen reasons cannot be satisfied even with twice what will suffice to content the English tenants. They have different memories and different traditions, and different legal ideas, and have never been in the same kindly relations with their landlords.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* tries to meet the trouble by asking whether Englishmen have not been sorry long enough for their bygone ill-treatment of Ireland, which was, after all, only a bit of retaliation inflicted on the Catholics for the cruelties which the latter were inflicting on the Protestants all over Europe, and whether, therefore, it is not high time to shut their ears to Irish agitation and act as if Ireland had nothing to complain of. But this, of course, could be readily disposed of by any reader of the history of the eighteenth century. Ireland was on the fair way to a considerable degree of prosperity by the growth of her trade and industry, after the overthrow of James II., in spite of the Penal Laws, when she was flung back into hopeless poverty by the barbarous restrictions placed on both by the English Parliament on the demand of English merchants and manufacturers, who began on Ireland the experiment which toward the close of the century resulted, when tried on this side of the Atlantic, in the loss of the American colonies. This legislation had nothing to do with religion. It was aimed at Protestant settlers of the English race as well as Catholics of the Celtic race, and not out of hatred—whether justifiable or unjustifiable—of Popery, but for the common and familiar purpose of making money by keeping rivals out of the market. The result was to prevent the recovery of Ireland after the civil war, to fling the people back on rude agriculture—without a foreign market—as their only resource, and to prevent the growth of the habits of order, industry, and mutual forbearance and moderation which successful trade brings with it. It kept the peasantry in the position of degraded but ferocious serfs, and the gentry in that of lawless and overbearing masters of serfs. It is the effects of this devilish policy on the national character which, more than anything else, to-day makes Ireland difficult to

govern, and the problem cannot be solved now by a determination on the part of Englishmen to forget Irish history.

It must be said, on the other hand, that with the best will in the world Englishmen have never succeeded in governing any other community than England in a manner satisfactory to the members of it. To what defect of their mental or moral constitution this failure is due we shall not enquire here. The fact is notorious, and the government of Ireland by the House of Commons is really the government of Ireland by Englishmen. For this Englishmen of this generation are not altogether to blame. They have got out of the difficulty as regards Scotland, with much good sense, by letting the Scotch members of the House of Commons practically settle all Scotch legislation. The difficulty of pursuing this course with regard to Ireland is, that the Irish members virtually represent two nations divided, if not by hates and prejudices, by widely-differing traditions, faiths, and political and social ideals, and cannot be got to agree on anything; so that Englishmen, if anything is to be done for Ireland at all, have themselves to settle what it is to be. But Ireland, as she stands to-day, is what England has made her. England keeps her because she is useful to the Empire, and must make the best of her, along with the weather and the American competition.

THE GRAPHIC METHOD.

BERLIN, August 20.

THE origin and nature of our knowledge of motion has become a question of the first importance for philosophers of all schools. According to Trendelenburg, logic requires us to make movement the ultimate explanation of all things. From the standpoint of evolution, Spencer argues that there is a direct and universal relation between quantity and heterogeneity of motion and the degree of development of nervous centres. Even according to Haeckel, soul-life, whatever be its nature, seems to begin at least as low down as in contractile tissue. Vierordt holds that psychologically motion is not a perception but an immediate sensation, and that thus the muscle-sense is absolutely unique, in that the incommensurability between the objective thing and the subjective knowledge of it, found in each of the five old-fashioned senses, does not exist here. From the standpoint of the theory of knowledge (*Erkenntnisstheorie*) Helmholtz argues that sensations are nothing but guides for movements, and that, apart from the practical use we can make of a thing, all other conceptions of it are as impossible as the blind man's notion that sounds are colored. The same drift may be seen in Wundt, Exner, and others. Partly influenced by such conceptions, and partly by the intrinsic richness and suggestiveness of the field, myology is now considered by many as a branch of psychology scarcely less important than the study of the senses, connected as it generally is, through the doctrine of apperception, with the study of the will itself, and throwing light on its education, its nature, and its freedom.

It is in this connection, in recording movement as a function of life, that the graphic method so well described in epitome by Marey* has achieved its greatest triumphs. Every one knows how apprehensible and compendious statistics of all sorts—winds, produce, the business of railroad lines, electric tension, temperature, national debt and credit, insurance probabilities, etc.—may be made by representing them as the product of two variables laid off as right-angle co-ordinates, each as function of the other, with curves tracing their relation on a surface (for example, age and death-rate), or adding the representation of a third dimension by colors or shades, as census-tables of population, altitude, etc.—a method which Quetelet has introduced into political and anthropological science with such interest and success. The results of long and tedious investigations, such as the direction of aerolites; the periodic tides of lakes; the sensibility of the different zones of the retina to different colors; the trajectory of a balloon; the relative growth of the different sexes in childhood; the solubility of different salts at different temperatures; weight and cost of bridges of different materials; the growth of different plants under different chemical, thermal, and luminous conditions; phases of the solar spots; the elasticity of nerves, etc., may thus all be comprehended at a glance even by a tolerably inexperienced eye. It is superior to all other modes of describing many phenomena. Language was born before science, and even its technicalities are often ambiguous. The senses, too, are often deceived. The persistence of after-images produces confusion in the eye, to which latter the whole science of astronomy gives the lie. But the graphic method is fast becoming the international language of science, remarkably accurate in seizing subtle shades of change, and adapted equally to investigation and to didactic purposes. In Germany, where it is most developed, it has revolutionized certain sciences by its unique logical method, and in one or two cases at least has converted the lecture-room into a sort of theatre, where graphic charts are the scenery, changed daily with the theme, and where the lecturer is mainly occupied in describing his curves and instruments, and signalling assistants, who darken the room, explode gases, throw electric lights or sunbeams, simple or colored, upon mirrors or lenses, or strike up harmonic overtones, as the case may be.

As a microscope of time and space this method has achieved its most remarkable triumphs. By a mirror mounted on a syren, and rotating in a sunbeam with a rapidity determined by the pitch, the ten-thousandth part of a second may be easily and accurately measured, and thus the horizontal line on which time-measurements are laid off may be divided to represent, if necessary, even these small durations. By a method which he does not reveal, Nobert has succeeded in dividing a millimetre, or the one twenty-fifth of an inch, into thirty-five hundred equal parts, each somewhat smaller than a powerful microscope enables one to perceive. Each of these can be laid off on a perpendicular line at right angles to the first, and their concomitant variations can be traced by a curve. Although capable of such minuteness for tracing out a "cosmos in the microcosm," it need scarcely be said that every inch may just as well represent millions of years or miles as infinitesimals. Armed with this method, it has been recently proved that the quickest and slightest motion of the finger which a pianist can make is not a simple but a compound and prolonged act of the will; each of the six different gaits of a horse may be minutely described in as many different lines; the frequency and exact direction of the motion of the wing of a flying insect may be traced directly upon smoked glass, and if required, according to the practice of some popular lecturers, shown the next minute to an audience magnified upon the screen of a magic lantern; the one-tenth of a second intervening between an impression upon one of the senses and the quickest possible reaction (known as the personal equation) may be analyzed, as by Donders, and apportioned, in its twelve distinct elements, among sensory organs, ganglion-cells, nerve-tracts, latent muscular time, etc., the action of each occupying its own fixed fraction of a second. By immersing the hand in a closed cylinder of water ending in a small perpendicular tube, on which floats a pen that writes on a revolving drum, not only is every heart-beat shown to swell the hand appreciably, but even fear, anxiety, hunger, different drugs, pressures, etc., all record their own characteristic forms of pulse-curves.

But it is not my object—indeed it would require far more space than you would allow me—even to name the achievements of this method, nor do I care here to urge its more extended use in schools, by the daily press, etc., as is often done in Germany. I would rather raise an ulterior, and even in some respects, perhaps, premature, question as to its capabilities and the sort of value attaching to it. First, though it *may* be possible to reduce the syllogistic logic to graphic symbols and equations, we are not yet able to believe that thought will ever find here an adequate general vehicle for its inscription which will supersede the old Cadmic method, as an enthusiastic young professor here has lately argued, any more than Aryan myths will be better told in the purely hypothetical old Aryan tongue. Words may be recorded in phonographic type, or in overtone series on a musical bar, as by Helmholtz, or in lip curves, as by Brücke, or in symbols of the position of the organs of speech, as by Graham Bell, etc., but the alphabetic method will no more be superseded than words themselves will be resolved into more radical expressions of psychologic tension. This, almost as a matter of course, I think. Again, I cannot believe that physiological phenomena will be ever to any great extent reproduced from any combination of the various curves they trace, as sound is reproduced from the curves inscribed in the tin-foil of a phonograph; yet even this is sometimes strongly urged. Once more, it is chiefly argued that the movements are absolutely regular and constant under the same conditions. This idea has stimulated very many to study the methods of analytical geometry, and has done much directly and indirectly to develop the application of mathematics to curves of all sorts of co-ordinates. Whether this can ever be done for organic, as it is for inorganic, structure and forces, is perhaps the most modern phase of the old question between mechanism and teleology, which I have no wish to discuss, and which may not, indeed, reach the discussable stage for many decades. Not that I am without impressions and prejudices enough, but because it seems to me one of the questions respecting which it is most

* 'La Méthode Graphique dans les sciences expérimentales. Par E. J. Marey.' Paris. 1878.

philosophic to cultivate equanimity in suspense. On the one hand, the near and constant approximation to exact proportions, and on the other the invariability of the residual deviation, are equally surprising. While the equations for the curvature of the cornea, the rotation of the eyeball, the superposition of muscular and sensory irritation, etc., are pretty well developed, there is no single cornea, eyeball, or muscle curve, and no measured and averaged series of such, that gives the precise curve ; and thus the latter remains like the ideal head or arm which sculpture can create, but nature, so far as observed, has not created. Hence, it is said by some that the conditions of observation are not fully controlled. This the complexity of everything organic makes extremely plausible. Others assert that the statistics must be universal before the perfect mechanical cosmos is unveiled. This is certainly beyond the present reach of contradiction.

One of the impressions of Theophrastus Such is, that as the sum of human knowledge is reduced to motion in time and space, and as it becomes possible to conceive of self-reproducing machines which can give readings for the whirl of molecules engaged in composing an epic, etc., consciousness will become extinct, since molecular combinations will persist as the most fitting survivals ; in a word, all will be action, while knowledge, and even sensation, will be superseded. I instance this as a purely theoretic fallacy quite current among scientific laymen. It is logically and psychologically wrong. Both the tendencies and disciples of every theory of the unconscious are mystic and strongly teleological. Again, mechanized knowledge is now simply the most organized and known form of knowledge. Hypothetical mechanism is often merely the best and most serviceable sort of *memoria technica*, and is quite consistent with the philosophical faith that all mechanism is a form of knowing, now very practical but perhaps transient, and in no sense a *Ding an sich*. As science advances in the study of consciousness, its highest problem, it will perhaps find it no less serviceable to resolve all knowledge into the forms of self-knowledge, interpret force as will, etc.; and its ideal future, if it trouble itself to note its own dreams, may be rather more like the Hegelian millennium of all-consciousness than the actualization of a universal self-mending, self-governing, self-reproducing, self-knowing machine.

Correspondence.

SOUND MONEY.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The term "honest money" is a dissolving view under the depraving influence of legal-tender notes. The letter of M. L. Scudder, jr., Secretary of the Chicago Honest Money League, in the *Nation* of the 18th, defines sound money, as viewed by that association, by stating that "in the opinion of those most active in its organization the object of its existence is nearly accomplished"; for that "It is plain that the American people cannot be successfully marshalled to demand an irredeemable currency or a debased coinage," and that the League looks to see the result of the Ohio election demonstrate that its work is finished.

By this the League accepts as a sound-money situation the standing issue of 346,000,000 of legal-tender notes, with any reduction of their volume forbidden, even if there should be a run for redemption, and with the Secretary of the Treasury required to sell bonds to get coin to redeem the notes to be shoved out again, continually increasing the interest-bearing debt. It accepts as honest money a perpetual issue of legal-tender notes which, if constitutional, makes the Constitution a thing of straw ; an issue whose volume will ever depend on the party necessities of Congress, and will be the football of the elections ; an issue whose existence will keep ever to the front the question why Congress does not dispense the whole of the paper money beneficence, instead of granting the privilege of the rest to the banks—a question which can never be satisfactorily answered to the common mind.

The League regards its honest-money mission as almost finished, and lays to itself the unction of the ancient Simeon, while a standing volume of three hundred and forty-six millions of greenbacks furnishes a legal-tender redeeming medium for three hundred and thirty millions of bank-notes, with the free privilege of unlimited increase, which notes by one exchange come upon the coin in the Treasury, making a volume of paper money which altogether is now near seven hundred millions, and is rising, all resting at last on the coin in the Treasury—and certain to draw upon it when that inflation of prices which is inevitable from such a volume of currency shall again raise our imports to excess, as it is sure to do in spite of our abundant farm crops.

The League is ready to retire on its laurels while a law stands which compels the coining of two millions of silver dollars a month, worth only about eighty-six cents, but full legal-tender for private and public debts. If paid out as the spirit of the law requires, these would soon reduce our revenues to silver, would expel gold from the country, and degrade our public credit to the fallen silver standard. Only the disregard of the silver law by Secretary Sherman, in locking up these silver dollars, prevents their debasing our money and revenues and dishonoring the public credit. But he cannot continue this locking up of two millions a month much longer. The Opposition will attack it, his own party does not support it, and his own political welfare will constrain him to force out this "debased coinage."

The result of the Ohio election will be no demonstration that the people "cannot be successfully marshalled to demand a debased coinage," if what is called the remonetization of silver be the debased coinage. And this, as it stands, is an argument for going to the logical end, by unlimited coinage and issue of silver, which means the single silver standard, and the dropping of our money and public faith fourteen to twenty per cent. And the Honest Money League thinks its mission almost finished at a time when inflation doctrines are more rampant and more presumptuous than ever, because now they have what is called the specie basis ; when the sound-money party and its Administration are proclaiming "an inflation of sound money"; when the doctrine is universally accepted in politics that the true aim of a sound-money system is the largest volume of paper money that can be "floated" on confidence in the promise to redeem in specie—a doctrine which is the opposite of all that was ever before called sound in money. S R. R.

Cincinnati, September 29, 1879.

PRINT, PAPER, AND SCHOOL-BOOKS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : While you are upon the subject of glaring white paper and the injury it must do to the eyes of children, you would, perhaps, help both schoolmasters and pupils by calling the attention of the former to the great advantages of manila paper. I find it pleasant to the eye, cheap (either in the form of blank books, or arranged as a "pad" or tablet), and beyond comparison superior for school work or for literary men.

J.

Norwalk, Conn., Sept. 26, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The letter and comments in your last issue on "Glaring White Paper" recall an effort made a few years ago (though without success) to interest the Social Science Association, as well as various chemists here and there, in what still seems to me a reform of the utmost importance as affecting *all* the reading world, whether old or young. My own attention was called to it by an article in a Boston medical paper (January, 1872) by a man almost blind, detailing his experiments while gradually losing, and, as he hoped, gradually recovering, his sight. My own subsequent, somewhat careful, investigation of the subject confirmed his views, and I tried to influence scientific and practical men to work the subject up. Failing in this, and other interests intervening, I had lost sight of the subject temporarily till a paragraph in a recent paper stated that "a Russian physician, M. Malarevsky, struck by the prevalence of short-sightedness among literary men, proposes that books should be printed in white ink on black paper, and he has made experiments with fifty persons which tend to confirm his view." This is the reform: no less than the reversal, or interchange, of the present colors of the written or printed page, so that, whatever colors (black and white, black and gray, blue and orange, or others) shall upon trial prove to be most desirable in themselves and as related to each other, *the ground shall always be darker than the letters.*

I cannot encroach on your space to show in detail the evils of the present system, nor to discuss what may be called the physics and chemistry of the question, or the difficulties, mechanical and financial, to be overcome in bringing about such a reform. Strange as it may seem at the first blush, our present system is based upon a physical paradox. We see objects only as they are lighted up—*i.e.*, reflect light to the eyes. When we read our present books or papers, then, we see everything but the very things we want to see—namely, the letters. We think we see the letters, but this is only because of the absence, just there, of a positive

impression on the retina; and, startling as it may sound at first, we read the letters *by not seeing them*. We see the bright margin and the bright spaces around and between the letters; the letters themselves we do not see. This negative sight is accompanied by serious evils. One might ask, What difference, practically, if we do virtually see the letters and draw a sense from them?

Two points are to be noticed in reply: 1. Light, up to a certain degree, is a healthy stimulus to the eye; but light which pours in from the margin and other spaces of the present page upon the eye already strained in attention to the meaning of the letters, is in excess and must affect the eye somewhat as ardent spirits do the body, when an attempt is made to goad thus the weary body to new exertions. 2. Even the negative picture of the letters on the retina is blurred and obscured by the rays which enter the eye from various portions of the page, just as the shadows thrown on the ceiling by a chandelier are all rendered obscure and ill-defined by the *cross-lights* from the several burners.

Which is more grateful to the eye, a silhouette, by Konewka even, or the same sketch, equally well done, on a black slate? A bronze bust against a white wall, or the same in white marble against a blue or black shield? But I must pause, only noticing that consciously or unconsciously the reform is making gradual headway, for we see the street signs multiplying which present gilt or white letters on a ground of black or blue, and block-advertisements in which the ground only is printed and the letters left of the color of the page. If this reform could be carried out, diamond types be "anathema," and the present hair-lines in the lettering abandoned, which leave vacant places as the types grow worn, we might all hope for a longer lease of reading life, while many who now cannot or dare not look at a book could be restored once more to this precious enjoyment. What publisher, calling to his aid the paper-maker and ink-maker, will be the first to give us this great boon?

H. D. C.

New York, Sept. 26, 1879.

[Several questions are here suggested.

1. As regards distinctness. For the purpose of testing this point Professor Henry P. Bowditch, of the Harvard Medical School, prepared some words in black on a white ground, and some in white on a black ground, using stencils to ensure evenness and equality. The class of students were then asked to state which they distinguished most readily. It was found that the number of those preferring white letters on a black ground was slightly larger than of those preferring black letters on a white ground; but not so much larger as to form a basis for inference. We have before us a MS. in white ink on lustreless black paper; it reads with distinctness but is not perceptibly clearer than that written with a similar pen in the ordinary way. The effect of the white ink is startling and almost dazzling, owing to the purity of the color. A white letter on a *blue* ground might be equally distinct; such a combination is preferred, on grounds of legibility, for the names of streets in the city of Paris.

2. Our correspondent observes that we do not literally see the black letters. This is true in a certain sense, but not in a sense which can be made a base for argument; for what the eye requires in order to perceive form is simply a difference in color—a difference equally present in both the cases supposed. If argument *à priori* be justifiable, we may remark that a black page containing white letters forces the eye and the mind to concentrate their perceptive efforts upon small white objects; the macula lutea, or most sensitive central portion, being taxed to appreciate a brilliant object instead of a black one. It is certainly trying to the eye to look for light-house lights, or stars; and to an unaccustomed person the use of pure white letters on black paper seems a little dazzling. It is, nevertheless, true that a good many eyes, suffering from overuse, are pained by a moderate amount of light; and to these a pure white paper and wide margins are abominations. A paper of neutral color, neither black nor blue, will probably prove the best basis for experiments in white-letter printing.

3. As regards methods, improvement is to be desired. Our copy of *L'autre monde, journal des trépassés*, printed white on black paper, has lost a good deal of its clearness by rubbing off of the ink; it still presents an agreeable surface on the inside. The white writing-ink is prepared with bismuth, a very heavy substance, and requires constant shaking up.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reading what you said of school-books in your issue of September 25 I could but wish you or some one who is able to affect public opinion would speak out against what, for the lack of a better name, might be called our "school-book burden." And I call it a "burden," for a burden it has become to the parents of this land to supply their children with the requisite number of school-books now thought necessary for a child to have. It is no uncommon thing for a pupil at the beginning of a school year to come home with a list for five dollars' worth of books; and in poor families where there are three or four to provide for one can well see what a burden it is—in many instances quite sufficient to prevent parents from sending their children to school. We glory in our "free-school system," and well we may; but it is doubtful if the extra cost of school-books at the present time does not more than overbalance what it used to cost for schooling before the free system came into operation. Everything pertaining to school-books looks to the interest of the book-publisher, and nothing to the interest of the pupil or parent. Every study must have its "series." A child, in order to learn to read, must have five or six readers, at a cost of four to five dollars, and three or four arithmetics, at a cost of three dollars more, and two geographies, at nearly three dollars more. And so of every study. The chief thought now seems to be to see how many books can be introduced into a study, or into how many books a study can be cut up, in order to furnish business for the book-publisher. Now, if there was any corresponding benefit to the pupil from all this, one might bear it; but there is not. After some attention to the matter, I am disposed to believe that the average pupil of thirty years ago at sixteen was quite the equal of the pupil of to-day at the same age, with all his "modern improvements." He had not so many helps, as they are called, but he had more ability to think out things for himself. And yet compare the books of the boy of thirty or thirty-five years ago and of the boy of to-day.

Take the case of a boy in a country school in York State thirty-five years ago: One speller, which answered the purpose of a primary reader as well as speller, cost 12½ cents; one English reader, 37½ cents; one Hale's 'History of the United States,' which answered not only as a reader but a history, $1. Here is a dollar and a half for his spelling, reading, and *history*. Now his readers alone (Sheldon's) will cost him $4 25, history $1 75, and speller 25 cents = $6 25 for what then cost $1 50; and the same difference in number and cost of arithmetics, while there is no corresponding difference in the scholarship and knowledge of the two. This school-book matter is certainly a crying evil, and an almost intolerable burden to large numbers of our people, and it is only their very great patience that causes them to bear it—not in silence, however, as our school-book publishers may find out to their grief some day, unless a change is made. I would that some of you who have the public ear, and have the interest of the people at heart, might speak out in this matter.

D.

Illinois, Sept. 29, 1879.

ARMY RANK AND PROMOTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to find that you discuss so freely the question of civilian appointments in the Army, for the following reasons:

No radical change can be effected in the Army by the powers inherent therein. The system, the education, the regulations, the custom, all go to preserve intact its virtues and its faults; and nothing but the strongest outside pressure can make alterations possible or probable. The *Nation* is extensively read in the Army, and its criticisms respected, if not followed. The presumption is, that radical needs shown by it to exist will be a matter of correspondence, possibly of legislation; and I repeat, therefore, I am glad it has shown an exact appreciation of a great need —somewhere.

I think, however, that the true secret of "something wrong" is not as yet clearly apparent to you. There is in the Army a great gulf, introduced into it from the English service, favored by the laws, and religiously preserved by custom. The difference in rank, pay, and, above all, social status, between the highest non-commissioned officer and the lowest commissioned one is vast, and cannot be appreciated by the average civilian. It may not be advisable to discuss the reasons for its existence,

or the methods of its correction, but the fact is there, and it is the cause in great part of the difficulty of promoting from the ranks.

In no institution, corporation, or firm in the land does there exist such an anomaly. In no railroad system of officers and employees can you point to a line up to which the mass of employees may hope to reach, and beyond which outsiders may be called upon for suitable persons to fill the higher duties. In the complex and omnipresent Western Union Telegraph Company promotion may easily take place from one grade to another, and the managers are *promoted*, not *selected* from the country at large. In fact, no one can fail to see how foreign to the spirit of our institutions, how hurtful to the general service, how unaccountable (except by referring to the English service) is this same unnecessary and important gulf between the "rank" and the "file."

When intelligent legislators will admit that the Army and its concerns are not necessarily an occult science, I doubt not some way may be found by which it will be made desirable for men of the middle class to enter the Army as well as the militia; possible for each one so entering to look forward to advancement; desirable for the commissioned officers to watch over and further such promotion to the really worthy; necessary for the highest military authorities to look to the character of the "file" as well as the "rank"; and a matter of general pride and satisfaction to the country to have a body of men which, from top to bottom, is zealous, capable, and progressive. But so long as the Army is essentially divided into officers and men, the one superior and the other without hope, there will always arise such difficulties as you now perceive exist.

Yours truly, R.

["R." overlooks the fact that our Army and the English are the only ones in which the ranks are filled exclusively by volunteers, and therefore by men who as a class may be said to have failed, or to have despaired of success, in civil life. This fact renders discipline more difficult in these armies than in any other, and necessitates a sharper line of division between commissioned officers and privates, and from the privates the non-commissioned officers come. No change in the regulations will send into the Army as privates the kind of recruits from which civil "institutions, corporations, and firms" draw their servants for the lowest grades. It may be asserted as a general rule that young men who in this country choose soldiering as a calling are restless and adventurous spirits who could not get employment from the telegraph or any other company, or, if they could get it, would not possess the qualities which bring promotion to responsible positions. We do not mean to insinuate by this that the quality of the rank and file cannot be improved, but in discussing the ways and means of doing so no good can come from deluding ourselves into the belief that the Army can go now, or will ever be able to go, into the labor markets on equal terms with commercial corporations.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

THE private library of the late Caleb Cushing is to be sold in Boston, at the auction-rooms of Sullivan Bros. & Libbie, on Oct. 22, 23. The collection is in many ways remarkable, but its peculiarity consists in the large number of works in Spanish and pertaining to China, apropos of the owner's two missions and his part in the Mexican war, and on international law. It is the library of a statesman and not of a littérateur or general student. We notice that the author of a squib in which "Cushing" was made to rhyme with "pushing," Miss Hannah Gould, has her three volumes of poetry "uncut."——Another opportunity for book purchasers is held out by the "Catalogue of a Collection of Eight Thousand Volumes of Books in all Departments of Literature," for sale by the Mercantile Library Co., of Philadelphia. Duplicate works of fiction naturally abound in this collection, but the majority of the numbers represent a wide range of subjects and authors, and some are scarce or rare.——The salient features of the early history of Fairfield, Conn., will be found spread on fair paper in open type in the report of the centennial commemoration of the burning of that town by the British, July 8, 1779 (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.)——A Connecticut man's career is instructively told by Judge Cowley in his 'Reminiscences of James C. Ayer and the Town of Ayer' (Lowell: Penhallow Printing Co.) The moral is not always that pointed by the author, but it is generally unmistakable. Dr. Ayer's achievements as a mechanical inventor will be new to many readers, and his exposure of the weakness and abuses of joint-stock corporations and efforts to reform them, should not be overlooked in passing judgment on his character.——The Fine Arts Publishing Co., of this city, announce for speedy publication the 'Doré Bible Gallery,' containing in a quarto volume one hundred of that artist's best illustrations of the Scriptures (reproduced, we suppose, by "process"), with explanatory letter-press and a portrait.——On the first of this month appeared in Paris the *Nouvelle Revue*, a rival of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, with E. About and other disaffected writers—John Lemoinne, F. Sarcey, G. Flaubert, etc.—among its contributors.——Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation a new revised and enlarged edition of the poems of Arthur Hugh Clough, with a memoir by Prof. Norton, of Cambridge.

—The eleventh edition (in as many years) of Francis Parkman's 'Discovery of the Great West' now appears, bearing for its principal title 'La Salle' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) This is a proper indication of the essential unity of one of the most dramatic and enchaining historical narratives in the language, and gives a just prominence to the intrepid character who first traced for Europeans the water way from the Great Lakes to the Gulf. The work has been thoroughly revised—with the conscientiousness of a stylist as well as of an historian. After a careful comparison of this last with the original edition, there are barely four chapters out of twenty-nine which are seemingly untouched; and even in these might be discovered some verbal alterations, were they merely rhetorical, such as abound among the weightier corrections, additions, and retrenchments elsewhere. Chapter vi. absorbs the old vi. and vii.; chapter xxii. is interpolated. The chief cause of the changes is the new information about La Salle furnished by M. Margry's recently printed collection of original documents called 'Découvertes et Établissements des Français dans le Sud de l'Amérique Septentrionale.' Not only has it supplied a number of important details about La Salle's movements, but it has shed so much light on his temperament as to affect considerably the final summary of his character, and to mitigate some judgments pronounced upon those who fell out with him. Thus, much more is known and can be told of his difficulties with Beaujeu, greatly to the bluff old sailor's advantage, and with a distinct gain in interest to the tragedy in which Beaujeu's rôle is so much exalted. More graphic than before and more minute is the account of La Salle's failure to make the mouth of the Mississippi, and of the first adventures after the landing in Texas; Joutel's memoir is quoted more freely verbatim, where abstracts were previously given, and this is true generally also of La Salle's own reports already made use of in the first edition. But a word or two appears to have been altered in the faultless humorous episode of Father Hennepin: but Margry supplies on p. 262 a capital description of the boastful friar in La Salle's own words; "Il ne manquera pas d'exagérer toutés choses, c'est son caractère . . . il parle plus conformément à ce qu'il veut qu'à ce qu'il scait." Of Tonty, too, we learn nothing new. La Salle's confession of a natural timidity and solitary disposition which made life in the wilderness more congenial to him than any European employment, and a glimpse of a love affair in one of his letters, are perhaps the greatest novelties in the freshly-acquired data concerning him. So far as regards its hero, this admirable work of Mr. Parkman's seems likely to be undisturbed by future revelations.

—The result of the recent examinations for private collegiate instruction to women at Cambridge is that twenty-eight ladies have begun to study under the professors of Harvard College, four having passed the examinations requisite for entrance upon the full course of four years, and the others taking from one to four special courses each. The number entering for a four years' course would have been greater had there been time after the announcement of the plan for preparation. One of those who entered was from the Boston Girls' Latin School, where others are preparing for next year. Twenty-four courses have already begun, under eight professors, seven assistant professors, and eight tutors. The students are distributed among the different studies thus: Greek 6, Latin 8, Sanskrit 1, English 5, German 5, French 6, Philosophy 4, Political Economy 5, History 4, Music 2, Mathematics 7, Physics 3, Botany 5. Among the students are graduates of Smith and Vassar, students from some of the best public and private schools of New York and New England, and one lady from Missouri. One has passed the Harvard Examinations for Women, and others have been helped by the Society for the Encouragement of Studies at Home. The examinations were made as nearly as possible like those which the candidates for the college were undergoing at the same hours. The professors enter upon the work with evident interest, and the ladies are in earnest. None seem to have come

but with the most praiseworthy motives; none because it is "the thing" to go to Harvard.

—The trustees of the Peabody Educational Fund held their thirteenth annual meeting in this city last week. Dr. Sears, the general agent, reported, among other details, the success of the recently-adopted policy of devoting the larger part of the income of the fund to the promotion of normal schools and the establishment of scholarships in connection with them; there is an evident interest taken in many of the Southern States in supplying the urgent need for trained teachers. Nevertheless, "to the poverty of the Southern people," he said, "must now be added the necessity generally felt of settling without further delay their State debts," which is a polite way certainly of stating a grave difficulty. The income of the Fund has depreciated from about $120,000 to about $83,000, owing to the reduction in the rate of interest on Government bonds, and "from the changes which have been enforced on our treasurer in many of our State securities." Mr. Winthrop, who presided at the meeting, intimated that Mr. Peabody's confident expectations in regard to the Mississippi bonds of the Fund had not been exactly fulfilled, which he regretted, as a little more money would be of the greatest advantage at this moment. One's inference from the entire report is that several at least of the Southern States by their course in regard to their securities are crippling the efforts of their benefactors to assist them, as well as "getting even" with the carpet-bag rings. Dr. Sears's recommendation, that the national Government should make an appropriation for the education of the blacks of the South, was approved and emphasized by Mr. Winthrop.

—The vogue of the Positive Philosophy is nowhere now, perhaps, so great as it was some years ago. In England since the death of the late Miss Martineau it has been said that Comte had but three followers, Professor Beesley, Mr. Congreve, and Mr. Frederic Harrison; and though these have done yeoman service, it has seemed of late as if the shade of discouragement betrayed by them now and then were excusable. In his latest public utterance Mr. Harrison alluded with some bitterness, if we remember aright, to the idleness of talking about Comte to a British audience, and, considering the kicks and cuffs bestowed upon scientific religion on all hands, his feeling is easy to understand. When one has perceived the strength and weakness of both science and religion as hitherto practised, and suddenly discovers that a way to reconcile them and preserve the best of each of them has been invented, and thus a new religion elaborated with, as Mr. Harrison says, "precision and minuteness," it is surely disheartening not only to have Prof. Huxley call this "Roman Catholicism minus Christianity," but to have Roman Catholics themselves and most other people placidly agree with him. It is not surprising that Mr. Harrison should have turned to the Gentiles and determined to preach his gospel to Americans in an article on "Science and Humanity" in the current *North American Review*—a periodical whose recent numbers have been a series of successive detonations, startling us with the fruits of enterprise and vigilance in all fields of intellectual effort. We are not wholly unprepared for Mr. Harrison's paper. Any one who recalls the brilliant but brief career of that stately magazine, the *Modern Thinker*, will remember that we have ourselves accomplished something in Mr. Harrison's line. We are familiar with the "conception of humanity"; we know how it lights up "feeling, thought, and activity"; how it replaces the old anthropomorphic notions of God on the one hand and "the sand of elastic emotion" on the other. That theology is not what it used to be, and now can only "attenuate itself to a pious wish" and "has nothing whatever to say except 'Set not your thoughts and affections on this world'"; that "the heavens no longer declare the glory of God: they declare the glory of Kepler, Galileo, Newton"; that religion hitherto has failed "both to assimilate science and to moralize industry"; that to "ejaculate: 'Lay not up for yourselves treasures where moth and rust doth corrupt' . . . is to outrage the intellect of man," and to debase man to the position of "an idle, hysterical, ignorant mystic"; that what we ought to love and venerate is "the vast and overwhelming consensus of all human lives, the complex movement through the ages of human civilization and thought"—all these stern facts were not only stated long ago in the pages referred to, but set forth with all the beautiful persuasiveness of colored inks and paper. Mr. Harrison in this paper is merely going over what is even to us old ground; we deserve that he should have begun further on; further on he could not have avoided being instructive, since most people have long been fully convinced that, as he says, "the scheme of positivism would not be the solid thing it is if it could be understood without a mass of labor."

—The Ferry laws have met with so much hostile criticism outside of France, and especially in the English press, that it is not surprising to find M. Edmond About writing in the September *Nineteenth Century*, and M. A. Talandier in the October *International Review*, in their behalf. M. About's paper is called "Clerical Education in France," and is formally a reply to a recent article by the Abbé Martin in the same magazine. M. About is experienced in discussions concerning the claims or pretensions, as one chooses, of the clerical party; he is indeed so much at home upon all details of "The Roman Question" that he can write of them quite without violence and ill-temper, and hence with the greater persuasiveness. He explains of the Ferry Bill that only one of its ten articles is strongly objected to, and that that is substantially identical with one voted unanimously in 1844 by Louis Philippe's House of Peers; that only the unauthorized congregations are prohibited from teaching, which is a very different thing from prohibiting religious instruction; that the authorized religious communities give instruction to 1,650,000 children, of whom 1,180,000 are girls; and that the Republic "not only allows bishops, priests, and religious orders to establish as many schools as they like, but it opens to them its own schools, without verifying their qualifications, without testing their competency." There are now in France 22,216 male members of recognized religious bodies, and 113,750 female members; there are, on the other hand, 13,730 monks and 5,899 nuns unrecognized. The 200 Jesuits in 1845 have become 1,509; they own seventy-four houses and various mansions and estates. They are in no sense French, says M. About, yet they have killed the Gallican Church, crushed the Liberal-Catholic movement, and overawe now the bishops and the whole of the lower clergy. They have 9,000 pupils, and these they imbue with "the purest monarchical spirit," and teach hatred of "our very manners, of our institutions, of our laws, of the Civil Code." In fine, as other unauthorized congregations have 7,000 pupils, it appears from M. About's article that the obnoxious Ferry Bill is designed to prevent 16,000 youth from being taught contempt of the Republic; and, he concludes, "It is in the name of liberty that people now seek to shield the implacable enemies of every French liberty from an application of the law." M. Talandier is considerably more radical, and regrets that M. Madier de Montjan's amendment, applying "Article 7" to the authorized bodies, was not adopted. His objections to the Jesuits are chiefly uttered in the interests of morality, and it is not to be denied that some of them are pointed. If the Ferry Bill should be defeated in the Senate, which he thinks not improbable, the very moment of its defeat will be the moment of real danger for the Jesuits, as the disclosures of the "profound immorality of their teaching" made in the debate cannot now be forgotten. From both articles foreign readers will get the notion that the proposed legislation, whether just or not, is by no means as revolutionary as it has been supposed to be.

—The regular season of orchestral music opened on Tuesday night with a concert in Steinway Hall. The occasion was looked forward to with considerable interest, as Mr. Theodore Thomas, after a year's absence, was to make his reappearance before a New York audience. He was warmly received by his numerous friends and admirers, and the concert would have had the character of a quite festive occasion had the performance been one of artistic merit. This was, however, not the case. In the first place, the programme presented no feature of novel interest. Every number but one has been heard in our concert halls over and over again during the past few years, and only a performance of unusual excellence could make amends for the absence of compositions of more striking and novel character. Throughout the performance it was evident that Mr. Thomas had not yet regained the full control over his musicians which is necessary for that perfect smoothness and evenness of interpretation for which he has earned so well-merited a reputation of late years; it was equally clear that the gentlemen who compose his orchestra have not played together for some time, for the greater part of the performance was wanting in spirit, unison, and precision. The first number was Beethoven's Symphony in D No. 2, Op. 36. The rendering of the first two movements was weak and uninteresting. The last two parts, the scherzo and the bright and spirited finale, were given in better style. The air from Bach's suite in D, with which Mr. Wilhelmj made us so familiar during the last season, was played *unisono* by the first violins on the G string, having been transposed one note below the original key, which is D major. The only novelty of the evening was a Slavonic Dance (*tempo di menuetto*) by Anton Dvorak; but even that proved commonplace. It made no impression on a first hearing and deserves only a passing notice. The gem of the evening was Wagner's "Siegfried Idyl," written on the occasion of the birth of the composer's first

son. It is a charming, tender fantasy on quaint old German cradle-songs put to exquisite harmonies and with truly artistic instrumentation. Mr. Rummel was the pianist of the evening. He played Schumann's ever-welcome Concerto in A minor, Op. 54, and Liszt's romantic Fantasia on Hungarian airs. In both numbers Mr. Rummel has been heard before, and been heard to greater advantage. He was unfortunate in the support of an orchestra which was sadly at fault sometimes, particularly in the Hungarian Fantasia. To judge from Tuesday's programme and from that advertised for to-day we are led to believe that Mr. Thomas intends these concerts to be of what is called a popular character, and we take last Tuesday's performance by no means as a type of the more serious work which we anticipate from him as conductor of the Philharmonic Society.

—The Indian Summer this year promises to be of unusually long duration, for of its two boundaries, the September rains and the November Atmospheric Wave, the former has occurred uncommonly early. The prevailing uncertainty regarding the date of the Indian Summer results from the variability of its termini; since the rains which precede it, often called the Equinoctial Storm, or the fall rains, are sometimes concentrated within the last fortnight of September and sometimes scattered throughout that month and October, while the November Cold Wave, averaging the first week in November, is sometimes several weeks late and sometimes falls on the last week of October. Last year it reached New England on the first day of November.

—We doubt if the contrast between Old and New Japan could be more strikingly conveyed, in as many words, than by the title of a large pamphlet which lies before us: 'Memoirs of the Science Department, University of Tokio, Japan. Volume I. Part I. Shell Mounds of Omori.' But there is even a still greater significance in this publication, for the paper on which it is printed is of Japanese manufacture; the composition and press-work were done in a Japanese office, "the compositors not being able to speak a word of English"; and the plates were drawn by Japanese artists, unfamiliar with "the art of drawing in foreign style and the art of lithography." Finally, Japanese scholars, members of the Tokio native Archæological Society, and students of the University have liberally aided in furnishing the material which our countryman, Edward S. Morse, Professor of Zoölogy at Tokio, here discusses. As a native production, then, this *fascicule* is both curious and highly creditable. Professor Morse's part is as excellent as was to be expected from his gift of research and of description, joined to a wide experience in this special field in two hemispheres. The value of his account of the Omori shell mounds is greatly increased by his comparative treatment of their contents, which he places beside those of similar accumulations in New England, Florida, Denmark, and other portions of the globe. They lie at a distance of nearly half a mile from the shores of the Bay of Yedo, and of six miles from Tokio, being cut through by the railroad from the capital to Yokohama. They are remarkable for the vast quantities of pottery, of many shapes and "an almost infinite variety of ornamentation"—with evidences, nevertheless, of economical patching and mending; the paucity of stone implements and total lack of stone arrow-heads, spear-heads, etc.; the total lack also of flint implements—even so much as a flake or chip; and the presence of tablets of clay of extra fineness, comparable to the Cincinnati Tablet of 1841, but of unknown use—whether as quoits, insignia of rank, or amulets. Evidences of cannibalism, of which there is no tradition or record in Japan, exist, as they do in the mounds of New England, Florida, and elsewhere. The pottery never imitates any natural object, never has legs or knobs for support from below, bears the impress of cords and the human hand, and shows no trace of lathe-work. Only one piece—a clay bead—for personal ornament has been found, but this is gracefully decorated by incisions. Implements made of deer's antlers are common; "not a single worked shell, either as an implement, utensil, or ornament, has yet been found." Bones of man, the monkey, deer, wild boar, wolf, dog, and possibly a large ape, occur with the other remains. The lateral flattening of the human tibia exhibited elsewhere by pre-historic man is here the rule, and there are some marked instances of it—one having an index of 0.502 (Broca's Cro Magnon tibia being 0.60). As was to be anticipated, the ancient molluscan fauna differs widely in abundance and in the size and relative proportions of its shells from the same species still extant in the neighboring waters. Part II. of these Memoirs will present the pottery of the shell mounds of Yezo, Tokio, and Higo.

—The recent order of the French Minister that titles of nobility are not to be recognized in official documents unless supported by documentary evidence of genuineness, is likely to cause a great deal of ferment in conservative circles, owing to the very large number of false barons and viscounts, and still larger number of "false nobles," or persons wearing the noble particle "de" on their names without having any legal or moral right to it. Prince Napoleon, in one of his conversations reported by Mr. Senior, asserted that very few of the titled Legitimists of the "noble faubourg" had any claim to the names they bore, which no doubt is strictly true, though of course this only makes them cling to them all the more tenaciously. All threats on the part of the Government to enquire into them or disallow them have hitherto been met by the fiercest resistance, on the plea that the owners could not prove them owing to the loss of their papers in the Revolution. Mr. Hamerton, in his charming picture of French life, 'Round My House,' gives an account of the way in which the false nobles get hold of the "de," which, although it has no political value whatever, has immense social value, particularly when a man is going to marry. The canniest bourgeois father is so tickled by it that he will often give his daughter to a man who has it and nothing else rather than to one with a plain name and a large fortune:

"The most convenient and simple way of assuming the 'particule' when it does not belong to you is this: You buy a little property somewhere in the country which has an old, romantic name—there are thousands of such properties in so old a country as France. Let us suppose, for example, that the name of the property is Roulongeau. Here I may mention a real instance as an example of how the thing may be done. A friend of mine, a notary, came into possession of a ruined castle, which we will call Roulongeau, which was handed over to him in payment of a bad debt. Here was a capital opportunity for self-promotion into the ranks of the nobility. The notary was too honest a man to avail himself of it, but what he might have done very easily is this: he might have begun in the usual way by signing himself by his old name with the territorial designation in brackets after it—thus, Machin [*de Roulongeau*], which has quite a modest appearance, because it only looks as if this Machin wished to distinguish himself from the other Machins, to avoid confusion. The reader sees how easy the upward progress becomes when once this first step has been taken. The brackets are dropped first; then Machin is abandoned as unnecessary, and so you have Monsieur de Roulongeau, which sounds all the more respectable because there really was such a family in the Middle Ages. After that a rich marriage is easily arranged, and why not revive the old barony? Three generations are enough to accomplish the whole evolution; but it needs some courage at first and a little persistence afterwards."

—Any one who looks at a list of French names belonging to the richer bourgeoisie, such as a division list in the Assembly, will be sure to see several in the first stages of the process, with the brackets. Paul de Cassagnac is often in trouble with his "esteemed contemporaries" on this score, as they sometimes refer to the fact that his father is Granier de Cassagnac, and insinuate that his grandfather was Granier (*de Cassagnac*), while Paul himself is De Cassagnac *tout bonnement*. But we must not suppose that this manufacture of false nobles is of recent or post-revolutionary origin. It has been going on for centuries. It was in full blast in Montaigne's day—that is, the early part of the sixteenth century:

"It is a bad custom," he says, "and of very ill consequence, that we have in France of calling every one by the name of his manor or seigneury, and is the thing in the world that confounds pedigrees the most. A younger brother of good family, who has had a manor left him by the name of which he has been known and honored, cannot handsomely quit the name; ten years after his decease it goes to a stranger who does the same; only judge how we shall know these men. There is so great a liberty taken in these changes, that I have not in my time seen any one advanced by fortune to any extraordinary grandeur, who has not speedily had genealogical titles added to him, new and unknown to his father, and who has not been inoculated into some illustrious stem. By good luck the obscurest families are the most proper for changes."

—It is now some three years since Professor Mommsen loudly called attention to the prevalence in Germany of diplomas issued by unknown American faculties, and of degrees obtained in Germany, but which were to an equal extent a fraud upon the public, either because granted "in absentia" or because the theses written to secure them were not original with the candidate. Prof. Mommsen advocated the universal adoption of the rule obtaining in the Prussian universities forbidding the granting of degrees in absentia, and also measures to put a stop to the sale and use of theses. In accordance with these recommendations an example has just been made by the University of Leipzig. It seems that last June a student there handed in a thesis, accompanied by the usual declaration in writing that it had been written without assistance, which was found by the faculty to have been compiled from easily accessible authorities, and to be quite without original thought, on which account the professors charged with examining it refused to accept the work. But before the decision to this effect had been published the authorities of the University of Berlin received a communication from the Government attorney

for that city, containing proof that the thesis in question had not been written by the student who presented it, but by one Dr. R. in Berlin, in consideration of the sum of 450 marks, which, however, had not been paid. These circumstances were forthwith made known to the Leipzig faculty, and the student, being confronted with the evidence, at once confessed. Expulsion from the University followed, an act which entails exclusion from every official position within the Empire.

MORLEY'S BURKE.*

"I WAS not, like his Grace of Bedford, swaddled and rocked and dandled into a legislator: *Nitor in adversum* is the motto for a man like me. I possessed not one of the qualities nor cultivated one of the arts that recommend men to the favor and protection of the great. I was not made for a minion or a tool. As little did I follow the trade of winning the hearts, by imposing on the understandings, of the people. At every step of my progress in life (for in every step was I traversed and opposed), and at every turnpike I met, I was obliged to show my passport, and again and again to prove my sole title to the honor of being useful to my country, by a proof that I was not wholly unacquainted with its laws and the whole system of its interests both abroad and at home. Otherwise, no rank, no toleration even, for me."

These are the words in which Burke describes one aspect of his career, and no one who studies Mr. Morley's admirable biography, by far the best life of Burke which has yet appeared, can doubt that Burke uttered the plain and unexaggerated truth. Throughout his career he was dogged by suspicion and calumny. For one part of his life he was hated by Tories as an out-and-out Whig; for the remainder he was detested by Whigs as a traitor, who, after he had ruined and deserted his party, procured a pension from the court which throughout the whole earlier part of his life he had assailed with unceasing invective. Moreover, no admiration for his genius can blind any one to the fact that the dislike to Burke entertained by many of his contemporaries had a peculiar character. It was not so much hatred as suspicion, nor can it be said that even his friends appear to have been free from a sentiment of distrust. Johnson, who, in favor of Burke, relaxed his prejudice against Whigs, believed him to be the author of Junius—that is, thought it possible that he might be a masked calumniator. The very men whose main title to fame lies in Burke's eulogies rewarded his indefatigable labors with niggardly recognition. The high places of the Government were for Rockingham, for Portman, for Cavendish, or for Fox, whilst the statesman of genius whose eulogies alone keep alive the memory of any one of the Whig magnates, except Fox, had to be content with inferior posts and pecuniary advantages. No doubt one of the grounds why the Whigs did not even think of Burke as a leader was the animosity which his name would have excited. But if this fact is palliation for the neglect shown by men of very moderate calibre towards a statesman of transcendent genius, the question still remains, What was it in Burke that aroused the sentiment that there was to be for him "no toleration"?

The enquiry is worth some consideration, because the answer to it not only throws a curious light on Burke's history and on the sentiment of the time in which he lived, but also, if we are not mistaken, calls attention to a peculiarity in the character of his genius. The causes of the dislike to Burke which made him throughout his career the object of suspicions, calumnies, or slanders, the echo of which has even now hardly died away, are at first sight not very clear. He was obviously adored by his friends. The pathetic parting from Johnson, the unbounded admiration of Fox and Windham, the genial satire of Goldsmith, the warm friendship of Elliot, all testify to the fact that Burke was made to be loved and in many cases received the affection he deserved. His generosity to Barry, his zealous patronage of Crabbe, his fervent benevolence towards miserable outcasts, are all proofs of the warm-heartedness which is almost certain to be repaid by fervent attachment. Of his hatred of oppression, of the desperate struggles in which he engaged for the benefit of men and of nations which could never repay his services even by gratitude, it is needless to say anything, for they form the most salient features in his life. His genius was, moreover, of a kind which early obtained recognition. It was a light which could not be hid, and was discerned as clearly by foes as by friends. Yet admitted virtues and the acknowledged possession of transcendent talents seem in Burke's case rather to have provoked than to have disarmed enmity.

Burke, it may be said, was always a party man, and the hatred he incurred was the natural result of party spirit. But this explanation hardly hits the mark. The tone of the time was rather violent than bitter. Invective was admitted to be what Lord Beaconsfield has termed it, the ornament of debate, and men might speak of one another as scoundrels and even, if occasion called for it, give each other the satisfaction due to a gentleman, without any serious feeling of hatred. North shook his sides with laughter at the philippics of the Opposition, and the Opposition, who had for years spoken of North as a criminal who deserved impeachment, found no difficulty in sitting side by side with him in the same Cabinet. If there was any one whom Johnson might be supposed to abhor it was Wilkes; but Johnson found it easy to bandy compliments and repartees with the great agitator over Mr. Cave's dinner-table. The generation who devoured the letters of Junius liked a good hater, and it may well be doubted whether mere partisanship was thought, even by Burke's detractors, to be any very grievous fault in the man they abused. A reader, in short, who ponders over Burke's virtues and talents is nearly driven to the conclusion that goodness and wisdom in Burke's case excited of themselves the enmity of a wicked and foolish generation, and that his career was marred by that hatred of bad to good which is at least as strong and as natural as the "strong antipathy of good to bad." Yet this is an explanation in which no thoughtful mind can ever permanently rest. No doubt Burke's virtues did excite hostility. Nabobs rich from the plunder of India were not likely to pardon the prosecutor of Hastings. Court minions who battened on pensions were certain to loathe the advocate of economical reform. But it is vain to suppose that virtue alone is the cause of calumny; it is childish to believe that a whole generation is vicious rather than to admit that a hero is not faultless.

Reflection on Burke's life, as told by Mr. Morley, will convince any impartial judge that a good deal of the hostility which Burke aroused arose from a peculiarity in his position which it is a little difficult for modern readers fully to appreciate. Burke was an adventurer. By this we do not mean that he was a man of low principles, or a person who pursued low aims. It must take a very dull critic not to see that Burke's moral and political ideal was far higher than that entertained by the politicians of his age, or indeed by most men, politicians or not, in any age. It would further argue stupidity not to perceive that Burke made great sacrifices for the sake of his principles. Had he turned to the court at the earlier part of his career, place, pensions, and power would have been soon within his grasp. With a little of the suppleness of Bacon he might easily have gained the outward success which, if it added to the lustre of Bacon's life, has injured his permanent fame. But Burke deliberately attached himself to the body of statesmen whom he deemed, whether rightly or not, the most virtuous men of their age. Yet for all this he was an adventurer, though, strange as the combination of terms now sounds, an adventurer not only of genius but of principle. The circumstance which makes him an adventurer is that he took to politics as a profession, and indubitably also intended to make, and more or less succeeded in making, a fortune. Whoever will read Mr. Morley's second chapter will see all that can and all that need be said on this subject. Burke belonged to something like a clan of adventurers, some of whom, it may fairly be supposed, were not as high-principled as himself. "What cannot," writes Mr. Morley, "be denied is that an unpleasant taint of speculation and financial adventureship hung at one time about the whole connection, and that the adventures invariably came to an unlucky end." With this must be combined the fact that Burke was not only an adventurer—that is to say, a person who, embarking in politics as a profession, began life with nothing, and within a few years became the owner of an estate and had pecuniary means for the existence of which it was not easy to account—but was not unnaturally suspected to be a Roman Catholic adventurer. We agree with Mr. Morley that there is no real reason to think that Burke was a Papist, but we are inclined to hold that Mr. Morley passes over too lightly the element of truth which lay at the bottom of the charge of Catholicism. Burke, as has been well remarked by Mr. Froude, was, though not a Catholic, in no real sense a Protestant. He hated dissent, he had but little sympathy with the Reformation, he overrated the virtues and underestimated the vices of the French priesthood. As sometimes happens, a misconception represented what was substantially true. Burke's sympathy for Catholicism was a real and substantial objection to his leadership of an English party. No wise Frenchman would place an Ultramontane at the head of the Republic. Burke's religious sentiments made him a most dangerous guide in any policy which concerned either English Dissenters or French Revolutionists. In the later period of his life he clearly delighted in identifying the cause of Dissent with the cause of Jacobinism.

Burke's attitude towards Dissent is an example of the trait in his character which, after all, had a far closer connection with the malevolence

* 'English Men of Letters. Burke, by John Morley.' London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

that he aroused than have the external circumstances of his career. The defects of the associates to be met with at his home, his rise from poverty to comparative wealth, the curious obscurity which shrouds the opening years of his career in England, the suspicion that he was a Papist and his brother a monk, might influence his contemporaries, but have long ago been forgotten by a generation who know Burke by his works only, and are entranced by utterances of supreme political wisdom clothed in the most perfect language. Yet candid admirers will confess that whenever they disagree with Burke's views there is something which excites irritation in the mode in which the views are put forward. One may, perhaps, go further and say that, except when dealing with American questions (as to which Burke has the calmness which arises from the sense of being absolutely in the right), he never entirely carries even his admirers with him. You feel that an unknown something spoils what would otherwise be perfect. This "something" is a want of justness of mind. Burke was an enthusiast for justice. He would have sacrificed everything on earth to put an end to any act of oppression, but he was not a just man. The calmness requisite to balance one side against another, the attempt to realize what were the strong points of an opponent's case, the faculty even of showing that kind of appreciation of an enemy's position which is requisite if one is fully to expose its weakness, was the one moral or intellectual gift which Burke did not possess. Hence the persons he assailed suffered from a sense of unfairness which was the greater because of the indubitable force of the assault. Not a single weak point in the position of the French Revolutionists escaped his glance. We doubt whether modern critics have discovered a single revolutionary error or fallacy which he overlooked, but to the good or the better side of the revolutionary movement he was as blind as the stupidest of Tory squires. Hence, though a generous man, he displayed in dealing with his opponents a curious lack of generosity. Of George III., during his first attack of madness, Burke used in private expressions which even now shock humanity. He reflected on Lafayette, a man as high-minded as himself, at a time when even a personal foe would have felt attack to be unseemly. His whole attitude towards the Dissenters showed how little he sometimes entered into the grievances of men with whose opinions he did not sympathize. His breach with the Whigs was inevitable ; but what was not inevitable was his attempt to turn the whole force of popular feeling against men like Fox, whose virtues he had known, admired, and eulogized. A curious quotation from Miss Burney's writings which our readers ought to study, in Mr. Morley's book, throws more light on Burke's one great deficiency than a hundred criticisms. It tells how even the rhetorical effect of his splendid diatribe against Hastings was gradually injured by its obvious want of justice to the accused. The answer to the question, in short, why there was no toleration for one of the best of men, and, in many respects, the very wisest of English statesmen, is to be found in the two facts that his career was in some respects that of an adventurer, and that his astounding genius lacked the one great quality of justice.

RECOLLECTIONS OF ENGLAND AND ITALY.*

MME. CRAVEN is well known for her 'Récits d'une Sœur' and a number of later works, in all of which her main purpose is to set forth the beauties of the Roman Catholic faith. This she does with considerable literary skill, a culture that belongs especially to her own old Legitimist world, and with great zeal. She has apparently at last exhausted the saintly characters within reach of her home-circle, and now gives her own personal reminiscences, beginning with a pleasant account of two English homes and the families that occupy them. Broadlands was Lord Palmerston's place in the country, and Mme. Craven was a welcome visitor there in its palmy days, when Lord and Lady Palmerston entertained as became the Prime Minister and his wife. Mme. Craven has seen it, too, under its new owners, the Cowper-Temples, who have substituted prayers for politics, and religion for worldly amusements. Even more interesting is her description of Bridgewater House and the home-life of the Ellesmeres, the Leveson-Gowers of earlier days, where art and literature were the main delight of the family. Broadlands, as Mme. Craven describes it, was a comfortable house, spacious, cheerful, elegant, and attractive, with its two great drawing-rooms, large dining-room, and room between them filled with flowers, on one side the great hall, and on the other side a billiard-room and a library rich in books and pamphlets and newspapers. All the notable men of the day, English and foreign, were in rapid succession guests of Lord Palmerston, while Lady Palmerston received the leaders of the fashionable world over which she had presided from her eighteenth year. The sister of Lord Melbourne, she shared with him an inheritance of tact and intelligence in great questions, which he freely discussed with her, and the charm that made her the recognized leader of fashion served to strengthen the political party that maintained such a long and absolute hold of power during the ministry of her brother and of her husband. Lady Granville and Lady Palmerston were the mistresses of the two great houses in which liberal opinions were at home, in London, but in which also representatives of all political parties, and men and women of genius of all nations, were heartily and gracefully welcomed. Lady Palmerston was blessed with two daughters (by her first marriage with Lord Cowper), Lady Shaftesbury and Lady Jocelyn, who shared their mother's kindly qualities and helped her in the never-ending task of entertainment. A Legitimist of the straitest sect, Mme. Craven found that the pleasant atmosphere of the Broadlands household made even Persigny, the typical imperialist, both agreeable and amusing ; which was small wonder, since he told her, in his odd fashion of thinking aloud, that all the Empire needed to strengthen it was the support of the Legitimists, and that he had often urged the Emperor to secure in them the most honest people in France. Mme. Craven was too good a Catholic to find pleasure in visiting the great English cathedrals, which, consecrated in earlier days to her own faith, were, in her opinion, desecrated by the Protestant worship within their walls. She was too much of a religious controversialist to enjoy the absolute silence on all religious topics that reigned at Broadlands, and she refers to the energetic Churchmanship of Mr. Gladstone and the excitement of the Tractarian movement on the one hand, while on the other the only sign of interest Lord Palmerston gave was by his successful efforts in behalf of Catholic emancipation. Mme. Craven tells a curious story of Charles Greville, the author of the 'Memoirs' that have had, it may be said, such a *succès de scandale*. In a moment, as she thinks, of religious doubt, he begged her to help him to believe, and urged her to have pity on his want of faith ; but she was shrewd enough to refuse to listen to him, or she might have figured in the long roll of the dupes of his simulated pledges in politics and in the other less noble pursuits of his long life.

The Broadlands of to-day Mme. Craven saw lately under the control of its present owners, the Cowper-Temples, when they assembled, as in a sort of religious retreat, two hundred persons of both sexes and all ranks, for prayer and exhortation, led by Mr. and Mrs. Robert Pearsall Smith, of Philadelphia, who alternated in preaching their peculiar doctrine of personal religion, and were followed by a variety of speakers, lay and clerical. Mme. Craven naturally draws a strong picture of the contrast between her two visits at Broadlands, and of course takes advantage of it to commend to her readers the one true Church. Her sketch of Bridgewater House is full of interest, and she traces the lives of its owners from 1836, when her first visit was made, down to the present day. Then she was introduced by her husband to his countrymen, and especially to the Ellesmeres, whose chief she had already known at St. Petersburg, where her father was ambassador when Lord Francis Leveson-Gower came in the suite of the Duke of Wellington to congratulate the Emperor Nicholas on his accession. She tells a romantic story of an unknown young friend who fell mortally ill at the sight of the handsome Englishman, from his likeness to a lover who had jilted her—an illness from which death only relieved her. Mme. Craven sketches the curious position held by Henry Greville, the brother of Charles, and she borrows several of the capital descriptions given by Mrs. Kemble in her 'Old Woman's Gossip.' These were brothers of the future Lady Ellesmere, from whom they differed in many ways. She had profound religious convictions, was unceasing in her charities, and loved a simple country life, in which she found relief from the cares of a London season. At Bridgewater House, with its famous picture-gallery, and at Worsley, their great Lancashire house, both husband and wife recognized perfectly the duties imposed on them by their wealth and their rank, and that true enjoyment was to be had only in their rural retreat near London, to which they could retire in the midst of a session of Parliament or from the fatigues of Court. Their life was spent in giving pleasure and help to others, and Lord Ellesmere's love of art and of literary pursuits was never allowed to interfere with his public duties. Even in building he chose a site that best enabled him to benefit the tenants of his great estates, and to expend part of the income from his coal and iron mines on the men who worked them to his advantage. Thirty years of happy married life were followed by ten years of a widowhood dignified by gracious kindness and cheerful activity.

The other sketches of this volume are more in the strain of Mme.

* 'Réminiscences, Souvenirs d'Angleterre et d'Italie. Par Mme. Augustus Craven.' 8vo, pp. 419. Paris : Didier ; New York : F. W. Christern. 1879.

Craven's earlier books, characterized by an ultra-Romanism and a desire to bring her readers within the pale of the Church. "Holy Week in Rome," "A Year After," "Livia," "Charity at Naples," and "La Cava" are all full of the propagandist purpose that lies so near the author's heart. The occasional autobiographical memoranda scattered through the book are likely to interest the large circle of her readers, and her clear and simple style lends a charm to incidents of ordinary life and every-day experience. As far back as 1840, Mme. Craven and her sister-in-law became sisters of the order of Pilgrims of the Trinity, and of course she shared in the exaltation incident to the part they took in the great church ceremonies. She inherited from her father, M. de la Ferronays, long in the French diplomatic service, a love of such religious services, and at St. Petersburg and at Rome she saw them in all their splendor. For her the benediction of Pius IX., and the spectacle of St. Peter's under his guardianship, were naturally of unusual solemnity, In 1830 she had seen Pius VIII.; in 1840 she knelt at the feet of Gregory XVI., and in 1850 she first received the benediction of Pius IX., whose personal acquaintance she had during his long pontificate.

Mme. Craven closes her book with extracts from her letters written during a sojourn in the neighborhood of Naples, at La Cava, between the Gulf of Naples and that of Salerno, and she shows great literary skill in reproducing the leading features of the curious life led in the mountains, still unchanged by the modern innovations that have made their way into almost every other quarter of Italy. Her pious faith is rewarded by finding new miracles and fresh legends told of various local saints and their altars. Her own industry in authorship, it seems, dates only from 1865, although she had written a few pages in 1830, and from that period her first work and her last draw their material.

The Philosophy of Music. Being the Substance of a Course of Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain, in February and March, 1877. By William Pole, F.R.S., F.R.S.E., Mus. Doc. Oxon., one of the Examiners in Music to the University of London. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. xx. 316.)—The appearance of the work of Prof. Helmholtz, 'Die Lehre von den Tonempfindungen' (The Theory of the Sensations of Tone), may almost be said to have made an epoch in the history of both science and art. All the resources of modern science and all the learning of past ages, under the most favorable external circumstances, seemed to have been concentrated in a single individual and brought to bear upon the solution of problems which had long baffled investigation. Musicians and men of science were astonished and, perhaps, a little dazed by the spectacle of a man who seemed equally at home in construing a crabbed sentence in a Greek writer on music, in treating a problem in acoustics with all the apparatus of the differential calculus, in discussing minute points in the anatomy of the human ear, or in criticising a chorus of Handel, a symphony of Beethoven, or a delicate turn in an air of Mozart. The gravest men of science became enthusiastic in their commendations of his patience, his care, his fertility of resource, his marvellous ingenuity, and his many brilliant discoveries. The natural result was that a great number of persons of all degrees of ability and scientific preparation began immediately to repeat his experiments and expound his theories. This was the case especially in England, and among the books the publication of which was due in a greater or less degree to the work of Helmholtz may be mentioned the treatises on sound by Lord Rayleigh, Sedley Taylor, and Prof. Tyndall. The work before us is due to the same cause. Mr. Pole tells us that his principal object has been to render more accessible to the musical world a portion of the work of Helmholtz, which is somewhat difficult to understand, and which, though really the most important, has received less attention than it deserves. The physical and scientific parts of Helmholtz's work have, he thinks, been abundantly illustrated, to the neglect of the æsthetical portion. Further, as the word "theory" is very vague, and as the subjects he intends to treat are essentially philosophical in their nature, he has adopted the title "The Philosophy of Music." He says (p. 15):

"The popular impression probably is that music is altogether an artificial and fanciful thing, having no more fixed principles than the fashion of a lady's bonnet or the pattern of a wall-paper. On the other hand, the notion most generally prevalent among *musicians* is, that the rules of their art are founded in imperative natural laws which will not admit of violation and scarcely of alteration. Musicians are aware that great changes take place from time to time as the art advances, but they account for this by the assumption of a gradual progress in science, every change involving, as they think, either the discovery of some new natural law or the extension of some old one.

"Philosophical investigation will show that the truth lies between these two extremes. It is possible to trace the simpler elements of music back to certain physical and physiological principles; but this connection does not go very far, for when the enquiry reaches the more complicated and elaborate features of musical structure, the physical explanations will be found to fail, and recourse must be had to the influence of æsthetic considerations."

After a careful perusal of the book we are compelled to say that any clear enunciation and exposition of these "æsthetic considerations" is nowhere to be found. Its whole tendency is negative. It asks many questions which the reader would like to see answered, and dismisses them with the declaration, not only that no answer can be given, but with an intimation that the questions are impertinent and no answer is required. As may be inferred from the extract we have given, Mr. Pole seems still to be in the thraldom of a habit of which we had supposed that scientific men of the present day were pretty well cured. When the evidence is too overwhelming to be disputed, he admits that phenomena in art and science are regulated by certain fixed and definite laws. When they become a little too complicated for our present knowledge and means of investigation to unravel, he denies that any law exists. The old philosophical mandate, "Continue to seek," finds little favor in his eyes. In all difficult cases he seems decidedly inclined to take the side of the "lady's bonnet and the wall-paper." That there have been great changes in musical taste, that there have been and still are great differences in the music of different nations, that many things which called forth the enthusiastic admiration of musicians a century or two ago are now obsolete, no one acquainted with history will deny. But where, according to Mr. Pole's statement, most musicians see only progress and development, the supplanting of what was good by what is better, Mr. Pole sees only a capricious change of taste. Most of the rules of musical composition, as laid down in the treatises on that subject, Mr. Pole regards as arbitrary. Perhaps next year the rule will be reversed. In support of his views he relates (p. 299) an anecdote, as he says, of Beethoven:

"Some critic remarked that a passage in one of his later works was 'not allowed.' 'Then,' replied the composer, 'I allow it; let that be its justification.'"

Mr. Wade, in his hand-book for the piano, tells essentially the same story of Mozart. The story will also be found in Holmes's life of Mozart with the passage which gave rise to it. We have not the book at hand, but, if we recollect aright, the passage referred to is from one of Mozart's concertos. However, be its origin what it may, all the story proves is that the composer thought proper in certain circumstances to violate a rule which in most cases he himself followed. Most reasonable persons will readily assent to the assertion of Helmholtz, that nothing is absolutely forbidden in music. But that does not prove that all rules are merely arbitrary.

In its treatment of many points in the history of music, and in the department of acoustics, this is an excellent book. Its chief divisions are: the "Material of Music," that is, musical tones; the "Elementary Arrangements," or musical scales; and the "Structure of Music," as made up of harmony and melody. Although in most respects Mr. Pole closely follows Helmholtz, yet it is with the freedom of a man who thoroughly understands his subject. From the stores of his own knowledge he has contributed much that will not be found in the work of the German philosopher, or at least not in so condensed and convenient a form. No work with which we are acquainted presents in so clear and practical a form the elementary mathematical facts which lie at the basis of the science of acoustics, requiring nothing more than a knowledge of common arithmetic for their complete comprehension. The author's account of the nature of Greek music is a model of simplicity and clearness. Equally good is his sketch of the history of early church music, and his account of the "plagal and authentic modes." The development of the modern system of harmony out of these ancient forms is traced in a manner always interesting and often ingenious, though Mr. Pole's philosophy unfortunately too often leads him to regard it as merely a chapter of happy accidents.

The Life of Charles James Mathews, chiefly autobiographical, with selections from his correspondence and speeches. Edited by Charles Dickens. (London: Macmillan & Co., 2 vols.; New York: Harper & Bros., Franklin Square Library No. 71).—Mr. Dickens's portion of this work—between a third and a half of it—has been written with the aid of abundant letters to and from its subject. Mathews's mother, the second wife of the first Charles Mathews (whose biography she had written in four volumes), died at the age of eighty-seven, in October, 1869. She had carefully preserved every scrap of writing from her son, or to him, or about him; and to this store Mathews himself had added, so that

there was no lack of material ready to the editor's hand. This very plethora of matter, however, has proved unfortunate for Mr. Dickens. The mother's papers, as might have been expected, are ample in detail about Mathews's earlier years; and Mathews himself, in an unfinished autobiography, seems to have supposed the public likely to be most interested in learning about his youth, when he was an architect, a pupil of Pugin's, and about his journeyings with the Blessingtons, when he almost had his duel with Count d'Orsay. Mr. Dickens has fallen in with this manifestly erroneous idea, and recounts the early life of his subject at length, but treats the later and far more important part of his career—after he went upon the stage—with a strange want of proportion. It would take more than twice the barely twenty-five pages (of the American edition), which Mr. Dickens devotes to his dramatic doings, to do justice to Mathews's career on the stage; to his influence as an actor, both in England and America; to his several unfortunate attempts at management, and to his productions as a playwright. As a dramatist Mr. Dickens's notice of him is extremely inadequate; no list is given of his dramatic works, with the times and places of first performance, and no estimate is made of their merit. As a manager and as an actor Matthews is better treated, for we find in the appendix lists of the pieces brought out under his management of Covent Garden and the Lyceum, and a list of the plays in which he had acted—though this last, even, is incomplete and unsatisfactory; it does not give the part he played in each piece, nor the date when he first played it.

Still, in spite of shortcomings like these, the book is to be cordially welcomed. It is full of anecdotes, nearly all of them fresh and well told. Mathews's frequent letters are as light and sprightly as possible, which, by the way, causes one to regret the omission of the familiar epistle to Mr. Charles Reade. His correspondence gives us his views on his trips to this country in 1838 and 1857. Mathews ought to have had the best feeling toward this country, because he owed both of his wives to his visits to us. The second he married here in 1858, and the first he married in 1838 because he was coming here. It is to be remarked that he did not seem to understand the objection shown to Mme. Vestris when she came here with him forty years ago. It was merely to do obeisance to our alleged prudery that they had gone through the form of marriage before they left England; and yet Mathews failed to see that the opposition to Mrs. Mathews came from those who objected to the character of Mme. Vestris. Mathews made two appearances in Paris; it may be remembered that Talma was always anxious to go over to London to play *Hamlet* in English, and that the late J. B. Booth, on one occasion at least, acted *Oreste* in French with a French company in New Orleans; so Mathews went over to Paris in 1863 and acted at the Variétés in "L'Anglais Timide," a French play adapted by himself from the English "Cool as a Cucumber." His success was so great that he returned two years later to play in "L'Homme Blasé," the piece from which the English "Used Up" had been taken by Boucicault and himself, and in which Mathews had made a great hit as *Sir Charles Coldstream* (ludicrously misprinted *Coldcream* on page 63 of the Franklin-Square edition). Mr. Dickens translates M. Sarcey's criticism on the performance. It is highly eulogistic and well worth studying, as it sheds incidentally some light on the reasons why a performance in Paris is generally better than a performance in London or New York. The French act at rehearsal. Mathews did not attempt it, but seemed to be fumbling for the words, to the intense disgust of the author, Duvert (called Duval, p. 64), who was hoping great things from the English actor, as Arnal, the French original of the part, had very highly praised Mathews's performance—praise which the latter justified when he really did act. M. Sarcey preferred the Englishman in the first act and the Frenchman in the second, and all readers of M. Sarcey's criticisms know the very high opinion he always expresses of Arnal. One of the anecdotes told in the earlier part of the book suggests that possibly Mathews may have taken a few hints for his *Sir Charles Coldstream* from Lord Blessington. It may be noted that M. Got, of the Comédie-Française, in his recent letter on the English stage, referred to the acting of Charles Mathews in "The Game of Speculation," Mr. Lewes's adaptation of Balzac's "Mercadet, le Faiseur," as a performance from which he himself had been able to get more than one hint—evidence in Mathews's favor which would have delighted him immensely could he have lived eighteen months longer to hear it, as he had more than once seen his *Affable Hawk* contrasted with M. Got's *Mercadet* greatly to the French actor's advantage.

A Manual of International Law. By Edward M. Gallaudet, Ph.D., LL.D., President and Professor of Moral and Political Science in the College for Deaf Mutes, Washington, D.C. (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1879.)—It appears from Mr. Gallaudet's preface that M. Calvo's well-known treatise on international law has been taken as the basis of his manual; but as the author does not call it an abridgment it is proper to consider it upon its own merits. A very large portion of the volume is taken up with historical accounts of the leading events which have marked great epochs in the development of international law, and with this portion we have no fault to find. This, however, is not the most important part of such a work. The really essential requisite in a treatise on law of any kind, and particularly international law, is a correct statement of the principles which are recognized as governing its development. We do not mean that these are fixed and unchangeable—they have changed enormously within the last three centuries; but without clear views as to the principles, the changes themselves cannot be properly explained. Mr. Gallaudet is a professor of ethics and politics rather than a lawyer, and it is his indifference to legal distinctions which is the cause of the chief faults of his book. To give one or two instances of what we mean—in the introduction occurs a reference to the *jus gentium* of the Romans, and a comparison of what Mr. Gallaudet says on the subject with what Calvo says shows at once that the former does not clearly understand what Calvo says about it. "From all the definitions given of the term *jus gentium* by Roman jurists, it appears clearly that these words do not signify a rule of conduct applicable to international relations, but only the general principle of right grounded in human nature, influential only so far as civilization had at that time permitted it to be established and comprehended." This is Gallaudet's translation of a single sentence from Calvo (vol. i. p. 4). It is, in the first place, incorrectly translated, for Calvo's "principe général de droit" means really a general principle of *law*, not *right*; and, in the second place, it is entirely inadequate, for it leaves out what is a most important part of the history of the term—the fact that it originally meant a particular kind of positive law administered by regular tribunals. A comparison of what Calvo and Savigny have to say on the subject, with the remarks of Austin, would have saved Mr. Gallaudet the error of giving an account of a very intricate and difficult subject in a single misapplied sentence.

Turning to page 50, we find that Mr. Gallaudet defines international law as "the entirety of the mutual obligations of states," or "the duties to each other they are bound to fulfil, and the rights which, one of another, they may properly demand." This definition is imperfect because it contains no adequate explanation of the fundamental difference between the sanction which enforces these rights and duties and that which enforces municipal law. To put the matter to a direct test, Mr. Gallaudet's definition covers the case of treaties between two or more states, which may be quite outside of and even hostile to the general principles of international law. Besides this, international law does not deal with the mutual obligations of states alone. Piracy is an offence against the law of nations—so much so that a pirate is regarded as an enemy of all mankind; but there is not necessarily any state responsibility in the matter. The pirate is dealt with directly, if caught, as a pirate, and no question between states can arise out of his capture or execution—unless, indeed, some state has supported him in his depredations. But Mr. Gallaudet does not seem to think that definitions are of much importance, inasmuch as he alludes (p. 56) to the fact that we speak of "moral laws, physical laws, laws of quantity, etc.," as an argument to show that "international law" is a perfectly proper term for the collection of principles which generally go by this name. It is only fair to say, however, that in this respect Mr. Gallaudet's book does not differ materially from many other works on the law of nations of recognized authority. Accuracy of legal definition is rarely to be met with; and most legal writers are content to take definitions handed down by their predecessors unquestioned. It is high time, however, if international law is to make any progress in the future, that writers who undertake to explain what it is should make accuracy their principal aim.

Illustrated Biographies of the Great Artists: Titian, by Richard Ford Heath, B.A., Hertford College, Oxford; Rembrandt, by John W. Mollett, B.A., Officier de l'Instruction Publique; Raphael, by N. D'Anvers, author of 'The Elementary History of Art'; Tintoretto, by W. Roscoe Osler, of University College School, London; Hans Holbein, from Dr. Woltmann's book, by Joseph Cundall, author of 'The Life and Genius of Rembrandt'; Van Dyck and Franz Hals, by Percy Rendell Head, of Lincoln College, Oxford; Turner, by W. Cosmo Monkhouse, author of 'Studies of Sir E. Landseer.' (New York: Scribner & Welford.)—These

are pleasant books to handle and to hold, medium octavos, rather thin in proportion to their size, having from 100 to 120 pages each except the Turner, which is one-fourth thicker, in flexible blue cloth covers, with a design in black taken from the title-page of a Terence of 1499. The idea of the series is a good one, viz.: that of making up a brief biography of each famous artist, and an account of his important works, from the very latest authorities; and of publishing it in a pleasant and cheap form, for very general reading. At the retail price of $1 25 no one can call these books dear. Few persons have observed how rapidly new books on fine-art subjects succeed one another nowadays, and how commonly they are the result of new investigation and discovery, and therefore real additions to our common stock of knowledge. The press of London, of Paris, and of the important German centres of knowledge is continually at work with these new contributions to a branch of knowledge which had no existence fifty years ago. The circular signed by the London publishers, and bound in with the earlier volumes of those before us, speaks very properly of this matter, and calls attention to the very recent treatises on the times, lives, and labors of Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Correggio, the work of Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle on Titian, and that of Mr. Gilbert on Titian's country, Cadore; of Dr. Thausing on Dürer and Herr Vosmaer on Rembrandt, and names the new edition of Dr. Woltmann's book on Holbein, having been printed too early in the year to allow of mention of the latest and apparently the best book on that artist and his work—the splendid folio of Paul Mantz. That this is so is proved by the Rembrandt biography before us; our readers are aware how great a part of Rembrandt's art-work is contained in his etchings, how unquestioned is his supremacy among artist-engravers, and how wide and general an interest his engraved work has excited. Mr. Haden, the English landscape designer and etcher, has published an admirable monograph upon the etched work of Rembrandt, but so brief, and so purely technical and practical, so confined to the evidence contained in the etchings themselves, and so recently and so privately issued, that it is rather surprising to find it quoted by Mr. Mollett. But this pamphlet, and Dr. Middleton's very lately printed catalogue, have both been freely and properly used.

The 'Rembrandt' is very nearly what it ought to be, simple and workmanlike in arrangement, and a model to be followed in the preparation of other books of the series. The 'Titian' is rather vague and wordy, and is too full of florid writing and exclamations to allow of a pleasant and orderly giving of information. The 'Raphael' is interesting and readable, and would be excellent but for the too monotonous pouring out of praise on all the master's works alike—the good and the not so good. The 'Tintoretto' is confessedly half made up of Mr. Ruskin's opinions and observations; so little has been written about the artist that Mr. Ruskin's constantly reiterated admiration could hardly be ignored, and the author, as it happens, is very ready to endorse it. Still more clearly stated is the derivation of the whole book on Holbein from Dr. Woltmann's 'Holbein und seine Zeit,' an excellent and complete monograph. The essays on Van Dyck and Hals, brief as they are, have more the air of independent biographies, meant for reading as well as reference. And finally, the Turner, the longest, seems to be also the most serious of all, having been composed with evident care, and a desire not to lose hold of reason and sense in homage to splendid genius.

It is matter of regret that the illustrations are very unsatisfactory. With the exception of a map of the Cadore country, in the 'Titian,' a map so badly reproduced that it is almost illegible, and of a copy of part of an ancient view of Leyden in the 'Rembrandt,' Ingres's sketch of Raphael's birthplace, and a few more, the pictures had better have been omitted. It would be worth the expense and trouble to some publisher to have memorandum-sketches made of world-renowned pictures similar to those which illustrate catalogues of many exhibitions nowadays. Such sketches, or the more elaborate engravings given by *Harper's* and *Scribner's Monthly*, when those magazines show us the best they can do, are what this series of biographies should have.

Famous French Authors. Biographical Portraits of Distinguished French Writers. By Théophile Gautier, Eugène de Mirecourt, etc., etc. Illustrated. (New York: R. Worthington. 1879.)—This is, as its title indicates, a collection of pen-portraits which nothing can prevent from being in a measure both entertaining and instructive literary reading. If it were not for this the way in which the book is got up would be fatal to both its value and its interest. There are "portraits" of Gautier, Sainte-Beuve, Madame Swetchine, Madame de Girardin, Arsène Houssaye, George Sand, De Musset, Hugo, Paul de Kock, Lamartine, Gavarni Baudelaire, Balzac, Béranger, Monnier, Dumas, Maurice de Guérin, Diderot, and La Fontaine. They are of all degrees of merit; some of them are by distinguished pens, that of Gautier, for example, being taken from Sainte-Beuve's 'Nouveaux Lundis,' and so excellent; others are compilations by some literary journeyman who has felt it safe to refrain from all criticism, but otherwise has shown no judgment, such as the chapter on Sainte-Beuve himself. That on Madame Swetchine is by M. Pontmartin; that on Madame de Girardin, by Imbert Sainte-Amand; Mirecourt's 'Portraits et Silhouettes' is largely drawn upon—for a most unsympathetic sketch of George Sand among others. Many are printed anonymously, including several of the most important, such as that of Balzac. Even in these there is no sense of proportion or fitness shown; M. Paul de Kock gets more attention than La Fontaine or Béranger. Gautier's name appears on the title-page, but is signed to no chapter, and there is nothing to indicate that any portion of the book is translated from his writings. The translation is not particularly idiomatic, many locutions being literally rendered, and the proof-reading is none too careful. There is no scheme whatever about the book except that all the authors treated are French. There are appalling wood-cuts of Gautier, Lamartine, Béranger, Dumas, and others, but the reader unfamiliar with their features will perhaps fail to identify some of them. Altogether there is a frank air of brigandage and carelessness of concealment about the manner in which the work is constructed that is almost humorous. There could hardly be a more amusing instance of literary barefacedness, for example, than to find, as one does, pp. 272–306, Matthew Arnold's essay on Maurice de Guérin, word for word, in a collection of sketches of 'Famous French Authors,' with no sign whatever to indicate its origin.

Tanagra Figurines. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 44; with four heliotype plates.)—In the *Nation* of Jan. 30, 1879, we gave an account of the collection of Tanagra statuettes then on sale by M. Feuardent in this city. This collection was shortly afterwards, as we stated at the time, purchased by Mr. T. G. Appleton, and presented by him to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The interest excited by these charming little productions of a branch of Greek sculpture unknown till within a few years has led to the publication of this quaint little volume, which professes to present to its readers what is known and what is conjectured concerning the character, intention, and history of the Tanagra *figurini*. It is obviously the work of a writer possessed of a strong interest in the subject, though somewhat unskilled in literary composition. The historical and archæological learning of the book, however, needs serious revision. Both the historian and the philologist would be startled by many both of the author's statements and speculations. But there are touches of vivacity which make the pages entertaining, and we commend the little volume to those who have not access to the works of foreign scholars upon the subject.

Fern Etchings. By John Williamson, author of 'Ferns of Kentucky.' (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. 1879.)—The good reception of the smaller book referred to in the title, and the enjoyment which Mr. Williamson evidently has in his own handiwork, have led him to illustrate in a similar way, but on a somewhat larger scale, all the Ferns of the Northern and Western Atlantic States. The new work is a quarto, made up of fifty-five etched plates and as many leaves of letter-press. The latter gives the botanical and the popular or anglicized name of the Fern, and the technical characters, generally taken from Gray's Manual. A few of the etchings are reproductions or reimpressions of the former plates; generally they are new and better; many are particularly good and characteristic, considering the very reduced size of the larger subjects and the absence of color. For our own part we do not miss the latter when we have good representations of outline and habit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Bayne (P.), Lessons from My Masters	(Harper & Bros.)	
Bigelow (J.), Life of Benjamin Franklin, written by himself, 3 vols., new ed.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	$4 50
Coates (H. T.), Children's Book of Poetry	(Porter & Coates)	3 00
Dick's Irish Dialect Recitations	(Dick & Fitzgerald)	
Dick's Ethiopian Scenes	" "	
Dick's Original Album Verses	" "	
Gibbs (H. H.), Silver and Gold, swd.	(Effingham Wilson)	
Hillebrand (K.), Geschichte Frankreichs, Part II., swd.	(F. A. Perthes)	
Howgate (Capt. H. W.), Cruise of the *Florence*, swd.	(James J. Chapman)	
Joyce (R. D.), Blanid: a Poem	(Roberts Bros.)	1 50
Kulpe (W.), Lafontaine: seine Fabeln und ihre Gegner, swd.	(Wilhelm Friedrich)	
Littell's Living Age, July-Sept., 1879	(Littell & Co.)	
Mann (H.), Ancient and Mediæval Republics	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	3 00
May (Sir T. E.), Constitutional History of England, 2 vols.	(A. C. Armstrong & Son)	5 00
Moncel (Count du), The Telephone, Microphone, and Phonograph	(Harper & Bros.)	1 25
Oncken (W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Parts 7, Peter the Great, 8, Ancient Greece, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Rydberg (V.), The Last Athenian: a Tale	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	
Scudder (H. E.), The Bodleys Afoot	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	1 50

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 16, 1879.

The Week.

OHIO underwent on Tuesday a political revolution by which not only was the Republican State ticket, with Mr. Foster at its head, elected by more than 25,000 majority, but the Legislature too has possibly been made Republican, from having been Democratic by 42 majority. This result is altogether what it should be; and not only that, it is what all men, of both parties, expected from the moment the issue was made up and the candidates were chosen. Purer demagogy than that which characterized the Democratic canvass, or more deserving of utter defeat, has seldom been seen, and every one should rejoice in the fate that has overtaken Messrs. Ewing and Thurman, after their degrading subserviency to the spirit of Greenbackism. Mr. Thurman, whether or not the Legislature prove able to appoint a Republican to succeed him in the Senate, has lost his chance of the higher prize of the Democratic nomination for President. As for the national bearing of the election otherwise, it undoubtedly will strengthen the Stalwarts and the Machine in the November elections. This may mean an acceleration of the Grant boom, or (seeing that the need of the Strong Man diminishes as the North becomes solider) an abatement of it; and certainly Mr. Sherman must feel that as against Grant or any other rival his "claims" have been vastly strengthened by the vote on Tuesday. We should not omit to notice the great gain in local government which must attend the change of party supremacy in Ohio, the Democratic rule having been low in tone, corrupt of purpose, reckless as to means, and dangerous to the welfare and the liberties of the State.

This has been one of Mr. Sherman's bad weeks. His letter to Silas B. Dutcher granting him leave of absence to stump the State for Cornell at the public expense has been published. He "cordially approves" of his taking part in the campaign, and says he has no "objection to the Government employees making contributions to the fund." Other Custom-house employees, it is announced, are going to leave their posts and travel about the State on the same errand, on the invitation of General Arthur and with the permission of their superiors. Whatever this may be, it is not in the line of "thorough, radical, and complete" reform of the civil service; in fact, it is not civil-service reform at all. We know of nothing that can excuse or palliate it unless it be "State rights." It is, moreover, in contravention of the famous civil-service order, and the terms of Mr. Sherman's letter will help to confirm the opinion on which all civil-service abuse is based—that the employees of the Government are the servants of the party and not of the country at large. All the old hacks are rejoicing over it, as another proof of the "humbug" of the civil-service reform movement. Moreover, things of this sort make it certain that we shall have no legislation in aid of the reform, and that the Democrats will make no pretence of following it out. We cannot expect Congressmen to pass acts in aid of a change which the Administration that recommends it shows it does not itself believe in; nor can we expect the Democrats to lay aside a weapon which the Republicans have freely used against them. The next Democratic President we have will, of course, consider it his duty to dismiss Dutcher and his colleagues and put men in their place who will stump for the Democrats.

It seems, by the bye, very hard, if not impossible, to get into the heads of the opponents of reform the distinction in this matter which exists between Cabinet officers and other officers of the Government. Mr. Sherman and Mr. Schurz, they say, go stumping, and why not Dutcher and Noble? The reason is that the members of the Cabinet necessarily change with the Administration, and distinctly represent the party in its ideas and methods; Custom-house officers do not. The former cannot be permanent; the latter ought to be, or at all events ought not to have their bread dependent on the result of each election.

While the Secretary of the Treasury is bringing civil-service reform into contempt, the "regulations governing appointments and promotions in the customs service and Sub-treasury of the city of New York" approved by the President on March 6, and for which Mr. Sherman has heretofore had the credit, are in quiet and, we are glad to add, successful operation. Last week the third general examination was held at the Custom-house, exhausting the list of applicants; and although the improved condition of the labor market has drawn off the best of the unemployed, the class just passed was of a noticeably good character. Only four months have elapsed since the first appointments under the system were made, and these are probationary for two months longer, but the Examining Board is satisfied that the appointees are superior to those heretofore selected by the private judgment of the heads of offices, or in deference to the representations of personal friends or the dictates of political "influence." The examinations are conducted openly, and it is easy to obtain an invitation to be present; indeed, the Board would be pleased if its efforts to secure the attendance of "prominent citizens" to inspect them and test their thoroughness and impartiality, and "certify the results," were responded to in a way to develop a proper degree of interest in so important an experiment.

Senator Conkling made his first speech of the campaign at the Brooklyn Academy of Music. There was nothing peculiar in the occasion beyond his speech, except the appearance of Mr. Beecher, who also made some remarks, which we have commented on elsewhere. Mr. Conkling made no reference to State politics or State affairs, confining himself pretty closely to the bad conduct of the South for many years past. The principal feature in the speech was a list of bad things chargeable to "State rights." It is useless to enumerate them, but we must mention one as an illustration of the mental condition of the orator. He said "State rights sent the army into Kansas, and by war, murder, and outrage attempted to force slavery upon her and upon other coming States." Now, here is the construction put on this same event by the Republican Convention of 1860, which nominated Abraham Lincoln:

"That the maintenance inviolate of the rights of the States, and especially the right of each State to order and control its own domestic institutions according to its own judgment exclusively, is essential to that balance of powers on which the perfection and endurance of our political fabric depend; and we denounce the lawless invasion by armed force of the soil of any State or Territory, no matter under what pretext, as among the gravest of crimes."

Mr. G. W. Curtis has thought it necessary to resign his position as Chairman of the Richmond County Republican Convention, owing to the "serious dissatisfaction" felt by some of the Republicans of the Convention at his recommending the scratching of the ticket in *Harper's Weekly*. In his letter he reiterates his belief in the right to scratch as the only effective way, "in a Government like ours, to correct and purify the management of parties." The reading of the letter caused a good deal of confusion in the Convention, but the resignation was accepted, Mr. Curtis's successor defending him. It is to be regretted that, if Mr. Curtis thought his course a proper one, he should have resigned without being positively called on to do so, inasmuch as resignation is, in a certain sense, a confession of error. Moreover it is concession to dissatisfaction, which is almost certain to die out after the election, whether Cornell be elected or not. The only thing that is really punished under the rules of party discipline is difference of opinion about party aims rather than about particular means. But Mr. Curtis's opinion would undoubtedly

have had more weight if he had protested in the Convention. We believe he intended to do so, but the expected opportunity did not come. If Cornell is elected, however, the more ardent brethren will be so rejoiced that they will forgive Mr. Curtis readily. If he is not elected they will be sorry they did not heed what he said, and will forgive him for that reason. The state of mind of working politicians for a few weeks before election is always a little peculiar, and it is not always safe to take what they say at that period too seriously to heart.

The party dissatisfaction with Mr. Curtis is, it appears, not confined to Richmond County. The current number of *Harper's Weekly* prints a letter from the publishers in reply to one from a "Southern Republican," complaining of Mr. Curtis's editorials and terming him "a soreheaded, self-conceited disorganizer in the Republican party." Its tone and statements leave no doubt of the substantial accord subsisting between Mr. Curtis and the Messrs. Harper upon the question of individual independence of the party Machine, and as it was written and sent without Mr. Curtis's knowledge it is in the nature of a delicate compliment as well as a frank vindication. The Messrs. Harper say that their *Weekly*, which has always denounced Democratic error, must "with equal force and from weightier motives contend with the evils that arise within the Republican party." If it cannot do so successfully they "would rather discontinue its publication," and they have "the same feeling respecting the party," which, "if its success depends upon the surrender of the personal independence of its best friends, deserves to die." It seems to them more important for it to get rid of "a dictatorial leadership" than to succeed under such leadership. They add that Mr. Curtis made at Saratoga the only protest then possible in voting against making Mr. Cornell's nomination unanimous. The "Southern Republican" had been misled, perhaps, by the Stalwart cartoons of Mr. Curtis's "Wicked Partner," Nast, into supposing disapproval of the second Southern plot for the overthrow of the Government inconsistent with disapproval of Senator Conkling's manner of running his Machine in New York.

The Independent Republican Committee have this week put the Union League Club in a position which we trust will not prove embarrassing, by writing to the Club Committee on Reform a very trenchant letter, which recalls the opinion of Cornell and his ways expressed by the Club in 1876. It also cites Mr. Sherman's opinion of the manner in which Cornell discharged his duties as a Custom-house officer, expressed in his letter to the Senate when he (Cornell) was removed; refers to the light thrown on his capacity as a business man by his testimony touching his own assets and investments when examined on supplemental proceedings as an insolvent debtor in 1876; compares the cost of Custom-house administration under his rule with the cost since his dismissal; mentions the defeats suffered by the party in this State under his management, and reminds the Club of his description of their reform resolutions in 1876 as "impudent declarations." The Committee also make unpleasant reference to the complicity of Soule, the Republican nominee for State Engineer, in the canal frauds, as revealed in the Eleventh Report of the Canal Investigating Commission. The letter is, in fact, very racy, and the point and vigor of its style are something new in political documents of this character.

One passage in the letter is marked by very grim humor, in which the Scratchers, returning from a sail in their "bark" "on the furthest verge of what they think they know," catch sight of the Organ "skirting the shores of what he hopes he has learned," and "go for him." They bump his "bark" unmercifully without regard for his grey hairs, and make it leak all over, and leave him with his aged legs in a foot of water, and with a winter of articular rheumatism in store for him. In plain English, they recall the fact that in 1876 he, too, was shocked with Cornell and the Machine, and indignantly asked "what decent Republicans were going to do about it." "Plain speech," he cried, "is very well; it will continue timely till the convention meets, but will that be all?" We cannot dispose of this strong language by calling it an outburst of youthful impatience, for if the account he now gives of his age and experience be correct he cannot have been a day less than seventy-seven in 1876. His severity with the young men is also evidently intended to be taken as a sign of his own longevity. An unfortunate person, signing himself "A Stanch Republican," wrote to him the other day complaining of the way the nominations were made at Saratoga. He rebuked him sternly for his youth and threatened to publish his age. He evidently wishes no one under fifty to vote the ticket.

The Tammany opposition to Governor Robinson have started what their enemies call a "travelling combination troupe" on a stumping tour throughout the State in behalf of Mr. Kelly's candidacy. Among the members are Mr. Kelly himself, Mr. S. S. Cox, Mr. J. H. Strahan, Mr. O. B. Potter, formerly of the Committee of Safety, Mr. John B. Haskin, and others less eminent, but perhaps not less influential. Mr. Dorsheimer was expected to join the company during its progress, but for some unexplained reason has not hitherto done so; Mr. Strahan has returned to this city; and Mr. Cox, who was naturally depended on to some extent for the gayety of the trip, has become ill and dropped out. The others have stuck to their work nobly, and have held apparently well-attended meetings at Albany, Troy, Utica, and elsewhere. The *World*, however, which is doing excellent service in showing up Tammany "methods," and every week or two reports several defections from the Tammany ranks, due to disgust at the frightful character of these "methods," assures us that these meetings are exclusively composed of Republicans, who constitute Mr. Kelly's sole support in the campaign, and who feign to swell the ranks of the disaffected in order to dishearten honest Democrats. Mr. Kelly's speeches are also reported failures by the same journal, which says that on one occasion he was "obliged to stop until the house had half-emptied itself," and that "when he finished, the house was not more than one-third full"; and that on another, "when he was through, the audience rushed pell-mell from the building." The inference from this is that the Republican audiences not only publicly affronted their "ally," but by their base desertion defeated the object for which they had assembled, and that therefore Mr. Kelly may be set down as not eloquent. He seems, nevertheless, moderately piquant in print. From the reports of his remarks we learn that Mr. Tilden's physical infirmities are in part shared by his lieutenant, Governor Robinson, whom Mr. Kelly believes to have "sore eyes," and to have great difficulty in reading and signing bills intelligently. He adds that he sympathizes with him "as a citizen should"; but the *World*, which again is our authority for distrusting Mr. Kelly's information, denies that the Governor is a "purblind incapable," and maintains that he is in "most excellent health."

On the very day (October 2) that the news of the disaster to Major Thornburgh's command reached Eastern readers, relief unexpectedly came to the besieged survivors in the shape of Captain Dodge's Company D, Ninth Cavalry, forty-five strong, and composed of colored men. This small body had turned aside from Bear River, on learning of the situation at Milk Creek, and, without orders, gallantly fought its way to a junction with Captain Paine, losing every horse but two by the time this was effected. Movement, on account of the wounded, was thus made impossible. Three days later, in the early morning, Colonel Merritt's command, after a remarkable forced march from Rawlins, brought final deliverance. In the afternoon a visit was made to the battle-field, where Major Thornburgh's body was recovered, and where an attack of the Utes was met and repulsed. In a parley they declared their intention of resisting to the death any advance of troops upon the White River Agency. Fighting was immediately renewed. On October 11 the Agency was reached, where a miserable scene pre-

sented itself. Father Meeker's dead and naked body and those of several of the male employees were found lying about, more or less mutilated and burned, in the midst of the buildings, which with one exception had been fired to the ground. The white women had been carried off, and their fate is at this moment in painful uncertainty. It is reported that among the slain on the Indian side in the Thornburgh engagement was discovered an unknown white man dressed in buckskin, killed in the act of aiming from a stone breastwork. Whether the fleeing Utes will be overtaken as a hostile band seems doubtful. Those at Los Pinos are quiet, but apprehensive of being involved in the punishment of their brethren of the north.

On Saturday, at the celebration of the thirteenth anniversary of the Grand Army of the Republic in Philadelphia, Mr. John A. Bentley, Commissioner of Pensions, delivered an address in the nature of an apology for the shortcomings of his office. He denied that the fault lay with the management of the office, or with the failure of Congress to maintain the necessary clerical service, but with the *ex-parte* system of making applications for pensions, the frauds to which it opens the door, and the delays caused by precautions against fraud. We conceive, however, that the management is too lightly acquitted by the Commissioner. More than three months usually elapse after evidence is submitted before it is examined, frequently six months, and sometimes a year. This delay is not seldom increased by some absurd official blunder, such as requiring evidence that a man was loyal, at a time long subsequent to his death. In two precisely similar cases, one will be accepted and the other rejected, and the action of the office is therefore wholly uncertain. Nor are the arrears treated in an orderly manner, late applications being paid before earlier ones. Mr. Bentley's prejudice against lawyers has naturally, considering the ignorance and helplessness of pensioners, worked in favor of the "shysters." The old scale of fees was certainly open to objection, but the reduction to $10 has driven out almost all the respectable lawyers. His proposed substitute for the *ex-parte* system, superior as it may be, will not do away with the necessity of legal assistance nor with the pensioner's right to employ it.

The death of Henry C. Carey, which occurred this week at the age of eighty-five, removes a writer who has probably had more influence on the economical opinions of his own countrymen than all other authors put together. He was a man of considerable acuteness, great industry, and wide reading, and a fanatical apostle of high tariffs, to which he ascribed almost indefinite civilizing and enlightening power. But to carry out his ideas would, in many ways, restore the Middle Ages, and make what science and invention have done to promote the intercourse of nations wear the air of a curse or a superfluity. He made an important correction in Ricardo's theory of rent, and his books, some of which have been translated and are held in high esteem in Germany, where salvation by Government still holds a high place, are full of ingenious suggestions and widely-gathered information on social and economical questions. The fury of his convictions, however, made his argumentation very defective, and he ended by becoming one of the most fervent apostles of the paper-money craze.

Of the foreign gold on the way to New York only $3,440,000 arrived during the week; but this raises the total receipts of foreign specie since the first day of August to $41,538,000, and since the resumption of specie payments to $47,735,000. At the close of the week foreign exchange was "heavy," and further large amounts of gold were ordered from Europe. Gold has become so plentiful, and legal-tender notes so scarce, that the New York banks have been forced to use gold certificates in their settlements at the Clearing-house. As the Treasury no longer issues these, the banks have selected the Bank of America to take charge of gold and issue certificates therefor in sufficient amount to furnish a currency for the settlement of differences at the Clearing-house. This is a return to the custom that prevailed up to 1862; these certificates in no way affect the general volume of the currency, but are used to save the risk and trouble of carrying gold in bags to and from the Clearing-house. The statement of the foreign trade of New York for the month of September is remarkable in that it shows that the specie and bullion imports were within $2,781,000 of the value of all the merchandise imported. The Stock Exchange speculation continues wild, and although there was a "break" on Monday which terrified the vast number of speculative recruits, who appear to have been drawn hither from all parts of the country, the course of prices was upward, and the rise for the week ranged from 1½ to 14½ per cent. All securities are high, and many which are called securities only by courtesy, and which are known to have no present nor any remote value, are selling at ridiculous figures. The price of silver bullion has advanced during the week from 51⅝*d.* to 52⅛*d.* per ounce. The bullion value here of the 412½-grain dollar at the close of the week was $0.8739.

Englishmen seem to have taken up the "personal journalism" of this country, long after it has fallen into discredit here, just as they are taking up the caucus after the best Americans have grown sick of it, and are anxious to find means of escape from it. The two leading ventures in this field have been very successful and have had a good deal of excellent writing, but their main attraction has been the gossip of society and piquant details of the private life of well-known persons. Another leading feature has been savage attacks on the conductors of obnoxious newspapers, in the style of the late James Gordon Bennett. One unhappy man, Buchanan the poet, appeared on the scene some years ago in the character of the Indignant Moralist, and tried to stop their excesses by a series of prosy articles on the "Signs of the Times" in the *Contemporary Review*. He had only issued one when he disappeared under a retort from the *World* which covered him with mud as no man was probably ever covered before. Since then the fun has grown fast and furious, *Truth*, under the editorship of Mr. Labouchere, leading the way into fresh fields every day. Having fallen foul savagely of one Lawson, the proprietor of the *Daily Telegraph*, there followed the old-fashioned American street-fight—Lawson with a cane, Labouchere with an umbrella—in which Labouchere apparently got the worst of it, and is now threatening his opponent's life in default of "satisfaction." He is known to his brother-editors of the same school as "Labby" and "Henry." One of the fraternity, the editor of *Town Talk*, is in Newgate awaiting his trial for a criminal libel in announcing proceedings for divorce by the husband of one of the reigning beauties, Mrs. Langtry. The whole business is a much more disgusting mess than anything of the kind we have had here, owing to the popular eagerness to know what the aristocracy are doing—a passion of which we have here no counterpart.

The Afghans made a feeble defence, as usual, on the heights outside Kabul, and at the last accounts General Roberts was in possession of the city. The inhabitants, as in 1842, have tried to relieve themselves from complicity with the mutineers, and the Indian Government seems to be thoroughly puzzled by Yakub Khan's position. They apparently cannot make up their minds whether he sympathized with the revolt or not. He is so weak in every way that he probably cannot tell himself. Herat is still in the hands of its rebels, and there is talk of a proposal on the part of Russia that she should take that province, and England the rest, but this is hardly likely to be entertained in London. Herat is the most important stronghold in Central Asia. What will be done with Kabul remains to be seen. Sending another envoy there to be guarded by an army would hardly look well at the elections, and it would probably be difficult now to find one who would go without an army. The Ministry is menaced with a new trouble in the shape of a deficit. The quarter's revenue receipts have fallen below the estimates in an alarming manner.

ORGANIZATION *VERSUS* THE MACHINE.

[*Speech of the Rev. H. W. Beecher at the Brooklyn Academy of Music, Oct.* 8, 1879.]

"The third thing I have to say is that there is no such thing as administration of government except by the administration of parties, and they are as much a part of our political machinery as our laws and institutions. They are founded in necessity, and all talk against parties, and machinery, and politicians, and management is the talk of men that do not care what they say in accomplishing a purpose, or of men who do not know what they mean, or of men who do not mean anything because they do not know anything. (Laughter.) You cannot have administration under free institutions without parties; you cannot have parties without organization; you cannot have organization without engineers and managers. It is said, however, that the running of the Machine must be broken up and stopped. Whenever you will run freight trains and passenger trains without engineers successfully, letting the engine take care of itself or letting the passengers do it, then you may run parties so. (Laughter.) It may not be the best thing you can imagine, but it is the best thing in the present state of human nature that you can have; and if you are to run parties as a part of that economy of civil liberty by which we administer free government, and if you must run parties by appropriate organizations and managers, then it is no use for anybody to bolt his party because he doesn't like every single step that has been originated in it. I am amazed at either the profound unwisdom or the altitudinous wisdom of those who think it is too much trouble to take care of primaries or prepare public sentiment, or to arrange conventions—who neglect the work by which the Machine is put upon the track and then vindicate their neglect by bolting, their conclusion being that the convention has gone to those who they think should not have had it. If from indolence, preoccupation, prejudice, or any other reason, they did not care enough about affairs to bring them to pass by the natural way of creating a sentiment in the convention or party, they should at least have modesty enough not to attempt to overrule those who have taken those pains and have done this work. I read with disapprobation of a movement among young Republicans—whom I take to be quite young (laughter)—men of influence and admirable excellence of character, who sometimes, nevertheless, being human, make mistakes—men who have called upon Republicans to scratch the ticket. Any physician will tell you that when there is an efflorescence on the skin scratching is natural but always harmful. (Laughter and applause.) For myself I propose to do no scratching (renewed laughter), but to accept not as the best that possibly might be, but to accept as that which is the best attainable, organization and body and candidates; and in so far as I have influence with the young men in this community who are impressed with the solidity and importance of Republican principles, my word to them is, Stand in the line. (Loud applause.) Assert every good principle by good argument, and set an example of sterling fidelity to that party which you believe carries in its heart and in its hand the welfare of the State and the welfare of the nation. (Loud applause.)"—*Tribune Report.*

[*Speech of Mr. Richard O'Gorman at Tammany Hall, Oct.* 13, 1870.]

"But Gov. Hoffman is 'the slave of the New York Ring.' It is his great fault. He would be honest enough himself, but he is 'the slave of a dishonest Ring.' Now, fellow-citizens, what is the meaning of this word 'Ring'? A Ring I take to be a collection of men united for some common object. If the object be bad, it is a bad Ring—if good, it is a good Ring. Now, I will tell you what I mean by a bad Ring. There is the Whiskey Ring, and the Land-grabbing Ring, and the Gold Ring, and the Bessemer-steel Ring, and all the other Rings in which the Republicans in Congress have been disporting themselves. These are indeed 'bad Rings,' for they are conspiracies to plunder and defraud and dishonor the American people. These are specimens of bad Rings—conspiracies of the few against the many—and these ought to be denounced as political crimes. But if the Ring referred to means a body of men in the city of New York, directing, organizing, guiding, and governing the Democratic party in this city, and governing it so that the effect and history of the party expresses strong success, then I say that 'Ring' is a necessity; it is a good 'Ring,' and I for one am in favor of it. (Enthusiastic applause.) No body or party can exist without a government—call it a 'Ring,' if you like to. It means simply some directing, advisory, governing power. A party to be successful must be organized like an army. All the men in the army cannot be generals. There must be a few leaders; and the rest, if they are wise and mean to make it a success, must obey. And when men tell me that they are Democrats and yet are determined to break up the Tammany Ring, I stop and ask, 'What do they mean?' Don't they mean, if they succeed in breaking up the present Ring, to be themselves its successors, and form a Ring in place of the men they have expelled? That is the meaning of it, my friends of the Young Democracy. I know that many of them have for me the kindest feelings, and I deeply regret to see them taking what I regard as a mischievous course for the party—a fatal course for themselves. But if the question is to be fairly put before the people, if instead of the present Ring, composed, if you will, of Mr. Tweed, Mr. Sweeny, and Mr. Hall—if, instead of that, there is to be a Ring composed of any other men I have ever heard named in what is called the 'Young Democratic Party,' I for one will stand by the old Ring, because I believe it has more sagacity, more power, more intelligence, more political skill, and more promise of success than the other. (Applause.)"—*Times Report.*

WE print the above as an illustration of the pass to which Republican politics have come in this State. The O'Gorman defence of the Tweed Machine is as good as the Beecher defence of the Conkling Machine. It is, of course, fitting that when the Republican Machine is eulogized simply for its power, the work should be done by a minister, and not by a lawyer. The traditionsof the party in a certain sense prescribe this. The party was, in the beginning, the product of moral forces which ministers rightly have a large, perhaps the largest, share in directing, and, greatly to their credit, they have in all the stages of its eventful existence contributed in no inconsiderable degree to its triumphs. In fact, there never was a political party in which clerical influence could so legitimately show itself. But on the other hand there is nothing very extraordinary in the fact that when the party Machine begins to be turned to base uses a minister, and even a conspicuous minister, should be found ready to act as its public apologist, and try to confuse the minds of "the young men" for its benefit. There is nothing more melancholy, not only in the history of the Christian Church but in the history of human nature, than the fact that there never yet was an organization so bad in its aims that it could not find a clergyman to bless it. When, therefore, Messrs. Beecher and Conkling rushed into each other's arms, on the stage at the Academy of Music the other night, ludicrous as the spectacle was in some of its aspects, there was nothing unprecedented or even very strange about it.

The moral of the Beecher-O'Gorman eulogy on the Machine is plain enough. It is true, as they both say, that there is nothing bad about a machine *per se;* that it means organization, and that without organization a party, however devoted and able its members may be, cannot succeed in making its ideas felt in the Government of the country. In the early days of a party, when few or none belong to it with the hope of personal profit, the machinery of organization honestly represents the mass of the party, and is managed in strict accordance with the prevailing party sentiment. Nominating conventions when they meet are in fact, as well as in theory, representative bodies which meet to deliberate. There may be members pledged to vote or determined to vote for particular men, and some one man may be so conspicuously marked out for nomination by party opinion that the decision of the convention may easily be predicted beforehand. But as long as the convention is either fairly chosen by the party or feels itself responsible to the voters at large, and has, as a whole, no ends in view but the satisfaction of party aims or desires in so far as these are ascertainable, there is nothing to be said against it.

The Machine begins to work evil when the management of the party—that is, the selection of delegates to conventions and of the candidates for office—falls, whether through the growth of apathy on the part of the members at large or the increasing assiduity and dexterity of those who make politics a business, into the hands of one man, or of a small knot of men, whose leading motive is their personal advantage, whether in the way of money or office or power. To select delegates, for instance, and make nominations with a view of satisfying the various shades of opinion by which even the most homogeneous party is more or less divided, with a view to giving full expression to its highest and best ideas about public policy, and gratifying its legitimate pride and ambition in the mental and moral quality of its candidates, is organization of the best kind and for the most legitimate ends. A convention made up in this way is sure to be a deliberative body, and even if its decisions do not satisfy the party, they are sure to command its approval and support. When, however, there arises in the party a power which manages it not with the view of making it produce results satisfactory to the party at large, but with the view of producing results satisfactory to one man, or one set of men, of either getting a certain office for a particular man, or of enabling one man, or set of men, to reward their adherents with offices, or of arming one man with influence to be used secretly in his own discretion and for his own benefit, then the organization is bad. There are, for instance, in this city 40,000 Republican voters; there are, however, only 10,000 enrolled Republican members of associations competent to vote at primary meetings. Of the reasons which keep the 30,000 from joining the associations and attending the primary meetings we do not need to speak here. If the 10,000 who do the work of sending up delegates to the nominating conventions have, in doing it, the feelings and opinions of the bulk of the party—of the other 30,000 voters, for example—in their minds, and elect the delegates with a view to the success of party doctrines—the organization is valuable. If, on the other hand, when they get together they have no settled views of their own as to what they will do, but accept from some one man, who in turn receives his instructions from another who is not present, a list of the delegates they are to elect, and elect them, and these delegates are in their turn pledged to nominate certain men, because their nomination is desired, for reasons of his own, by an individual or by a clique, and without regard to the probable views or aspirations of the voters—they are the Machine in the bad sense of the term. They are not in any proper sense of the term a party organization. Their organization is despotism working under the forms of representation, and pure selfishness under the forms of public spirit.

This Machine, moreover, is no new thing. It worked for a good while in Rome after the fall of the Republic. The Senators used

to meet and pass laws and go through all the forms of constitutional government, but the laws they were to pass and the decisions they were to reach were always determined beforehand by one person—the commander of the army. It was in full operation in England in Walpole's and Lord North's day. The House of Commons had all the outward marks and tokens of a deliberative legislative body. It made speeches and listened to speeches; but the votes of the majority were determined beforehand by the minister by means of offices and pensions and other bribes. He had a secret understanding with them that they were not to be influenced by the arguments which might be addressed to them in the House, or by the state of opinion out of doors. To make assurance doubly sure, he saw to it that unpledged persons should not get seats in the House. The government of George II. and George III. was, in short, during the greater part of the time, Machine government. The government of the Second Empire was the same. There were two deliberative bodies in it, the Senate and the Corps Législatif, both of which went through the forms of deliberation—that is, debated and decided after debate; but these forms were shams, because the result was settled beforehand by a knot of men at the Tuileries. In this city in Tweed's day there was no appearance on the surface of the city Government of anything but lawful organization. In fact, there is a strong tendency in all popular government to become Machine government—that is, to transfer the real power of deliberative bodies to a small clique, and to confine them to the task of registering decisions supplied to them by this clique. To prevent this, and to secure the public presentation of the real reasons on which legislation is based, is now the great problem of politics. Government, in short, means organization, and party means organization. Machine means the secret abuse or perversion of government or party for the personal ends of one person, or of a small number of persons acting in concert—the secret withdrawal of men and measures from the jurisdiction of deliberative bodies, while keeping up all the forms of deliberation and honest decision.

The way in which the Machine is defended never varies. Both Mr. Beecher and Mr. O'Gorman repeated an old story: The Machine means organization; without organization the Government or the party cannot succeed. Organization, of course, means skilled leaders who understand the Machine and know how to work it. They may not be all we could wish, but the crisis is too grave for criticism, much more for positive disobedience. Young men may not like their way of working, but this is because of their inexperience. Therefore they must keep silence and reserve the discussion of a change until a more convenient season—which of course never comes. The one sure sign, however, that the time for revolt has arrived is the defence of the Machine—as in the Beecher-O'Gorman case—on the naked ground that it furnishes the best means of succeeding. When this is put forward alone it always indicates that the higher order of expediency can no longer be appealed to; that the inner working of the Machine will not bear examination; that the motives and character of its managers cannot stand criticism, and that all that can be said for it is what the soldier of fortune can say for his battery—that it will smash anybody who comes within its range.

THE ORIGIN OF THE "STRONG MAN CRY."

THE New York *Times* commented the other day in very sensible terms on the "Strong Man cry," as recently raised by ex-Postmaster-General Creswell. "The need of the hour," said he, "is the presence in the White House of a man whose past acts would be a guarantee that fraud and corruption in elections could not exist—a Strong Man in whom every one would have confidence." The reasons for desiring such "a Strong Man" have been recently set forth in a Republican campaign document issued from Washington. They are these or such as these: In 1868 General Grant received 57 electoral votes at the South; in 1872 he received only 55. In 1876 Mr. Hayes received only 19. To the question what became of these majorities the answer is that they were "suppressed in blood and terrorism and fraud," which, as regards South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana, is probably largely true, but the document brings the charges against nearly every cotton State also. The same story is told of the falling off of the Southern Republican representation in Congress. It is due, it is said, to "usurpation through shot-gun outrages, bloody raids, and ballot-stuffing." The *Times* disposes very neatly of the proposition that "a Strong Man" in the White House would remedy all this, by showing that not only did all this occur when there was "*a* Strong Man" in the White House, but the particular "Strong Man" whose presence there is now called for again. He was there in 1872, when his electoral votes fell from 57 to 55; he was there in 1874 when the Democrats captured the House of Representatives; and he was there in 1876 when his successor's electoral votes fell from 55 to 19, so that either the Strong Man failed or refused to bring out the Republican majorities, or they have ceased to exist.

But the assumption on which the "Strong Man cry" is based is that they do exist; therefore, etc. The *Times* accordingly treats the Strong Man party with a certain contempt which, on its own showing of their case, is perhaps justifiable. But its showing is not at all fair. They have a better argument than the one we have cited; that is, they want a Strong Man not only to put a stop to the suppression of majorities, but to meet other dangers to the Government which are still to come; and if it had not been made to appear to the public that other dangers were impending, we do not believe the "Strong Man cry" would be nearly as loud as it is, or in fact loud at all. They have a better case, which is this: They would probably never have thought of calling for a "strong man" or threatening a renewal of civil war under General Grant, like Mr. Bowman in Massachusetts the other day, but for the description of the situation at Washington which was gradually forced upon them by the Republican newspapers. The process by which the "Strong Man cry" has been produced is, in fact, one of the most remarkable episodes in the history of journalism. The mere reappearance of the Southern Democrats in Congress could not, of course, have done the work. These Southern Representatives were a minority, and a cowed and dispirited minority, most of them ruined men, and elected by impoverished communities, and faced in Congress by exultant conquerors. The chances are that they would have been perfectly content for years with a very modest and, indeed, humble rôle in legislation, which was what most befitted them, if they had not suddenly, in 1874, found themselves made members of the majority by the widespread defeat of the Republicans in the Northern States. The Republicans in that year not only lost control of the House of Representatives, but lost enough State legislatures to make the control of the Senate by the Democrats certain before long. They were defeated in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and other States in which they had had large majorities in 1872.

Nor were these defeats due to any lack of "outrages" at the South, or to "waving of the bloody shirt" at the North. There have been since the war no better years for "outrages" than 1872–3–4, and "the bloody shirt" was never more "freely waved," as Mr. William E. Chandler says, than in those years. The result was that Southern representatives found themselves suddenly, as it were, put in power, a result which probably not one of them had looked for as likely to occur in his lifetime. That they bore their elevation badly there is no denying. They were intoxicated by it, and began to give themselves airs which they could not safely or becomingly assume within the present century. Their first attempts at legislation were most foolish attempts to repeal measures which had grown out of the war, and were intended to secure what the North considered the most valuable results of the war. But these attempts, though foolish, were perfectly lawful and constitutional. They were no more than the majority had a right to make, no more than majorities had a hundred times made, down to that most questionable use of power—the refusal of appropriations as a means of coercing the President. No lawyer could open

his mouth against them. There was nothing revolutionary about them; nothing that looked to violence or secession. They were simply, in their worst aspect, inexpedient, mischievous, and exasperating, and were properly punishable, like all other obnoxious legislation—like the Republican "salary grab," for example—at the polls, after a proper appeal to public opinion through discussion in the press and on the platform. They were attended, of course, with much wild talk in debate, which the Republicans were careful to stimulate and draw out, but there was no threat from any influential or authorized quarter of secession or revolution, and no "presentation in Congress of the doctrine on which the theory of secession rested," to use the language of the New York *Times*, and no threat to apply the old nullification theory to the administration of the Government. The controversy between the two parties at this stage was, in fact, a controversy over the construction of the Constitution on a point of administrative practice—the regulation of elections—and had no taint of revolution in it whatever. Such controversies have been raging since the foundation of the Government, and the means of deciding them is provided in the Constitution with the utmost clearness. Some are referable to the voters at the polls and some to the Supreme Court. This particular one was a controversy to be settled at the polls. The Republicans had only to win back, by appeals to Northern public opinion, the seats they had lost in 1874 and 1876, to cause the Southern construction to vanish in thin air, and to relegate "the Brigadiers" once more to the humble rôle of receiving instead of giving the law. There was no more call in the matter for "a Strong Man" than for a steam-engine.

This course was inconvenient to the Republican chiefs, for reasons which we have no space to give in detail. The chief one was, however, that it would have involved explanation and discussion of the causes of the defeats at the North in 1874 which gave the Democrats the majority, and which Republicans were anxious, for obvious reasons, to bury in oblivion. It would have brought up carpet-baggery, whiskey-thievery, moieties, rings, grabs, Crédit Mobilier dividends, and the various other Republican scandals of the period between 1868 and 1874. Nor was it at all certain that the lost ground could be regained by simple debate on the expediency of having the national Government take charge of Federal elections, for this was hardly exciting enough. Outrages, too, at the South had declined so much in number that the canvass now pending came near having to be conducted on the Chisholm tragedy of 1877; there would have been little else of the kind to rely on if the Dixon murder had not taken place, and the Blackville postmaster had not been assailed a month ago.

The bolder course was therefore adopted of alleging that the Southern representatives in Congress had reasserted the old Calhoun doctrine of the right of secession and nullification, on which the rebellion was based. This was sure to rouse the Northern people as nothing else would, and destroy among them the critical spirit from which the party had suffered so much since 1872. It was a daring scheme, because the story had no real foundation. It could hardly have succeeded by the efforts of the party orators alone. The newspapers, however, with their power of daily iteration made it succeed. We have watched it for the last year with increasing surprise, not unmixed with admiration. Its engineers counted, and properly counted, on two things: (1) the spirit of competition among the newspapers, and (2) the indifference of the public to the exactness of any statement which chimes in with their prejudices and prepossessions. The party newspapers, when the denunciation of the Brigadiers began, were soon vieing with each other in expressions of hostility and distrust. Accusing them of a desire to return to the practice of treating every election as a State election, which had prevailed from the foundation of the Government, was soon found to be too tame and commonplace. They were then accused of secretly meditating the revival of the secession theory, then of having openly "presented" it in Congress; and thousands of articles were written on the assumption that this accusation was literally true. The public does not read the *Congressional Record;* does not even follow the brief and imperfect summaries by the party press of Congressional debates with any care or constancy, and was ready to believe anything of the Brigadiers. In a few months the people were so excited and alarmed that they were half prepared for a new rebellion, and naturally looked about for some one to organize the physical force by which it was to be again resisted. For this crisis the managers had the Grant boom all ready, and at once opened it. They produced "the Strong Man." For this state of things, than which nothing can well be more prejudicial to healthy political life and pure administration, the press, as we have said, is mainly responsible—how responsible no one knows who is not compelled, as we are, to watch it working up an incident or a subject for party consumption, and who has not seen papers trying to outrun each other in violence of language and the production of startling effects. The last marked illustration of the play of this half-insane competition was the Johnson impeachment trial, when they were endeavoring to outstrip each other in the description of Johnson's depravity. He was at first "a criminal"; then "a great criminal"; then "the greatest criminal of the age"; and finally the silly old man became "the greatest criminal of this or any other age." At this point the resources of vituperation would have been exhausted if they had not resorted to comparison with various historical monsters like Nero and Caligula.

They are now performing the same process on the Brigadiers, and with far greater success. They have produced the cry for "the Strong Man." They have discredited the cause of peaceful and patient reform; they have weakened the popular reverence for law; they have planted in the American mind the seeds of that fell and foul disease of free governments—the hankering for a chief who will not be over-scrupulous about obeying the Constitution. The New York *Times* has been one of the chief offenders; perhaps, owing to its greater temperance and independence, one of the most efficient. In now denouncing the cry for "a Strong Man," therefore, it is trying vainly to lay a devil which it has helped to raise. We were fortunately able the other day, by pouncing on one of its repetitions of the reckless statement about the production of the theory of secession in Congress, to drag to light the foundation on which all this fabric of wicked misrepresentation has been built—which was nothing more than that Blackburn, of Kentucky, had predicted that the majority in Congress would repeal certain Republican legislation. The remedy for this, the old American remedy, is of course simple enough—an appeal to the people against Blackburn, which will take from him his majority. Those who have persuaded the people that the case calls for a soldier's hand and for departure from the ancient ways of American politics, and that we have in one century reached the stage in which we have to rely on one man to save us from perishing, deserve that future generations should curse their memory.

Correspondence.

JEWISH FARMERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 2d inst. you express doubts if a Jewish farmer can be found in either hemisphere. I know of several in this State, and have heard of others in the Western States. It cannot be expected that their religion be advertised over the main entrance of their farms. Some of these Jewish agriculturists have intermarried with Christians; what particular ostracism the *Germania* will decree upon these we are only left to surmise. In conversation with one of the trustees of the Hebrew Orphan Asylum of Cleveland, Ohio, I was informed that the purchase of a tract of land near the city was contemplated, on which to educate boys and instil in them a love of farming.

As the Jews are by nature a gregarious race, and as in both hemispheres people of all sorts of religious views gravitate towards the large cities, we must not wonder if the former take slowly to agricultural pursuits.—Respectfully yours, H. L. F.

Chicago, October 6, 1879.

SOUTH CAROLINA REDIVIVUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just returned from a summer spent in South Carolina, where I had every opportunity to study the political and social condition of things. The gain in material prosperity since the educated classes recovered the control of politics is marked—more so among the negroes even than among the whites.

I can compare the old condition with the new. I spent nine months in South Carolina almost immediately after the war, when carpet-bags were a possibility rather than a fact. The older men of the State were stunned by the complete collapse of the old institutions, and knew not how to adapt themselves to the changed conditions of life. It was the same with the negroes. Up to this point there was no sign of ill-feeling between the white man and his former slave. Indeed, the master was grateful for the kindness and fidelity shown during the war. Why should there be antagonism, the interests of the two races being the same?

What followed, we all know. The most ruinous accomplishment of the set of men who flocked to the State, scenting plunder, was the antagonism they brought between capital and labor; capital, being less robust, suffered more than labor. My next winter was during the triumphant "spoils" period, which has been elaborately enough described. Land was lying uncultivated, the negro was idle and perfectly demoralized. I was shocked to see the drunkenness, to hear of the stealing. There seemed no hope for the future. This fair State was given over to the robber and to the ignorant.

The change in the condition of things during the last eighteen months is positively startling. It is difficult to know where to begin. Every one seems hopeful and, better still, busy. The negroes are working cheerfully. If the wages be low, so is the living; think of good chickens for sale at ten cents apiece! It does not pay to rob a hen-roost. The large estates are being cut up into small farms, owned indiscriminately by black and white. I drove through the country districts, through lands which only a little while ago were covered with oaks and pines. Now I find little homesteads, with gardens and beginnings of orchards; in some cases, pathetic attempts at "decoration." For the first time in my experience fruit, vegetables, and chickens were daily offered at the door by negro men and women. I saw few or no idlers, and heard no expressions of discontent.

The increased earnestness and hopefulness of the young white men is most encouraging. They no longer *direct*, oversee, but literally put their own hands to the plough, with honest pride in their work. They work during the day, in that burning sun, side by side with the negro, in perfect good comradeship. The great want of the State is capital, and that must flow in when the future is assured. Outside interference in politics will be ruinous. It means accentuating the color-line; it means arraying labor against capital, ignorance against education. The misfortune for South Carolina is the coming Presidential election. But for that the names of Republican and Democrat might be erased from the spelling-book. If she were not needed for party purposes, she might be left in peace to bind up her wounds.

Now one last word as to security of life and possessions. The contrast here is in favor of South Carolina as against my own New England. In a Connecticut town, last summer, I kept a pistol as a comfort, if not a protection. In South Carolina, not a tramp all summer, and no beggars! Our household was composed of three women, the servant sleeping in "the yard." Our house is a little isolated. We sat or slept with doors wide open until late into the night, and we never had one moment's uneasiness nor anxiety.

When so much that is false is being said, I hope these few words from a New England Republican may not pass quite unheeded. N. S.

New York, Oct. 7, 1879.

[The writer of the above, a woman, is a well-known teacher in this city.—Ed. Nation.]

NEW YORK REPUBLICAN *vs.* DEMOCRATIC RETRENCHMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of Sept. 25 (No. 743), under the head of "The Week," you favorably mentioned Governor Robinson's letter of acceptance, and, in repeating some of his figures, said "they tell a remarkable tale and are not to be questioned." However, they were questioned the same day in an article in the *Evening Post* entitled "Let us have a Judicial Statement." The article assumed that your reputation for impartiality must be maintained by a subsequent presentation of the Republican side of the case, and, in professed aid of such a course, undertook to furnish what it termed "several well-known facts."

You do not appear to have considered the tender favorably, and if the article in the *Post* is in all respects as inaccurate as in the three particulars which, with your permission, I will indicate, your course in failing to accept the proffered assistance is very wise.

First. The article in the *Post* alleges that the constitutional amendment authorizing the change from three Canal Commissioners to a single Superintendent of Public Works was proposed by a Republican Legislature in 1873 and 1874.

This statement is as inaccurate as the consequent claim of the *Post* for exclusive credit to the Republicans for passing the amendment. The true history of the amendment is as follows:

Rejected at the election of 1869, it was again proposed by the Constitutional Commission of 1872, consisting of sixteen Democrats (Governor Robinson being one) and sixteen Republicans.

Approved by the Legislature of 1873 and the Senate of 1874, it was, on February 18, 1874, rejected in the Assembly by a vote of nearly two to one (76 to 42). As the *Post* truly claims, the Republican party had a majority in this Assembly and was responsible for its action. The truth of the claim cannot be questioned merely because the Assembly defeated the amendment instead of adopting it, as the *Post* supposed.

The amendment now seemed to be for ever lost, as would doubtless have been the result except for the election of Governor Tilden in the succeeding fall. Upon the nineteenth day of March, 1875, the Governor's famous canal message reached the Senate. It paralyzed the forces of the Canal Ring and opened the way to vigorous action on the part of the friends of administrative reform. To the public spoilers it was the past which was full of peril, and they were too much absorbed in schemes for escaping conviction to rally to the defeat of legislation concerning only the future. At this opportune juncture (April 14) Senator Madden introduced the amendment. Within five weeks it passed both houses (the Assembly being strongly Democratic) without a single opposing vote.

The only influence to which it is possible to trace this extraordinary change in sentiment of the preceding year is the powerfully constraining force of Governor Tilden's canal message. In the Senate of 1876 the amendment was introduced by Mr. Gerard, and in the house by Mr. Sherman, both being Democrats, and passed with only slight opposition, of which the head was Mr. McCarthy, then, as now, Republican Senator from Syracuse. It was ratified in the fall of 1876 by a popular vote of 533,153 to 81,832.

In view of all these facts, that it was proposed by a commission equally Democratic and Republican; that it was defeated in the Republican Assembly of 1874; that under Governor Tilden's influence it passed the Legislature and the Democratic Assembly of 1875; and that it was introduced by Democrats in both houses in 1876, it seems difficult to accept as the basis for a judicial statement the claim of the *Post*, that the Republicans are entitled to exclusive credit for this amendment.

Second. The history of the States-prisons amendment is almost exactly the same as that already given, with the important qualification that it was not adopted but substantially defeated in the Republican Constitutional Convention of 1867 (see Journal, June 24, 1867; February 25, 1868; Documents Nos. 122 and 123).

Third. The article in the *Post* places at your service the alleged "pertinent fact" that the sinking fund was depleted to the extent of six millions of dollars by the Democratic administration of Governor Hoffman.

The responsibility for this deficiency has been so often and so unjustly charged upon the Democrats alone that it is well to dispose of the question by a citation from the very highest authority—the report of the very able and upright Republican Comptroller, Hopkins, to the Legislature of 1875 (Ass. Doc. No. 3, pp. 24, 25). Comptroller Hopkins charges this deficiency upon the vicious habit of legislatures of making larger appropriations than they dared to provide for by tax. He specifies beyond possibility of question which were the delinquent legislatures. They were:

The legislature of 1869 as to		$1,493,181 28
"	1870 "	2,355,927 40
"	1871 "	2,748,595 56
"	1872 "	1,785,762 97
"	1873 "	254,253 53
making a total excess of		$8,637,720 74
from which being deducted the surplus of Sept. 4, 1868		1,850,000 00
resulted the actual encroachment of		$6,787,720 74

Of these five guilty legislatures three (those of 1869, 1872, and 1873) were Republican in both branches. In the claim that the Democrats alone were responsible the article in the *Post* again seems to lack the quality of judicial fairness.

This same deficiency in the article might be indicated as to several other statements, but I have already occupied too much of your space.

I am, sir, respectfully yours, FRANCIS LYNDE STETSON.

39 EAST EIGHTEENTH STREET, October 13, 1879.

MR. BERGH AS A COMMENTATOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : It seems that the discussion in regard to vivisection has once more broken out in the daily papers, with the usual exchanges of denunciation and defence. The present aspect of the controversy is essentially this : Mr. Bergh contends for a legal suppression of the practice ; and, in order to influence the public mind in that direction, he portrays in strenuous language the iniquities of the physiologists, and denounces their results as uncertain and worthless. The doctors, on the other hand, say that his descriptions are exaggerated or untruthful, and his inferences false. It is proper that the unprofessional reader should have some means of judging between these antagonistic parties. If Mr. Bergh's statements are exact, let them have the weight which they deserve ; if they are open to doubt, the public should be warned. An important element in this question would be that of faithfulness in the matter of *quotations*.

One of Mr. Bergh's favorite assertions is that the medical profession is opposed to vivisection ; or, as he expresses it with a pleasing erudition, "From the time of Celsus, the Hippocrates of the Romans, till our own day, when humanity is making itself heard, the best men have raised their voices against it." To establish this point he quotes from many well-known authors, and uses the weight of their names and language to discredit the propriety of experiments on animals. But in looking over these quotations we are struck by one peculiarity—that is, there is nothing to show where they came from. The value of a quotation, apart from the reputation of its author, depends upon its accuracy and the connection in which it is used. In the discussion of controverted topics it is usual to accompany a quotation with exact references, giving the title of the book from which it is drawn, and the page where it is to be found, in order that any one may refer to the original passage and satisfy himself that the citation is genuine. Mr. Bergh habitually omits this useful precaution. Most of his quotations give the name of the author, but no further reference which would enable the reader to verify their correctness.

Besides this, to the medical mind there is something a little odd in seeing such names as Colin, Carpenter, Longet, or Hunter arrayed as witnesses against the value of experimentation on animals. These men have passed their lives and gained their reputation in performing experiments or in collecting their results. That they should, nevertheless, believe and declare them to be worthless, has a puzzling look about it. It would be interesting to refer to the original language of these authors and find out what it means.

But in order to understand the matter fully it is necessary to know, in the first place, from what source Mr. Bergh derives his scientific information.

In 1866 the London Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals published a prize essay on vivisection,* by Mr. G. Fleming, veterinary surgeon to the Third King's Own Hussars—an essay which is spoken of by a reviewer in the London *Athenæum* for September 22, 1866, as "ignorant, fallacious, and altogether unworthy of acceptance." After a perusal of the work we heartily agree with this estimate of its character.

It is from this essay that Mr. Bergh has drawn most of his ideas and much of his language. The similarity of expression, in many instances, is too close to admit of any other conclusion. Let us compare a few passages by way of example :

Mr. Bergh, in the N. Y. Evening Post, September 12, 1874.

"From the time of Celsus, the Hippocrates of the Romans, till our own day, when humanity is making itself heard, the best men have raised their voices against it."

Fleming's Essay, 1866, *page* 25.

"From the time when Celsus, the Hippocrates of the Romans, blamed Herophilus of Chalcedon for having dissected the bodies of living criminals, which had been given over to him by the kings of Egypt, up to the present day, when the voice of humanity is making itself more loudly and forcibly felt on behalf of the lower animals, many and just good men have given their opinion as to its barbarity."

Mr. Bergh in the N. Y. Evening Post, September 12, 1874.

"The director of the imperial school of Alfort, in reviewing a long series of vivisections, felt himself compelled to ask," etc.

Fleming's Essay, 1866, *page* 40.

"The conscientious director of the imperial school at Alfort, in reviewing a long series of vivisections, has felt himself compelled to ask," etc., etc.

Mr. Bergh, in the N. Y. Evening Post, September 12, 1874.

"Is it not time that universal sentiment should put a stop to these horrid operations, which tend to harden the heart, extinguish those instincts which give man confidence in man, and make the physician more dreaded than disease itself ?"

Fleming's Essay, 1866, *page* 67.

"It is time that universal resentment should arise against these horrid operations, which tend to harden the heart, extinguish those sensations which give man confidence in man, and make the physician more dreadful than the gout or stone."

There can be no doubt that Mr. Bergh has attentively read Fleming's essay, and is indebted to it for much of his inspiration.

One of the authors whom we have mentioned above as appearing in an unexpected light is Professor Colin, of the Veterinary School at Alfort, in France, and author of the 'Physiologie Comparée des Animaux Domestiques.' Mr. Bergh arrays this writer as one of his chief witnesses. In the New York *Herald* of February 13, 1867, he says :

"Colin, the author of a treatise on Physiology, wholly condemns vivisection."

In the New York *Tribune* of September 26, 1874, he enumerates Colin, with others, among those who consider experiments of this kind as "worthless," owing to unavoidable errors.

In the New York *Evening Post* of September 12, 1874, he cites the writer in question as follows :

"Monsieur Colin says : 'From the moment that a function is disturbed in its normal condition it changes its character, and all the others experience a like commotion and soon become suspended. The possibility of isolating physical or chemical phenomena is simply hopeless.'"

Now, what is the meaning conveyed by this language ? The reader will of course infer that, in Colin's opinion, no possible result can be obtained from such experiments ; and that, from the nature of the case, it is useless to attempt it. The fact is exactly the contrary.

The quotation is from a passage in Colin's 'Traité de Physiologie Comparée des Animaux Domestiques,' Paris, 1854, tome i. page 32. It occurs in paragraph iv. of the introduction, a paragraph expressly devoted to the subject, and entitled "De l'Expérimentation." The author is treating of experimentation in general, as a means of study in natural science, and the manner in which it should be employed in various cases in order to be useful. He is showing the difference which exists between experiments in chemistry and physics, which may be fully simplified, and those in physiology, which are more complex. As Mr. Bergh gives it, the quotation is incorrect. The genuine passage is as follows :

"Dès l'instant qu'une fonction est mise en dehors de ses conditions normales elle change de caractère, et dès qu'elle cesse de s'exécuter, toutes les autres (si elle est un peu importante) éprouvent des perturbations plus ou moins profondes, et bientôt se suspendent. La possibilité d'isoler les phénomènes physiques et chimiques, et l'impossibilité d'arriver à ce résultat en ce qui concerne ceux de l'ordre physiologique, établissent une différence capitale entre le mode d'expérimentation qui s'applique aux premiers et celui qui convient aux seconds. La différence est si grande que l'on ne voit pas ce qu'il peut y avoir de commun entre les deux modes ; il est superflu pour nous de chercher à imiter des procédés inapplicables aux recherches physiologiques."

Colin, therefore, has not the remotest idea of condemning experimentation on animals in physiology. On the contrary, he is doing his best to show how it is to be made effective and trustworthy.

What excuse has Mr. Bergh to offer for this palpable distortion of his author's meaning ? It is possible that he might refer us to his favorite Fleming's essay, and plead that he took his quotation at second hand, without consulting the original work. Such a defence, in any event, would be a lame one, but in this instance it would make the matter worse, because in Fleming's essay the translation is correctly given. Let us see how the two quotations look side by side.

Mr. Bergh, in the N. Y. Evening Post, September 12, 1874.

"From the moment that a function is disturbed in its normal condition it changes its character, and all the others experience a like commotion, and soon become suspended. The possibility of isolating physical or chemical phenomena is simply hopeless."

Quotation in Fleming's Essay, page 26.

"From the moment that a function is disturbed or removed from its normal conditions it changes its character, and all the others (if it is a function of some importance) experience a commotion more or less profound and soon become suspended. The possibility of isolating physical or chemical phenomena, *and the impossibility of isolating those which belong to the order of physiology, establishes a capital difference between the modes of experimentation as applied to the first and those which belong to the second. The difference is so great that it is impossible to see what there can be in common between the two modes. It is, then, superfluous for us to seek to apply a means of procedure which is inapplicable to physiological researches.*"

Besides the usual resemblance in phraseology between Mr. Bergh and Mr. Fleming, there is also a singular difference between them in the sentence which introduces this quotation from Colin :

* 'Vivisection : is it necessary or justifiable ?' London : Robert Hardwicke, 192 Piccadilly. 1866.

Mr. Bergh, in the N. Y. Evening Post, September 12, 1874.

"I will quote from the work of a French physiologist, in this instance a stanch admirer of those men who have made themselves notorious for their practice of that branch of science. Monsieur Colin says," etc., etc.

From Fleming's Essay, 1866, *page* 26.

"Let me quote from the work of a French physiologist, *who is a great advocate for vivisection*, a stanch admirer of those men who have been notorious for their practice in that particular branch of science, *and who is himself a most enthusiastic experimenter*. M. Colin says," etc., etc.

Mr. Bergh is here endeavoring to prove that Colin is opposed to experiments on animals; and, in extracting his opening sentence from Fleming's essay, he has left out that part of it which shows that Colin in reality approved of them. The disloyal intent is too manifest to require comment. Our eminent philanthropist would have the "doors of the State prison" close upon such persons as do not meet with his approval. But if confinement in State prison were the legal penalty for tampering with an author's opinions and falsifying his language, I am afraid Mr. Bergh would have been there long ago. J. C. D.

New York, Oct. 10, 1879.

A CHOICE BETWEEN MACHINES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with the interest of a perplexed and enquiring mind the editorial and other articles in the *Nation* of the 18th and 25th inst. concerning the coming State election and the duty of independent voters in regard to it. I do not find my doubts solved by what has been published, and ask your indulgence to state my difficulty. That difficulty is the impossibility of so voting in the coming contest as to utter a protest against what is known as "Machine politics." To utter such a protest is, of course, the desire of all who favor civil-service reform; and the one course to do it, as indicated in your columns, is to vote against Cornell and for Robinson. But this does not solve the difficulty; it only gives the opportunity of smashing the Republican Machine by maintaining the Democratic Machine. The Convention at Syracuse seems to an unprejudiced mind—at least, to one mind which wishes to hold aloof from prejudice—as much the product of the "Machine idea" as the Convention at Saratoga. Judging from the whole course of the controversy, as gathered from the press, Mr. Robinson is as much the appointee of Mr. Tilden as Mr. Cornell is of Mr. Conkling. The only option left to the independent voter is which Machine he will choose. I cannot doubt, from all that I have read and heard, that Mr. Tilden held the Democratic delegates as firmly in his grasp as Mr. Conkling did the Republican. To vote for the Democratic candidate, therefore, is not to utter a protest against "the Machine." The only choice, therefore, left to the independent voter is a choice of individuals and parties. Each side, as represented in the coming election, is the exponent of the working of the Machine; and, with every desire to destroy that, seeing that neither party gives the opportunity, the independent voter has simply to consider to whose advantage he prefers the prestige of victory should accrue, and which party, as judged by its action in regard to honest finances and just government, he can most implicitly trust. Reformer.

New York, September 26, 1879.

[Then do not vote for the Democratic candidate; but, also, do not vote for the Machine part of the Republican ticket. It may be that Robinson as well as Cornell is the nominee of a Machine, but it is also true that Robinson has for two years been a good Governor, and has filled other State offices with honesty and efficiency. We believe he served one term as Comptroller since the war on the nomination of both parties. Cornell's career, on the other hand, has been simply that of an expert and tricky electioneering agent, whose last public act in office was to bid defiance to his superior officer, and treat with contempt the declarations of the Republican platform. If you vote for Cornell you help to declare to the world, not so much that you believe in the Republican party as that Mr. Conkling controls the party in the State of New York to such a degree that he can give the Governorship to a man who represents nothing, as has been well observed, but a quarrel with the Administration and hostility to civil-service reform. If you help to elect this man you send Mr. Conkling to the Convention next year with the air of having the State which will probably decide the Presidential election in his pocket, and thus enable him to secure the nomination of some one who will either so repel the independent voters as to cause the defeat of the party at the polls, or who will, if elected, restore the régime at Washington which led to the loss of Congress in 1874, and almost the loss of the Presidency in 1876. If you are a good Republican, therefore, you owe it to the party not to degrade and put it in peril in the Presidential contest by supporting Conkling's Machine. You are not responsible for the working of the Machine in the other party; you are responsible for it in your own party. If you could utter your protest against it by voting for some blameless man of splendid talents, or by some good work, such as endowing a school or church, we would advise you to do it. In the present state of the world we know of only one way in which you can utter it, and this we recommend, although, like all human instrumentalities, it has its imperfections and drawbacks.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

THE 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' for 1879 (New York: F. Leypoldt) makes the seventh of the series, and is perfect even beyond its predecessors as an index to current publications. The dealer, or the general reader or student, is provided first with the latest catalogues of the leading houses of the United States; next with the Annual Reference List (July 1, 1878–79), compiled from the *Publishers' Weekly*, arranged alphabetically according to author and subject, and giving a full bibliographical and commercial description of each work; then with a Classified Summary, according to topics—a new and extremely useful survey of Biography, Travels, Poetry, Fine Arts, Political and Social Science, etc.; a special Educational Catalogue, classified and by authors; and an Order List, in which each publisher's books are grouped under his name.——Bigelow's 'Life of Benjamin Franklin,' composed of his autobiography and of personal extracts from his writings, has just been issued in a second edition, revised and somewhat enlarged, but above all brought out at a price quite within the reach of persons of moderate means (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.) This has been effected without sensibly diminishing the typographical beauty of the three volumes, and ought to ensure them a wide sale.——W. J. Widdleton has issued a revised edition of the 'Life and Poems of Edgar Allan Poe,' which comprises a memoir by Eugene L. Didier, an "introductory letter" by Sarah Helen Whitman, the poems, a lecture on "The Poetic Principle," and an essay on "The Philosophy of Composition." It is nowhere indicated wherein the revision consists, even the preface bearing date of 1876.——'The New Plutarch' is the title of a series of biographies of "men and women of action," of which the Messrs. Putnam have begun the publication with a life of Abraham Lincoln by Charles Godfrey Leland. It is a direct and simply-told narrative, but contains nothing very new, except a few misstatements, and does not perhaps evince the firm grasp of all the facts of life which the old Plutarch possessed in such a signal degree.——Capt. H. W. Howgate has edited, under the title of 'The Cruise of the *Florence*,' Capt. Tyson's journal during the preliminary Arctic expedition of 1877–78 (Washington: James J. Chapman). It makes a modest pamphlet of 183 pp. Capt. Howgate states that the report of the naturalist is now in the press, and that the meteorologist's is nearly ready for the printer.——We have received from C. Collins & Co., Part I. of 'The American Continent: a Complete History of North and South America.' That is to say, the earlier periods are provided for by reprinting verbatim the comparatively unprocurable Belknap's 'Biographies of the Early Discoverers,' Grahame's 'History of North America,' Ramsay's 'History of the United States,' and Robertson's 'History of South America'; and the later periods by continuations to the present day. When these additions are reached we shall speak of them critically, as also of the well-imagined "Complete Chronology from 458 to 1880," which will conclude the work. The size is quarto, and the paper and print attractive.——N. Tibbals & Sons will shortly issue Fairbairn's 'Scripture Typology,' in two volumes octavo.——Macmillan & Co. are the publishers of an attractive little series of "Elementary Classics" designed for schools, and also, fragmentary as they are, well fitted to be carried in the pocket by those who wish to revive their classical studies.——Sixty-three of the 136 enrolled students of Johns Hopkins University are graduates of other colleges, including Harvard and Yale, which send four each. Eighty-one are residents of Maryland.——Parts 7 and 8 of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte,' now rapidly issuing, continue the history of Peter the Great to 1716, and that of Greece to the

Peace of Naupactus (B.C. 217). In the former, several curious portraits, in the latter, copies of busts, gems, vases, etc., enhance the value of the text. Part 8 concludes the first volume of Hertzberg's 'Hellas und Rom.'——Our attention has been called to a slip in our notice of Morley's 'Burke' last week. It was at Dilly's dinner-table, not Cave's, that Johnson's meeting with Wilkes occurred.

—We take from the *Athenæum* the following titles of English books in course of publication: Several series, after the fashion of the day, including 'Philosophical Classics for English Readers,' edited by Prof. Knight, beginning with Berkeley, Butler, Descartes, Hamilton, Hegel, etc.; and 'Early Chroniclers of Europe,' edited for England by James Gairdner, for France by Gustave Masson, etc. To be mentioned with the latter is 'The Boy's Froissart,' being selections from the chronicles of England, France, and Spain, by Sidney Lanier (of which, by the way, Charles Scribner's Sons will be the American publishers), and 'Tales from Ariosto' retold for children by a lady. Mr. Swinburne's 'Study of Shakspere in Three Periods' is nearly ready. Mr. Justin McCarthy's third and fourth volume will complete his 'History of Our Own Times,' and simultaneously will appear the first part of 'A Guide to Modern English History from 1815 to 1830,' by William Cory. 'Germany, Present and Past,' by the Rev. S. Baring-Gould; 'Portugal, Old and New,' by Oswald Crawfurd; and Count von Moltke's 'Notes of Travel in France, Rome, etc.,' may fairly be mentioned together, and after them the first volume (1623–1654) of a 'History of the Administration of John De Witt, Grand Pensionary of Holland,' by James Geddes. 'Matabele Land and the Victoria Falls' will be illustrated from the sketches and specimens collected by a naturalist, the late Mr. Frank Oates, who died of fever soon after reaching the falls. The following works will meet a variety of tastes: Prof. Sayce's 'Introduction to the Science of Language,' in two volumes; 'Old Celtic Romances,' translated from the Gaelic by Dr. Joyce; 'Mind in the Lower Animals in Health and Disease,' by Dr. Lauder Lindsay; 'The Abolition of Zymotic Diseases,' by Sir Thomas Watson; 'The Early Teutonic, Italian, and French Masters,' translated from the 'Dohme Series' by A. H. Keane; 'The National Music of the World,' by the late H. F. Chorley; and 'Songs from the Published Works of Alfred Tennyson,' with musical accompaniments.

—We have received eight parts (pp. 256) of the 'Poetical Works of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow,' illustrated, now being published by subscription by Houghton, Osgood & Co. This edition, it is announced, will consist of about thirty parts, at fifty cents each, and be completed in the autumn of 1880. It is in form a large quarto, the page of almost the same size as our own, and, as the promised number of parts will make up two or three stout volumes, it will be seen that this publication is no trifling matter. What the advertisement on the cover claims for the paper and printing can be granted: the paper is of that heavy, cream-tinted, and glossy kind which appears to be accepted as the thing to please this American public, and is the best of its kind; the letter-press is perfect enough, and the ink black enough, for any one. The long lines of "Evangeline" and "The Children of the Lord's Supper" have the whole width of the page; the shorter lines of "Hiawatha" and the smaller poems, and even the text of "The Spanish Student," are arranged in double columns. Scattered about the large pages are many woodcuts illustrative of scenes in the text, and each division of the poems and each longer poem has a headpiece of some ornamental design. Occasionally a full-page woodcut appears, and a portrait of Mr. Longfellow in line engraving by Mr. Marshall serves as frontispiece. It will be seen that we have here the "Gift Book" in its fullest development. The greater part of the illustrations are not such as call for remark. The regularly-arriving Christmas books of a month or two months hence will contain many woodcuts of the same sort—Mr. Darley's wooden Indians and tame bears, Mr. Frederick's warriors and ladies, Mr. Reinhart's romance, and Mr. Moran's mountains, all passed through the disenchanting medium of the Messrs. Anthony's wood-engraving. There are half-a-dozen little landscapes which are interesting, especially those by Mr. J. A. Brown, and the large print after Mr. Whittredge's landscape drawing has a certain value; there is little else to care for in the pages before us, though some of the original drawings may have had a charm of their own.

—The impatience with popular histories and popular views of history which we noted in Professor Seeley's initial article on "History and Politics" in the August *Macmillan* is distinctly traceable in his second paper, which opens the September number. If it were not so distinctly querulous, one would be justified in calling this an elegy. It laments at the outset the lack of interest displayed by Englishmen in modern Continental history of a really solid sort, such as 'The Life and Times of Stein' perhaps; and though there is, to be sure, as Professor Seeley admits, some interest taken in both French and German modern history, it is only in those portions which are interesting, unfortunately. "I have lately been told by reviewers," he says, "that it is doubtful whether the German War of Liberation is of sufficient interest to deserve careful study." Certain books on the French Revolution and on Frederic the Great have received attention, but that is because "they have been full of everything that is amazing and astonishing." Still, the success of any historical work is assured, he still thinks, "if it is not too long and has but a reasonable seasoning of 'pictorial writing.'" But the upshot of the matter is that "we write no elaborate histories of modern France or Germany or Russia, and we do not think such histories ought to be written." This is one great deficiency, and another is the lack of scientific interest in English history itself. This in schools is "almost as dead as the modern languages," and the proper study of it after one has left school or the university is seriously endangered by party spirit. Every Englishman, being either a Liberal or Conservative, is biassed in his judgment of the history of his country, wherein he sees reflected the party quarrels of his own day. The existing political differences are taken to be "a transient phase of an eternal and necessary conflict between two different classes of men." Hence the parties of the present day are made to answer to the Whigs and Tories of the Revolution, and these to the Cavaliers and Roundheads of the civil War, and these, again, to the parties of Strafford and Eliot; and hence the modern Englishman sympathizes with Laud or Cromwell, as he is a Conservative or Liberal. All this is exasperating in the highest degree to Professor Seeley. "This grand generalization is never established by reasoning," he justly observes; but he adds, "I believe it to be almost entirely baseless," in which opinion it is not necessary to agree with him in order to appreciate the reality of the evil he laments. That there are differences in temperament which have made party distinctions of essentially the same sort ever since the revolt of the Titans it needs no reasoning to prove, and it will probably to the end of time depend in great measure upon the historian's own temperament as to what view he will take of Frederic, say, or Cæsar. There are certainly factors in history which no amount of scientific investigation can determine, and when Professor Seeley sneers at the people who "will probably soon be prepared with a proof that from the essential constitution of the human mind it is not capable of determining who wrote 'Icon Basilike,'" he implies neglect of a very obvious class of phenomena, as he might say. And the way to deal with these impartially is not so much, perhaps, to persuade ourselves that there is really no reason for our having other than a strictly scientific interest in them, and that they have no intimate relations to us and our circumstances, as to endeavor to cultivate an impartial spirit. If we should succeed in that we should be able to view not only history but popular historians without rancor or impatience.

—"Volunteer" writes us from Illinois:

"The correspondent whom you quote on page 226, No. 744, doubtless gives the truth as he saw it, but he is too sweeping in his generalizations. Let it be understood, in the first place, that each company commander has a pecuniary responsibility for all tents, arms, and equipments furnished for the men, and that all clothing is charged to him at a money value till he renders an account of its issue to men, so that he is responsible for accidents and misconduct of ninety-eight men besides himself in a full company, while no enlisted man, orderly sergeants included, is responsible pecuniarily for anything except his own personal action, and it will be seen that even if the orderly does keep all accounts, the case would be no worse than that of the storekeeper who signs the bills and receipts made out by his bookkeeper. Further, Government feeds and clothes the enlisted man, the officer buys his own food and clothing, the Government selling to him at places where he cannot readily get food otherwise. I was in the Army for three years to the end of the war, and I can name officers, both in the volunteer service and in the regular Army, a large part of whose accounts will be found at Washington in their own handwriting. The letters written, and much other writing of the private office, in stores of all grades from the country cross-roads to A. T. Stewart's great New York house, are as little known to the overworked bookkeeper as a great mass of writing by officers of responsibility is to clerks and to orderly sergeants."

—Booth's theatre under the management of Mr. Boucicault promises to be one of the most attractive in the city. During the summer it has been refitted and redecorated in such a manner as to give the interior that gay effect of white and gold and crimson which, meretricious as we might find it anywhere else, in a theatre always seems natural and in good taste. As his opening venture Mr. Boucicault has brought out a play of his own—"Rescued, or a Girl's Romance." It may be generally

described as being in his later manner. It has the inevitable atmosphere of exalted heroism, murderous villany, and vindicated virtue, in which the creatures of Mr. Boucicault's theatrical imagination have lived and moved ever since his dramatic instinct acquainted him with the fact that the theatre-going world were ceasing to care for character on the stage, and were beginning to go to the theatre only to be tickled by exciting incident and situation. We should despair of giving any idea, by a description, of the plot of "Rescued." There is one very effective scene in it, not original with Mr. Boucicault, which displays considerable ingenuity in the important art of avoiding infringement of stage-right. It is well known in "theatrical circles" that the incident of having a person bound to a railroad track, in impending peril from an approaching train of cars and just saved by the unexpected rescuer as the train thunders past the footlights, is protected by the courts. Large sums of money are believed to have been made out of this incident by the owner of the idea. The attempt to infringe was once made by a change in the sex of the person bound, or the rescuer, and a few other minor alterations; but the attempt was frowned upon by an incorruptible judiciary. A playwright was found, however, equal to the task of discovering a way to appropriate the excitement of the situation, without appropriating the central idea itself. To him it occurred that by shifting the moral interest from the peril to the person threatened by the train to a peril to the train itself, all that was valuable in the original idea might be retained without any peril to the dramatist. Accordingly, in "Rescued" we have a railroad track coming from the distance and running across a drawbridge at the front. On the right of the stage is the box in which the signal-man works the draw by means of a huge lever. The draw is open, for the signal-man has just been showing the villain of the play how the machinery works, and has in the very act been chloroformed by the latter. The train is heard coming in the distance. Its lights may be seen winding their way along the foot of the hills which line the shore of the water spanned by the bridge. The chloroformed signal-man lies insensible in his box. Another instant and the train will be plunged into the abyss below. But no—for two friends of the signal-man have arrived upon the scene; for these two it is only the work of a moment to seize the lever, and on dragging it down with all their weight the bridge slowly swings into place and the train whistles and shrieks its unconscious way across. Amid such scenes as this we always feel that it is only out of pure good nature if any acting be thrown in; and yet it must be said that there is a good deal of good acting in "Rescued." Mr. Dominick Murray is very good as the signal-man; Miss Rose Coghlan as *Lady Sybil Ferrers* made at least a *succès d'estime*, while Mr. John Clayton, an actor new to our stage, showed as *John Weatherby* considerable talent of an unusual kind. To represent with any force simple emotions in a simple way is an art possessed by few actors, and Mr. Clayton seems to possess it. It is impossible, without seeing him in some other part, to know how much variety he has, but his *John Weatherby* is a very nice piece of acting.

—At the Union Square Mr. Bartley Campbell has made a hit with his new Californian play called "My Partner." We trust, for the sake of the great future which we still believe lies before the Pacific slope, that there are no such people as *Joe Saunders* and *Mary Brandon* inhabiting it. In *Major Henry Clay Britt*, vulgar and offensive as he is, it is possible to trace some semblance of humanity; we are able, by remembering the lowest politicians in public life, to imagine the sort of man Mr. Campbell may have had in mind; *Josiah Scraggs*, the pitiless villain who hunts his best friend down behind a smiling mask of hypocrisy, we have met with in other plays, if not in real life; *Matthew Brandon* is not out of nature; and *Ned*, during his short life, behaves as we can without difficulty imagine a young man of his education and surroundings behaving. But *Joe* (Mr. Aldrich) and *Mary* (Miss Maud Granger) are characters which it required a powerful imagination or else much reading to invent. Were it not that the suggestion would seem to challenge Mr. Campbell's claim of originality, we should say that *Joe* belonged to a period considerably antedating the present, when it was the delight of novelists and dramatists to clothe virtue in the habiliments of extremely low life, and to attribute to coal-heavers in London or gold-diggers in California a delicacy of sentiment and elevation of spirit which would have done credit to a knight-errant. But *Joe* is all this, and something more. *Mary Brandon* is a part of a kind always unpleasant in any form, but particularly so in that in which Mr. Campbell has chosen to present it. The betrayal of a woman may be made use of in tragedy, because it is a peculiarly tragical thing; but a play turning first on betrayal and utter social ruin, and subsequently on rehabilitation through marriage with a sentimental miner, is neither tragical nor comic. We will not say that such a subject cannot be used in a play successfully, but that Mr. Bartley Campbell has not used it successfully. When we say successfully we refer to success in the eyes of the judicious, for there is no doubt that to the average audience "My Partner" seems just what a play ought to be.

—The leading musical event of last week was the first appearance of a pianoforte player of the very first rank. Mr. Rafael Joseffy introduced himself in Chickering Hall on Monday night with a brilliant performance of an interesting programme, and gained a decided and nstantaneous success. His technique is perfect, absolutely infallible, and there is an air of calm and superior self-consciousness about the young artist when playing the most difficult passages, that inspires his audience with a feeling of entire confidence in his power. His taste is thoroughly artistic, a little inclined towards the sensational, for which his warm Hungarian blood must be held accountable. But his strongest point by far is the poetical beauty of his touch. We have never heard piano and pianissimo passages played with more exquisite grace and finish, with more skill in managing the crescendo and decrescendo produced by the pedals, than in Monday's performance. Along with this, his forte is powerful enough to produce admirably shaded effects. His first number was Chopin's Concerto in E minor. A little cool in the first movement, the artist warmed to his work in the second part, the Romanze, and, encouraged and inspired by the enthusiastic applause of his hearers, played the brilliant finale in truly splendid style. The solo numbers in the second part showed his astonishing technique in the strongest light, particularly in the artist's own Étude on Chopin's Valse in D flat, where the most break-neck runs of octaves, sixths, and thirds were executed in an absolutely bewildering tempo, and yet with perfect correctness and finish. The crowning point was a dashing and poetical performance of an old and dear favorite in our concert-rooms, Liszt's Piano-forte Concerto in E flat. Mr. Joseffy succeeded in holding spell-bound one of the largest audiences that has ever filled Chickering Hall, from the first notes of the Chopin Concerto until the last jubilant chord of his great countryman's composition had died away.

—Mr. Theodore Thomas's second concert, on Tuesday last, was a decided improvement on the first. He had evidently made the best use of the few days that intervened between the two performances, and the work done by the orchestra showed more of the finish and artistic smoothness of style to which Mr. Thomas has accustomed us. The symphony of the evening was Raff's "Lenore," the fifth in number of that most prolific of modern composers' works in that class. The "Lenore" symphony, though not very original in conception and form, and certainly inferior in every respect to the same master's beautiful "Waldsymphonie," never fails to interest. It had not been heard here for some years, and was listened to with evident pleasure by a numerous audience. It would have been even more appreciated by many if the programme had contained a short synopsis of Bürger's famous ballad, which forms the subject of this symphonic poem. Barring a few little *faux pas* in some solo passages, the performance was a very satisfactory one. The remaining orchestral numbers were some ballet music from Cherubini's "Ali Baba," and a very brilliant and spirited Coronation March by Svendsen. The interesting feature of the evening was the début of two young American ladies—one a singer, the other a pianist. Miss Carrington, who has studied in Milan, has a voice of considerable compass, but not of a very sympathetic character. Her training is excellent, and she sang the two ambitious numbers of her programme—the Shadow-song from "Dinorah" and the well-known Bolero from the "Vèpres Siciliennes"—in a very creditable manner. These songs have been heard here from such artists as Patti and Nilsson, and only last year by Mme. Gerster, and comparison in this instance would be odious indeed. Miss Cecilia Gaul is a charming pianist of decided merit. Her touch is warm and sympathetic; her technique, as far as could be judged from her judiciously and modestly selected programme, of a very high order, and her taste throughout is graceful and refined. She did well in not choosing for her début a work of greater difficulty and dimensions than Mendelssohn's Concerto in G minor. She does not yet possess the breadth of comprehension required by any of the Beethoven concertos, nor the strength necessary for a satisfactory rendering of a Liszt or Rubinstein concerto. She played Mendelssohn's charming composition and the three solo pieces in the second part—namely, a Berceuse by Chopin, a Gavotte by Silas, and the Spinning Song by Wagner-Liszt—with perfect grace and artistic polish. Mr. Thomas has engaged this accomplished young lady

as teacher for the Cincinnati College of Music, where, we have no doubt, she will fill a wide sphere of useful activity with credit to herself and advantage to her pupils.

ROOD'S CHROMATICS.*

THE utility and significance of visual perceptions distract attention from the mere sensuous delight of color and light; yet few elementary pleasures are so insatiable. The spectrum, however often it may be seen, never ceases to afford the same sense of joy. The prices paid for luminous and colored stones, though exaggerated by fashion, could only be maintained on the solid foundation of a universal pleasure in color and light, together with a sense of similitude between this feeling and those which the contemplation of beauty, youth, and vigor produces. This pleasure makes one of the fascinations of the scientific study of color. Besides this, the curious three-fold character of color which assimilates it to tri-dimensional space, invites the mathematician to the exercise of his powers. And then there is the psychological phenomenon of a multitude of sensations as unaltered by the operation of the intellect, and as near to the first impression of sense, as any perception which it is in our power to extricate from the complexus of consciousness—these sensations given, too, in endless variety, and yet their whole diversity resulting only from a triple variation of quantity of such a sort that all of them are brought into intelligible relationship with each other, although it is perfectly certain that quantity and relation cannot be objects of sensation, but are conceptions of the understanding. So that the question presses, What is there, then, in color which is not relative, what difference which is indescribable, and in what way does the pure sense-element enter into its composition?

In view of these different kinds of interest which the scientific study of color possesses, it is not surprising that the pursuit is one which has engaged some of the finest minds which modern physics can boast. The science was founded partly by Newton and partly by Young. It has been pursued in our day by Helmholtz and by Maxwell; and now Professor Rood produces a work so laden with untiring and skilful observation, and so clear and easy to read, that it is plainly destined to remain the classical account of the color-sense for many years to come. Chromatics is to be distinguished from several other sciences which touch the same ground. It is not chemistry, nor the art of treating pigments, nor optics (which deals with light as an undulation, or, at least, as an external reality); nor is it a branch of physiology, which might study the various ways of exciting the sensation of color, as by direct sensation, contrast, fatigue, hallucination, etc.; nor is it the account of the development of the color sense. The problems of chromatics are two: First, to define the relations of the appearances of light to one another; and second, to define their relations to the light which produces them. It is, therefore, a classificatory, not a cause-seeking science. The first series of relations according to which it classifies colors are those of the appearances in themselves. Here we have grey ranging in value from the darkest shade to the white of a cloud. The shades may be conceived as arranged along an axis about which we have circles of color—yellow, red, blue, and green, with their infinite intermediate gradations. Each of these varies in value, and also in its color-intensity, from neutrality at the centre to the most glaring hues at the circumference.

The second series of relations which the science of chromatics considers are those which subsist between the appearance of a mixture of lights and the appearances of its constituents. By a mixture of lights is not meant a mixture of pigments, but the effect of projecting two colors—say, for instance, by two magic-lanterns—upon the same spot. It has been found that for this kind of mixture (although not for the mixture of pigments) the appearance of the mixture is completely determined by the appearances of the constituents, whatever may be the physical constitution of the light of the latter. The effect of mixing two lights is, roughly speaking, similar to that of adding together the sensations produced by the two lights separately. Let, for example, two precisely similar lights be projected on the same spot, and the result will be brighter than either, and in hue and color-intensity nearly like them. If white and blue be thrown together, the result will be a brighter and more whitish blue. Red and blue thrown together will give purple, blue and green will give blue-green, yellow and red will give orange, etc. Unfortunately for the perspicuity of the subject, this approximate equivalence between mixing light and adding together sensations is not precise, nor even very close. On the contrary, the mixture is always less bright and nearer to a certain yellow than the sum of the sensations of the constituents. This yellow, the precise color of which is defined, is one in comparison with which the purest yellow that can be isolated appears whitish. It has been called the *color of brightness*. The most striking example of this effect is afforded by a mixture of red and green, which gives a strong yellow effect, although the sum of the two sensations is nearly white.

The study of mixtures has thus given rise to a system of classifying colors which coincides just nearly enough with that derived from the appearances themselves to be generally confused with it, while it differs from it enough to make such a confusion utterly destructive of clear conceptions of the relationships of color. One of the highest merits of the work of Professor Rood is the avoidance of this confusion; and if, for instance, no distinction is made between complementary colors in the sense of those which, when mixed, give white, and in the sense of those whose sensations sum up to white, it is doubtless because here, as elsewhere in the book, logic and scientific precision have more or less suffered from a determination not to repel indolent minds.

As to the question whether scientific investigation is an aid to artistic production or to artistic judgment, the author seems to assume that it may be. In the preface it is asserted that while knowledge of the laws of color "will not enable people to become artists" it may yet help in artistic work, and still more in the appreciation and criticism of artistic work. Now, whether this is so or not there is no chance to discuss in these columns, but a chapter of Professor Rood's book might well have been devoted to the examination of that question, and we regret to find instead of such examination the whole argument of the last two or three chapters resting upon the assumption of what, we think, ought to have been proved. Should the decorative artist regard or disregard Chevreul's 'Laws of Contrast,' Hay's 'Laws of Harmonious Coloring,' and other such tables and treatises? Our author, we think, would say aye to that question, but nearly all artists who are concerned with color would say no; and the more they know of these theories the less, we think, do designers in color respect them. "Red lead with blue-green gives a strong but disagreeable combination; . . . vermilion with blue gives an excellent combination; . . . vermilion with green gives an inferior combination; . . . sea-green with blue gives bad combinations." There are four pages of such statements, arranged in a tabular form and credited to Chevreul (in whose book there are a plenty more) and to Brücke, and tending to no result, for the qualifying terms "good, . . . bad, . . . strong, . . . excellent, . . . weak" at once overset any claim to scientific accuracy, and no color-designer would try more than once to make practical use of such statements. Our author seems, indeed, to be aware that it is not a scientific method he is following here, for he avows his disagreement with one statement of M. Chevreul, both statement and contradiction being given as mere matters of opinion.

The last chapter is devoted to the use of color in painting and decoration; and in this the evident knowledge and right feeling of the author are made useless by the false system adopted—the system of arguing from assumed principles to results, instead of comparing results together with the view of establishing principles. Many of the assertions as to the difference between "painting," as in pictures representing nature, and decoration; as to the difference between transparent color, as in stained glass, and opaque color seen by reflected light; as to the proper aim and limits of decoration; and as to the proper order of artistic study, will wholly fail to command the adhesion or even the respectful consideration of students of art. And this seems to result wholly from the unfortunate assumption spoken of above—the assumption that the scientific method can be carried beyond the discovery of fact to the laying down of positive laws for practice. "The aims of painting and [of] decorative art are quite divergent" (p. 306). No, but convergent; for, starting from different points, as our author truly says, they reach one and the same result. The objects of the painter of pictures and that of the decorative painter are different; but with different aims they reach the same result, and in all the best work there is in the world there is no saying whether the "painter" or the decorator has been at work.

* 'Modern Chromatics, with Applications to Art and Industry. By Ogden N. Rood, Professor of Physics in Columbia College.' With 130 original illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.

BUCK'S HYGIENE AND PUBLIC HEALTH.*

THE volume on Public Health in Ziemssen's series treated the subject almost entirely from a German standpoint, and it was, therefore, decided to substitute for it a larger work more adapted to the condition

* 'A Treatise on Hygiene and Public Health. Edited by Albert H. Buck, M.D., American editor of Ziemssen's 'Cyclopædia of the Practice of Medicine,' etc.' 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 792, 657. New York: William Wood & Co. 1879.

of things in this country. If it be true, as stated in the Introduction, that "in the United States probably 150,000 persons are constantly sick from causes which we have good reason to think preventable, that the total loss of life from preventable causes is over 100,000 a year, and that the country suffers an annual loss, from non-production caused by avoidable illness, of $100,000,000," surely we must welcome every publication which tends to increase and diffuse sanitary information.

Not only in its size but in its method the present book forms a new departure in hygienic book-making. The encyclopædic principle (if it may be so called) has been applied to it. A series of twenty-three articles has been prepared by twenty-two different authors, most of whom are already known for practical work or for research upon the matters entrusted to them. These articles have all been written for the present publication, and cover a very wide field. In fact, a wider range has been given than has been thought necessary by any other author or editor. This circumstance will undoubtedly aid in giving the book a place before the general reading public whose tastes and needs have—perhaps unconsciously—been consulted by most of the writers, though without materially detracting from the scientific value of the articles. The style is usually clear and free of unnecessarily technical terms, but we fear some country reader may be led to wonder whether his cow yields "amphoteric milk," and wish to know whether its doing so would be an "epiphenomenon." Several of the articles are thoroughly readable. Dr. Billings holds that "there are some cities which it would be cheaper to abandon or burn down and commence afresh than to put them in good hygienic condition, retaining their present levels, streets, sewers, etc." Dr. Tracy says "Healthy people are the happiest, whether poor or rich," and "Cultivated and in other respects intelligent people are even now not ashamed to carry horse-chestnuts in their pockets to keep away rheumatism." Dr. Tracy also is to be credited with the construction of a brief title for the animating spirit of the A. S. P. C. A.—namely, the "philozoic energy of Mr. Henry Bergh." Dr. Lincoln, too, has expressed a great truth in compact language when he says: "The longing for change is so far from being inconsistent with steady habits that it constitutes one of the chief elements in the value of the Sabbath, considered physiologically." The Hygiene of Coal Mines reads like a romance, and Inland Quarantine derives zest from both the recent pestilence and the controversial tone which—perhaps fortunately, on the whole—is absent from most of the articles. Among the remaining contributions those on Infant Hygiene and School Hygiene may fairly be noted, not merely for their position as the first and the last of the series, but for the exceeding importance of the topics and the ability and impressiveness of their treatment. But are we to infer that the writer of the latter has never heard of the "Ruttan system of heating and ventilating," so extensively used at the West for school-houses and other public buildings, as well as for private dwellings; and is it possible that a Clinical Professor of Diseases of Children is unacquainted with Dr. Cummings's little 'Food for Babes,' to which many infants owe the prolongation of their lives?

Passing from the separate papers to the work as a whole, we find that the writers have been chosen not only with judgment, but with commendable impartiality from a geographical point of view. The city of the editing and publication of the work furnishes ten articles, covering 414 pages; Boston has seven with 435 pages, and Philadelphia three with 320 pages. Of the remainder, three articles are contributed by officers of the United States Army and Navy, and the other two come from Pottsville, Pa., and New Orleans. Of the twenty-two contributors all but five are physicians, and all of them are men. Considering how recent is the emancipation of sanitary science from "what may be called the medical priesthood" (vol. ii. p. 593), the proportion of laymen is notably large; but at least one of the topics might have been naturally assigned to a woman, and we are inclined to think that one or two others, here ignored or only incidentally mentioned, might have found fuller if not fairer treatment at the hands of the sex most directly concerned. The Hygiene of Syphilis covers five pages, and the writer half apologizes for saying anything upon a matter which—including other sexual irregularities—is thought by some to be the cause of more bodily and mental misery than all other forms of error combined. On the other hand, certain allusions in other parts of the work are wholly uncalled for in any other than a systematic treatise upon the general subject. Surely, too, the Alcohol Question is a vital one for the public and the profession alike, yet it occupies only a few pages of one of the least satisfactory articles, and is only here and there alluded to elsewhere.

For these deficiencies the Editor is presumably responsible; but while the brevity of his Note—it is only a dozen lines—attests his modesty, it would be more satisfactory to know the limits of his authority, and the degree in which he is to be praised or blamed for the various features of the work. For instance, ought not the editor to have insisted upon a full bibliography for each article, instead of permitting fourteen of them to appear without it? Could not some satisfactory system of references have been adopted, such as numbering the works on the list, and referring to them in the text by naming the author, the number on the list, and the page? Why should not all the articles close with the Summary without which a scientific paper of any length is considered hardly deserving of publication? Would not this work have furnished a good opportunity for aiding the popularization of the Metric System, which, though taught in our schools, and cheaply made known by the American Metric Bureau, is consistently employed in only three articles? Finally, should not the Index be much more complete, and bear evidence either that the whole was prepared by an expert in sanitary matters, or that each article had been indexed by its author? It is certainly not fair to the unlearned reader to allow him to suppose that carbon dioxide is something different from carbonic acid, and that carbon bisulphide and disulphide are as unlike as their names. The editor, too, could alone prevent the occasional repetitions which are especially undesirable in a work necessarily large, and he might have insisted on the more practical treatment of a few points; for instance, a page and an elaborate wood-cut are devoted to a Venetian device of little or no value to us, while the simple and useful arrangement for excluding from cisterns the first washings from the roof is passed over with a vague allusion.

Notwithstanding these defects, most of which might easily be repaired in future editions, we are sure that to public-spirited individuals, members of village-improvement societies or local boards of health, large manufacturers, commanders of ships or troops, architects, and many others in situations involving the health of large numbers of persons, these pages will be welcome and useful. It is doubtful, at least as respects the American public, whether their place could be as well filled by any other extant work. A very liberal use has been made of illustrations. The mechanical execution is most excellent, and the typographical errors are very few indeed.

The Irish Bar. Comprising Anecdotes, Bon-mots, and Biographical Sketches of the Bench and Bar of Ireland. By J. Roderick O'Flanagan. (New York: Harper & Brothers. Franklin Square Library.)—This is a bad specimen of book-making of a kind very common. It is chiefly made up of what are supposed to be the more readable parts of books within easy reach, rearranged and selected with a slight show of editorial discrimination. The history of the Irish bar does contain a great many amusing stories, which might make an entertaining book; but Mr. O'Flanagan is evidently not the person to write it. He apparently has no idea of the difference between a hackneyed and a fresh story, and consequently produces such old acquaintances as Lundy Foot's, or rather Curran's, *Quid rides*, and the most familiar of Sir Boyle Roche's bulls, as if they had not been anybody's stories for fifty years. Here and there, however, we meet some less well-known anecdotes, several of them possessing some historical value. An entertaining account is given of Grady, a native of Limerick, who, after being elected a member of the Irish House of Commons, became a stanch supporter of the Government. When remonstrated with on going against the wishes of his constituents, who opposed the Union, he intimated that the Government had made it worth his while to give them his vote on that question. On this the person who was sounding him cried out indignantly, "What! do you mean to sell your country?" "Thank God," replied Grady, "that I have a country to sell." He seems to have been as unscrupulous in law as in politics and at the bar; was not only a great bully but complete master of the art of influencing the jury by indirect means. Appearing in court one morning in rather depressed spirits, he explained his depression by saying that his "jury eye" was out of order. Of Lysacht, who was called to both English and Irish bars in 1798, and who in literature is known to the curious as the author of "Kate of Garnevilla" and other minor poems, one or two Sheridanesque anecdotes are given. Lysacht, like Sheridan, was generally embarrassed for money, and, also like Sheridan, had a wonderful knack in getting his friends to make loans to him. On one occasion a friend, who was "doing" a little paper for him, said, "Now, Lysacht, I hope I may depend upon your meeting this bill." "Indeed you may," said Lysacht cheerfully, "and the protest along with it." As an illustration of manners in Ireland in the early part of the century, the explanation of the waiter who bursts into the room in which the Bar Mess were sitting at Tralee, amid a din of crashing glass and breaking furni-

ture, and loud-resounding cries, in the room below, that it was the Kerry grand jury "having a fight afther dinner," is worth preserving. So also is the story of the man who cheated O'Connell of a fee, but who, unfortunately, in his escape left his wig in O'Connell's hands. The book contains a good many anecdotes of duelling and fighting; among others that of Thomas O'Meara's reply to a parsimonious client for whom he was conducting a contested election. This gentleman was denounced as "a renegade in religion, a dishonest politician, and disloyal to his country as to his creed," but O'Meara declined to take any notice of the language on the ground that his fee was not "a fighting fee." Among purely professional jokes is that of Chief-Justice Bushe's description of the vacation ramble in Germany of Judge Crampton (a total abstainer) as a *traverse absque hock.*

Ritual of the Altar. The Order of the Holy Communion according to the use of the Church of England. Edited by Rev. Orby Shipley, M.A. Second edition, revised and enlarged. (New York: J. W. Bouton. 1879.)—This volume will be of interest to clergymen chiefly perhaps, and again to clergymen about to begin the practice of ritualism. It is a thick quarto, elegantly printed, and full of curious information and food for reflection for even the evangelical layman. Any one unfamiliar with the liturgy of advanced ritualism in this country, and especially in England, will be able to get from it a more vivid notion of the "practices" which have raised so much dust of late years within the pale of the Church of England than can be obtained from any newspaper or other reports. The Low-church Episcopalian, or even what is known as a "Connecticut churchman," may possibly be surprised and perplexed at the elaborate chancel-directions, so to speak, which are deemed necessary by Mr. Orby Shipley for the celebration of the Communion. They may be as reluctant to have that service termed "the Mass," as it is here termed, as to have it regarded, in Protestant fashion, as a mere commemorative ceremony; and they may infer from Mr. Orby Shipley's manual that the Abbé Martin is nearer right than Dr. Littledale or Mr. Gladstone about the Romish tendencies of English Ritualists. But though this is vehemently denied by the latter, it is a pretty widely-prevalent notion that, in the words of an eminent Episcopal priest of this city, "the present ritual practice of the Anglican Church is uncatholic though her theory be catholic," and we see everywhere evidence of increasing effort to repair this discrepancy. The need of the Protestant Episcopal or Anglican Church for a more catholic ritual is not perhaps universally felt, but it is felt very deeply, as every one will have noticed, in parishes in whose natural conditions there is scarcely anything to foster ritual reform—small Eastern towns and Western frontier settlements, where, at first thought, missionary work seems to demand the most instant attention of the rector. As every one will have noticed, too, the rector's efforts at ritual reform often result unhappily; sometimes his parishioners are so far from sympathizing with them that they openly deride them as mere affectations; sometimes, even when the church is united in sentiment, from a certain awkwardness resulting from unfamiliarity everything goes amiss. With Mr. Orby Shipley's book before him it will be the rector's own fault if his ceremonial is not at once a success. It is provided with introits, collects, epistles, graduals, gospels, offertories, secrets, communions, and post-communions, together with rubrical directions, secret prayers, ritual music, diagrams showing the proper postures and altar arrangements, and, in fine, everything needed by the most fastidious zealot. Withal, the directions are so clear that it would be impossible to mistake them, and they only need to be supplemented, we should say, by constant practice. This is perhaps as far as a lay notice may go in eulogy of the book, though it should be added that Mr. Orby Shipley himself has his doubts as to whether it is not "in some cases absolutely necessary to liturgical completeness, if not essential to sacramental validity."

Scientific Lectures. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., M.P., D.C.L., LL.D., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—A handsome book of 187 octavo pages, 54 woodcuts, and a colored plate—a collection of popular lectures and addresses, "which do not profess to contain anything absolutely new," yet are full of matter which will be both novel and highly interesting to the general readers for whom the volume is prepared. The first lecture, on Flowers and Insects, is an epitome of the author's book on British flowers in this relation, which was largely an epitome of Darwin's and H. Müller's popular volumes on the subject. The second is on Plants and Insects in special relation to Kerner's ingenious illustrations of the arrangements in plants by which vagrant and unwelcome visitors to flowers are kept aloof, and to the various kinds of insect mimicry, etc. The third and fourth lectures, on the Habits of Ants, a full presentation of Lubbock's own well-known observations, with an abstract of those of other naturalists, make up a large portion of the volume, and the most widely interesting. At the close we are told that there are three principal types of ants, in their modes of life offering a curious analogy to the three great phases—the hunting, the pastoral, and the agricultural stages—in the history of human development. So this leads naturally to the fifth lecture, an Introduction to the Study of Prehistoric Archæology, and to the concluding Address to the Wiltshire Archæological and Natural History Society, in which Stonehenge is the prominent feature.

À Tire-d'Aile. Poésies. Par Jacques Normand. 1878. 2d ed. (Paris: Lévy.)—*Théodore de Banville. Poésies complètes.* Édition définitive. (Paris: Charpentier.)—*Villanelles.* Par Joseph Boulmier. (Paris: Liseux; New York: F. W. Christern.)—M. Jacques Normand is a young French poet who as a writer of *vers de société* is a worthy compeer of Praed and Prior, of Mr. Austin Dobson, of Mr. Locker, and of Dr. Holmes. His verse at times suggests each of these, while it always has an individual quality. The three elements of excellence in the writing of *vers de société* have been declared to be brevity, brilliance, and buoyancy, and M. Normand's have all these. His verse has almost the polish of Théophile Gautier's, and it has a lyric fervor which at times lifts it above the level of most of its kind, however good; and this fervor, while often amatory and sometimes passionate, is never gross. Indeed, many of the poems are as distinctly moral as Longfellow's, and in much the same way.

The real merit of M. de Banville is that he has enriched French poetry by the revival of the old French metrical forms—the *rondel, rondeau, ballade, villanelle,* and *chant-royal*—a "cluster of forms," he says, which is "one of our most precious treasures, for each of them forms a rhythmic whole, complete and perfect, while at the same time they all possess the fresh and unconscious grace which marks the productions of primitive times." M. de Banville has brought these forms into use again, and his influence has caused their general adoption by many later French poets. Mr. Austin Dobson borrowed them from him, to be followed by Mr. Swinburne, Miss Robinson, Mr. Gosse, and Mr. Andrew Lang. The *ballade* is certainly the best of these forms; the sonnet cannot contain a high thought, or the *rondeau* reflect the changes of a pleasant fancy, better than the *ballade* can give voice with extraordinary flexibility to sarcasm, satire, or righteous indignation. But M. de Banville never equals the *ballade* of Villon or Charles of Orleans, and he has been surpassed by some of his English followers. Certain of the other forms M. de Banville brought into notice are of slight value: the *triolet* is invaluable for epigram, but the *pantoum, chant-royal, rondel,* and *villanelle* are either trifles or *tours de force,* tiresome when not used with extreme moderation.

M. Joseph Boulmier's volume contains forty poems in the *villanelle* form, prefaced by a prose history of the *villanelle.* It is a beautifully printed little book, in which red and black tastefully relieve each other. The poems are pretty, both the *villanelles* themselves and the verses written in early French, with which the volume ends. They are light and graceful, and, it may be as well to add, perfectly pure.

Children's Books.—Mr. John D. Champlin, jr.'s 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Common Things' (New York: Henry Holt & Co.) is a plump octavo of nearly 700 pages, clearly printed and freely illustrated with woodcuts. The world of Nature, Science, and the Arts, only, is here drawn upon, and the definitions and descriptions are carefully accommodated, both as regards length and clearness, to the childish mind. The compiler sometimes assumes the first person, as witness his "I have said" (p. 233), or his "I shall tell how" (p. 441); sometimes points a moral, as (p. 280) "That certainly was not a silly goose"; and more or less consciously plays the part of a wise parent who is not restrained from enlivening his instruction with poetry (as in the case of Tennyson and the dragon-fly) and with familiar anecdotes, of which the index contains an imposing alphabetic grouping. On the whole, Mr. Champlin's point of view and execution are deserving of praise. There can be no doubt that the ordinary cyclopædia repels the child by its fulness and technical obscurity; and such an abstract as this ought, as the compiler anticipates, to cultivate the habit of reference, besides saving parents the mortification of having questions put to them which they are unable to answer.

A few criticisms may not be unprofitable. If cross-references in a

dictionary have any value, it must increase in proportion to the intellectual deficiency of those who consult it. For children, therefore, there could hardly be too many. Mr. Champlin by no means neglects them, but he might have been more liberal; *e.g.*, we miss Rubber and Caoutchouc referred to India-Rubber, and Wood-Engraving or Woodcut referred to Engraving. Occasionally his statements are too positive. Thus, in pursuance of his plan of appending to every title its etymology, he attributes the name of the horse-chestnut to the fruit's being fed to horses. This is probably the soundest as it is the simplest view, but it is not beyond dispute. So Coster's claims are balanced against Gutenberg's as of equal weight, with no mention of the fact that the former have been called in question as mythical, if not for ever disposed of, and that by a Dutch critic. In the article on Printing, by the way, when Mr. Champlin, describing how type is set in the composing-stick, says, "beginning at the right, and going towards the left," he completely confuses the young reader, who for the moment stands in the compositor's place, with the stick properly held in the left hand. In the account, under Horse, of the bolas, the three-balled bolas are ignored. We remark that Cricket treats of the insect and not of the game so called, only to add that all games are excluded; Marbles are admitted merely as manufactured articles. Mines and Mining might have been allowed a place, one would think. The most serious general defect of the plan is a want of regular mention of the age of those inventions and discoveries which have done so much to make "life worth living," and of the persons to whom the world is indebted for such benefactions. Under Match we get a date, under India-Rubber a name and a date; but the child is not told when the daguerreotype was invented, or when or by whom lithography, or the electric telegraph; nor when coal was first used, or gas employed for the lighting of cities; and these examples might be multiplied. If the omission resulted from the compiler's systematic exclusion of persons and places from the scope of his Cyclopædia, we should still think it strained; but as it is, it makes still more obvious what room there is, not to say need, for a supplementary volume or volumes of history, biography, and geography.

Another work of a cyclopædic character is the 'Children's Book of Poetry' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates). In it Mr. Henry T. Coates has gathered together nearly six hundred pieces of verse. Naturally, therefore, he has secured all the variety open to him to secure, since the number of tolerable English poems about children or likely to interest children as such does not, it is probable, greatly exceed six hundred. It has no discoverable unity of thought or purpose. Comprehensiveness seems to have been Mr. Coates's chief aim, and the absence of much of the pure jingle that composes in great part the contents of most collections of this sort is due to his scrupulousness in browsing within the familiar fields of literature only. Any nice sense of juvenile wants and needs, and of what, in literature, is likely to satisfy these, we fail to discover in the collection. Whenever a poem mentions children with any deliberateness, or can be supposed within the grasp of childish comprehension, Mr. Coates seems to have used it, and it is quite impossible to infer the exercise of any selection, judicious or otherwise, except the simplest and baldest, on his part. Its arrangement, too, into departments of "Baby-Days," "Play-Days," "Lessons of Life," "Animals and Birds," "Religion," etc., is at once perfunctory and arbitrary; the last subdivision, "Famous Poems for Older Children," in particular, displays the absence of any consistent scheme on the part of the editor, although it is perhaps true that all the poems may be called famous, and that none are too youthful for advanced adolescence. There are two hundred odd woodcuts, in one or two instances after pictures by eminent artists, but usually of the cheapest order of both design and execution. Children are not, indeed, art critics, but it is the reverse of missionary work to familiarize them from infancy with bad art of this kind. We could wish, also, that Mr. Coates's text were less voluminous, though its curtailment would, we admit, demand some system of exclusion, some standard of admission. It ought to be remembered, however, that his task is a particularly difficult one. Mr. Palgrave's non-success with his 'Children's Treasury' should illustrate that.

Mr. Darwin's narrative powers have been so much eclipsed in reputation by his powers of observation and of insight that the contents of 'What Mr. Darwin Saw' (New York: Harper & Bros.) will be a revelation to a great many people who know nothing of the naturalist of the *Beagle*, or of the author of the 'Journal of a Voyage.' A second surprise will be that a book for children could be compiled by literal extracts (with a few verbal simplifications and piecings) from a work in which lurk the germs of the development theory. It follows, of course, that, being thus made, the book is as readable and instructive for adults as for youth—another singularity in juvenile literature. A certain progression has been observed in the arrangement. In the first section, "Animals," the lizards, turtles, and birds of the Galapagos Islands naturally hold the first place in interest; in the second, "Man," the Fuegian has the post of honor, but older readers will perhaps prize most the passages relating to the Negro, as evidence of Mr. Darwin's fine humanity; in the third, "Geography," the Pampas, the plains of Patagonia, and the beech-covered heights of Tierra del Fuego are about equally attractive; in the fourth and last, "Nature," earthquakes will chiefly arrest attention. The book is beautifully printed and bound, and almost superabundantly illustrated, and is provided with an apparatus of charts, prefaces, and indexes not common to the class.

'The Bodleys Afoot' (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co.) is the fourth of a series in which the defunct *Riverside Magazine* renews its youth like the eagle. As the bowl is strong, so will the tale be long, apparently. In the present volume a convenient sailor furnishes with his yarns an excuse for introducing a large part of the illustrations, and a supposed pedestrian excursion from Boston to Hartford furnishes all the rest. We fear that the clever author has not done much tramping himself; but the youngsters will not detect him in that, any more (and this is a graver matter) than they will discriminate between Whittier's "Abraham Davenport," as poetry, and much of the versification which a too indulgent taste permits the Bodley family to commit to memory and repeat on the smallest provocation.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
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Page (H. A.), Thomas De Quincey, 2 vols. in one	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 2 50
Pelican Papers, swd	(F. B. Patterson)
Prickard (A. O.), Persæ of Æschylus	(Macmillan & Co.) 80
Publishers' Trade-list Annual, 7th year	(F. Leypoldt)
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Rice (Prof. J. M.) and Johnson (Prof. W. W.), Elementary Treatise on the Differential Calculus, revised ed	(John Wiley & Sons)
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E F Bickford 25 Aug 79

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 23, 1879.

The Week.

WE like fun as much as anybody, but we do not like cruelty, and it seems to us the Scratchers in this State are laying themselves open to the charge of cruelty in their way of treating the Organ. They are still hanging round his "bark" and tormenting him in the most shameful manner, by poking him in the ribs with his own articles about Conkling, Cornell, and the Machine in 1876. They have even gone so far in their brutal sport as to make up a campaign document, composed of extracts from the articles, in which he roars against these persons most lustily, accuses them of treating the voters as "cattle," declares that "the political managers have trespassed too long on the forbearance and good-nature of the people"; abuses Conkling for having "approved of every one of General Grant's most flagrant blunders"; and says he "would be a worthy successor to a President whose policy had corrupted the entire Government and disgraced the country in the eyes of the world."

"Mr. Conkling," he said, "has been President Grant's principal flunky. In obsequious complaisance to the will of the President this Senator has surpassed all others. In every controversy in the party his aid has been consistently given to the least decent and worthy element. If there was rottenness to be covered up, the Senator has always been ready. If the Administration had disgraced itself, his hymns of praise sounded louder than ever. If investigation was proposed, he was quick to asperse the motives of those who urged it, and to throw contempt upon the enquiry itself."

He also warned the people "that the hands of the Machine politicians were still on the Machine." He demanded savagely what the people were going to do about it, and—being fond of imagery—whether, after having thrown grass so long, they would now "try stones."

But in nothing have the Scratchers shown so much want of good breeding as in the reproduction of this passage, which we think one of the greatest efforts of the Old Man's life (March 25):

"There are thousands and tens of thousands of voters who have pretty well determined 'to occupy an independent position—cutting loose from party affiliations, and exerting whatever influence they may possess in securing the success of the purest and best elements in political matters'—and who think that the safety of our institutions is imperilled by a too blind adherence to party. They are weary of allegiance to committees, they are tired of being annually disposed of by conventions, and they are trying to understand how infinitesimal is their share in the selection of candidates for whom they are expected to shout and vote in spite of all doubts and maugre all qualities of conscience. Howls of honor and incredulity—accusations of treason—insinuation of idiocy—will not shake the voter in his solid mind. He cares nothing for names. His allegiance is for the candidate who is worthy of it. No caucus owns him. While in time the broad liberality of his principles will compel the caucuses to consider them and to be chary of experiments upon party fealty and upon popular credulity.'

Now, we would ask these young men whether this is the kind of amusement their teachers and pastors taught them to seek, and whether making game of the aged and infirm is a creditable occupation for persons setting up to be reformers, and proposing to give lessons in government to a Christian community?

If the Scratchers show no reverence for the venerable Organ, it would be idle to expect them to regard Mr. Evarts as sacred. In fact, they handed him a letter on Tuesday actually prescribing the course of his remarks at the "grand Republican rally" at Cooper Union in the evening. As they said they should "regard the support of Mr. Cornell by the chief of the Cabinet as a blow at the permanent interests of the party," they asked him to be good enough "either to preserve a significant silence as regards Mr. Cornell and Mr. Soule," or to explain on what grounds he recommended them, in view of the former's peculiar relations to the Administration and the latter's connection with canal jobbery. Mr. Evarts so far heeded this youthful advice as to say nothing about Soule, but he directly and unequivocally and without the smallest reserve endorsed Mr. Cornell, ridiculed scratching as "voting in the air," and raised again "the Strong Man cry." Mr. Sherman is to follow him next week in a similar vein. We do not think we can add anything to what a correspondent writes on another page as to the indecency of these appearances.

Is the *Evening Post* still satisfied that the account it gave on the 25th of September of the history of Canal and State Prison reform in this State—*i.e.*, that it originated with the Republicans, and was carried by them in spite of Democratic opposition—is correct? Does it still hold to the story which it told of the $6,000,000 having been taken from the Sinking Fund by the Democrats *exclusively*, thus forcing the Republicans to increase the taxes to replenish the fund? If its failure to allude to these matters again is due to unwillingness to have a change of opinion made public, of course we have nothing to say, or we will carry our delicacy and consideration so far as to wait for an answer until after election.

Later news from the Ohio election than we were able to give last week reduces Mr. Foster's majority considerably, but more than correspondingly increases the Republican majority in the Legislature. Foster's plurality is now placed at about twenty thousand, and the Republican majority in the Legislature on joint ballot at thirty-one. For important revision of these figures the official account will be needed. The Democrats, however, are apparently so discouraged that they are not even trying to make the best of a bad bargain. "It is hardly necessary to say," the Cincinnati *Enquirer* telegraphed to a Washington paper, "that the Ohio Democrats will henceforth look to S. Jones Tilden"; and there could hardly be a more complete admission of the present inefficiency of the "Ohio idea." Whether or no "S. Jones Tilden" is materially benefited by the result is nevertheless an open question. On the contrary, there seems to have been a mild Bayard "boom" started in certain Democratic quarters on the strength of the news, and arrangements have been made, we believe, for a "demonstration" upon the Senator's return from Europe. One of the most indisputable effects of the election, and one of the least to be regretted, is the political death of Senator Thurman, whose friends were angrily accused of selling out Ewing in his behalf, and who now seems to have none poor enough to do him reverence. The result in Iowa was, of course, a foregone conclusion. The Republican majority securing the re-election of Governor Gear, hitherto a "minority governor," was something like 25,000, there being four tickets in the field.

The Butler canvass in Massachusetts is being carried on with extraordinary rancor, owing to the fact that he and his principal opponents were not long ago friends and fellow-workers. His hits at them are, therefore, unusually sharp and telling, but for that reason none the less exasperating. He meets their attacks on his character by the retort that he is no worse man now than he was between 1868 and 1875, when they loaded him with honors and rewards and frowned down any criticism of him. Can it be, he asks with much force and humor, that they thanked, eulogized, entertained me, and sent me to Congress by overwhelming majorities, because I was "a bad man"? It is impossible even for his worst enemy not to enjoy this stroke, in which he touches up the true in-

wardness of Stalwartism (which he knows as well as any man living): "When we ask to have these things [State abuses] corrected, they say, 'How terribly those fellows are behaving down South!' If we insist upon having them remedied, they say, 'Have you heard how they're shooting niggers down South?'" Of course such sallies as these are greeted with "applause and laughter." Taken in connection with this the natural man cannot help enjoying his expressions of contempt for Senator Dawes, who stumped Butler's district for him in 1876 on "the bloody-shirt" issue, and showed the terrible consequences to the State and nation of not sending him back to Congress. Mr. Dawes is now stumping vigorously against him, also on the "bloody-shirt" issue, and Butler visits him with scorn.

The most comic episode in the struggle is the fight between the ex-Collector Simmons and the present Collector Mr. Beard. Simmons called Beard "a bankrupt tailor," to which Beard replied that Simmons, when at the head of the Custom-house, filled it with his relations and his wife's relations, who, as he had two wives, were numerous, and employed his aunt (his mother's sister) to scrub the floors and clean the spittoons. Among the other amenities of the struggle is Butler's refusing to be criticised by the editor of the Springfield *Republican*, on the ground that he (the editor) "never wore a uniform except when he was in the House of Correction." In fact, there is something very droll in the contrast between the accounts the speakers give of the exalted character of the Massachusetts voters and the stuff by which they seek to influence their decision. Butler's chances are not by the best judges supposed to be improving, but they are probably not declining, and he is conceded from 80,000 to 90,000 votes, which would be a considerable falling off from last year. It has to be remembered, however, that last year his forces had no idea of their own strength. The regular Democrats have been undoubtedly strengthened by Mr. John Quincy Adams's nomination.

General Merritt's advance to the White River Agency resulted in the complete disappearance of the hostile Utes in the direction of the Uncompahgre Park, and that officer had begun to march after them when he was recalled by an order from Gen. Sherman, the transmission of which was very reluctantly executed by Gen. Sheridan. Before the Agency had been reached, Secretary Schurz had despatched a special agent of his department, Gen. Charles Adams, to visit the Los Pinos Agency and strengthen the chief Ouray, whose good-will had been greater than his influence in opposing the revolt of the northern tribe; to reconcile him to the advance of the troops to White River and allay his fears; and at least to separate the peaceful from the hostile Indians, if he could not effect the surrender of the latter. The news of Merritt's success caused further instructions to be sent Gen. Adams, viz., to endeavor to bring about the surrender, and to communicate his knowledge of the whereabouts of the hostiles and his views of the situation to Gen. Merritt. Gen. Sheridan, hastily associating this mission with Gen. Merritt's recall, telegraphed in his blunt way to Gen. Sherman that "it looks as though we had been pretty badly sold out in this business," meaning evidently from the context that he thought that the Indian Bureau had first got the troops into a scrape, and then tied their hands when just about to follow up their advantage. But Gen. Sherman quickly let him know that purely military considerations had led *him* to propose the withdrawal to Secretary Schurz, who had assented, and that Gen. Adams's mission was not to make but preserve peace, and not to hinder but further the military operations if anything was to be gained by them. It will be a long time, we suppose, before Mr. Schurz's personal or official title to respect will be acknowledged by Gen. Sheridan, and the public should be prepared for yet other occasions on which the soldier's haste and prejudices will contrast unfavorably with the Secretary's forbearance and sacrifice of personal feeling.

The opinions of the Judges of the Supreme Court with regard to the constitutionality of the Pacific Railroad Sinking Fund Act of May 7, 1878, show a wide divergence of judicial sentiment. The Act, it will be remembered, affected both the Union and the Central Pacific roads. Under the acts of 1862 and 1864, passed in aid of their construction, the Government advanced to the companies enormous sums of money, no adequate provision being made for repayment. According to the statement of the majority of the Court, "in less than twenty years from the present time there will become due from the Union Pacific Company about $80,000,000 secured by first and subsidy mortgages, besides the capital stock, representing $36,000,000 more." With the exception of the land-grant and the earnings (paid out from time to time as interest and dividends) there was before the passage of the Act of May 7, 1878, little or no property which could be depended upon to meet these liabilities. The Act provides substantially for the accumulation of a sinking fund for the liquidation of the debt by annual payments into the Treasury. The statute was passed under the reserved authority to alter or amend the original charter. The view taken by the majority of the Court is that it was a perfectly legitimate exercise of this authority, and involved merely a provision for the due performance of contracts already entered into. From this Judges Strong, Bradley, and Field dissent, chiefly on the ground that the Act substitutes a new contract for the old one, sequesters property of the debtor for the benefit of the creditor, and violates the constitutional provision that no person shall be deprived of property without due process of law. There can, however, be no doubt that the companies, taking into account the peculiar manner in which their concessions from the Government were originally obtained, are, in the forum of morals, not in a position to complain of the Thurman act. It is a pity that they could not have been compelled to take steps towards liquidating their debts without the passage of a statute which this conflict of opinion in the Supreme Court shows to be calculated to create a feeling of insecurity as to corporate property.

Mr. Edward Atkinson has lately been drawing attention in the *Herald* to the enormous size of this year's cotton crop—5,074,000 bales—and also to the immense gain in production of the last ten years of free labor over any preceding ten years. He seems to be greatly pleased with it, but we may fairly ask him whether he is not mistaken about the size of the crop? We allege with confidence that if the account his friend, Mr. "Zach" Chandler, gives of the condition of the negro laborers at the South and of Southern society be true, no such crop has been raised. No such result can be, or ever has been, achieved in a community such as Chandler describes. There must be some mistake in the figures. Laborers who are being constantly and on a great scale whipped and murdered, and have to hide a great deal of the time in "the swamps" (*vide* Mr. Sherman), and are frequently burnt out of their houses at night, are not and cannot be in the condition of mind and body to give so delicate a shrub as the cotton-plant the care which its successful culture requires. To avoid the painful conclusion, therefore, that a large number of eminent Republicans are constantly making untruthful statements on the stump we prefer to believe that the last cotton report is a gigantic rebel lie.

The importations of foreign specie continue, and the total which has arrived in this country since the resumption of specie payments is now something over $51,000,000, of which more than $45,000,000 have arrived since the beginning of August. Foreign exchange still rules at figures which warrant imports. The London money market, however, has become firmer, and the actual discount rate has advanced from ¼ of 1 per cent. to 1⅛ per cent. per annum. It is not unlikely that the rate will advance to 3 per cent. before the close of the year; but even such an advance would not check the flow of gold to the United States. At this centre money has been in active demand during the week at 6 to 7 per cent., and borrow-

ers who had "cats and dogs," or securities and shares of questionable value, have had to pay more. The general activity in trade has started a movement among the banks to take out new circulation, and U. S. bonds have accordingly been in demand for hypothecation at Washington to secure circulating notes. To this is due the fact that on a 7 per cent. money market 4 per cent. bonds have advanced ¼ to ⅜. At the Stock Exchange, speculation was comparatively quiet early in the week, but towards the close again became wild and rampant, and all manner of rubbish was included in the rise. Observers who remember the speculative times of 1863 to 1865 say that the present eclipses them in the extent of transactions, in the number of persons—men, women, and minors all over the country—who are now speculating, and in the fury with which prices are knocked about. The spirit of speculation also shows itself in the merchandise markets. Cotton and grain are gambled in on "margins," very much as gold was during the war. Iron, iron products, wool, hops, and in fact nearly every article in the commercial list "from ashes to zinc," are now bought as if there were not enough to "go around," and as if there would never be any more. There has even been a rise in silver bullion to 52⅛*d.* to 52⅜*d.* per oz.; but this, of course, is a foreign matter and not the result of speculation here. The bullion value of the "dollar of the fathers" has advanced to $0.8817.

The Afghan problem does not seem to have come any nearer to a solution for the British Ministry. General Roberts is in Kabul, and has established a military governor of the city and of the district ten miles around, but he appears to hold simply the ground he camps on. The tribes still make attacks on small parties, and, though invariably repulsed, their operations are very wearing for the troops, who are kept constantly on the alert. The telegraph wires, too, are frequently cut and communication destroyed for some days. There seems to be no possibility even of buying the good offices of the Khybar tribes, who still attack the convoys, and yet this Khybar route will soon furnish General Roberts's only line of communication with India, the other routes being impassable in winter. To crown all, Yakub Khan has abdicated in spite of all remonstrance, being apparently as sick of the whole business and just as powerless as old Shah Soojah was in the winter of 1841–2. There seems nothing now for it but to occupy and administer the whole country, and to take and hold Herat, an appalling task in the present condition of Indian and British finances, but one which Lord Lawrence, Sir Richard Temple, and a score of other experienced Indian officials warned the Ministry would be the certain consequence of meddling in Afghanistan at all. It is now proposed to set up Yakub's son, aged five, as his successor.

Of course, the Opposition are making good use of the opportunity all this gives them. Sir William Harcourt and Mr. Grant Duff have been shaking the old prophecies of the Ministers before their eyes with almost cruel persistence and *éclat.* The latter has gone over Lord Salisbury's opinions on the leading events of foreign politics during the last twenty years, and shown that he was almost invariably put in the wrong by events, which makes his direction of the foreign policy of the Empire at such a crisis something fantastic as well as deplorable. The Marquis has, however, replied to his enemies in a speech in Manchester, which was doubtless carefully prepared. The force of it, as far as one can judge from the telegraphic summary, lay in the point that if the Liberals got into power they would not only modify but reverse the policy of the Government abroad, for which even the bulk of the Liberal voters are not prepared, and he is able to educe more or less support for this theory from recent Liberal criticisms. The silence of Lord Beaconsfield about foreign topics at the Aylesbury dinner is said to have been concerted in order to leave the field to Lord Salisbury. His exposition of his great economical discovery of the necessary "three profits" in agriculture continues to excite the merriment of his enemies. He also declared lately that farm-laborers in Canada got from four to four dollars and a half a day; but this being commented on as amazing, he has announced that he meant to say four dollars a week, which is almost equally incorrect. He ought to have followed the example of the witness who swore the horse was fifteen feet high, and "stuck to it."

The result of the visit of the German Chancellor to Vienna is the establishment of a close alliance with Austria, not, however, based on a treaty but on understanding, and this, though England has apparently had nothing to do with it, is a fortunate event for the Ministry, and enabled Lord Salisbury at the Manchester dinner to resume the lofty and defiant tone towards Russia which he displayed in his famous Circular at the close of the Turkish war, but had to lay aside in a pitiful manner when his secret "Memorandum" with Count Shuvaloff came to light. The alliance is to be followed, it is said, by a revision of the tariff of the two Empires, so as to bring them into closer commercial relations. The scheme is likely to be attended with great difficulty, as the Protectionists are much stronger in Austria than in Germany and have more political weight, owing to the fact that the Chambers of Commerce, which are mostly protectionist, form of themselves parliamentary constituencies, and are represented in the Reichsrath. They have recently held a convention at Prague, in which they resolved that they were opposed to a commercial treaty with Germany, unless Austria could obtain a modification of the German tariff favorable to "her commercial, industrial, and agricultural interests." Another difficulty lies in the fact that both England and France, whose rivalry Germany has just been legislating against, would share the benefit of any new arrangement with Austria, under the most-favored-nation clause. But the German Chancellor will probably find a way to carry out his designs.

The war between the Universal Israelite Alliance and the Rumanian Government about the status of the Rumanian Jews continues with great heat. M. Crémieux, the well-known French advocate, now in his eightieth year, is devoting himself vigorously, as President of the Alliance, to the defence of the claims of his brother Israelites under the Treaty of Berlin. In a letter to the Paris papers he ridicules the plan of naturalization by "categories" proposed by the Rumanian Ministry, which he says would only confer citizenship on 1,014 Jews, leaving the lot of the remaining 260,000 without amelioration. He alleges that the Rumanian Jews cannot have a permanent domicile in the country districts; cannot own houses, lands, or vineyards; cannot rent farms; cannot farm the octroi duties; cannot keep hotels or taverns, or sell tobacco, or own real estate in cities; cannot be professors, or lawyers, or druggists, or state doctors, or railroad employees, or reach a higher grade than sub-lieutenant in the army. To all this the Rumanian Minister in Paris, M. Callimaki Catargi, replies that not one of M. Crémieux's charges is true except that Jews cannot own real estate in the country and cannot vote, and he asks, with a certain sophistical force, how is it if they are so much oppressed in Rumania they flock thither, and stay there in great numbers? We presume the truth is that the Jews have all the legal rights that M. Catargi alleges, but are prevented by popular feeling from exercising them, and that they flock to Rumania chiefly from Russia, where their position is worse, and because in Rumania the indifference or incapacity of the Christians for trade and finance has given them the chance of making a great deal of money.

President Grévy and his Cabinet show no disposition to yield submissively to encroachments upon their dignity. A striking proof of this is the trial and conviction of M. Humbert, the returned Communist and Member-elect of the Paris municipality, for insulting the magistracy and defending occurrences which the law regards as crimes. He has been sentenced to six months' imprisonment, and to pay a fine of five thousand francs. A like punishment befell the editor of the *Marseillaise* newspaper on a similar charge, and the paper was suspended for a fortnight.

THE THEORY OF THE GREATEST TROUBLE.

THERE was, in Mr. Beecher's defence of the Machine the other day, a fallacy which, according to the point of view, may be regarded either as very impudent or very amusing. It occurred in the rebuke which he administered to the dissatisfied Republicans for their "indolence" and "preoccupation" in not taking care of primaries and conventions, and for their immodesty in attempting to "overrule those who have taken those pains and have done this work." That is to say, since Mr. Beecher avowed his intention to support Cornell, he presented the labors of the Machine and those of men like Mr. Curtis as precisely the same in kind. He appeared shocked that Conkling's henchmen should have had all the trouble of "fixing things," only to be told that they were not to reap the rewards of their superior industry. Political energy is accordingly divisible not into good and bad, but into greater and less, or into successful and non-successful; and political duty is summed up in Mr. Beecher's exhortation to "accept the best attainable organization," or the rule of the smartest.

This fallacy is by no means original with Mr. Beecher, though the immorality of it is a little more apparent when he fathers it than when it is put forth by the ordinary politician. It constantly vitiates the advice of newspapers whose sincerity need not be questioned, but which assert that the remedy for the Machine lies in attending the primaries, while insisting that if the game goes against the reformer there he is bound to endure the consequences till another time. It is hardly necessary to point out that this is the doctrine of the Machine itself, as it is of all gamblers who play with loaded dice; and its horror on seeing the Scratcher take out his pencil at the polls is precisely that of the gambler whose victim suddenly lays a revolver on the table and calls for a restitution of what has been foully won. When the Independent Republicans complain that they have tried attending primaries, and that it does no good, they are told by the very tricksters whose cunning has defeated them to try again: they were quite right in endeavoring to have their way, and should not be discouraged by temporary failure. Then the Machine's chaplain pats the good little boys on the head, says they will learn the game by-and-bye if they will only stand by the rules; that in politics the great thing is to be a worker; that *labor omnia vincit*, etc.

During the week another party moralist has appeared on the scene with counsel for the Scratchers. Mr. George Bliss, in a very ingenuous letter to the *Times*, accepts Mr. Cornell as sure to make a good Governor, but explains that he opposed his nomination on the ground that a stronger man could be furnished by the Republicans. Now, if the Scratchers had only seconded Mr. Bliss "at the proper time and in the proper place," the nomination would have been prevented and harmony have prevailed. But if political activity is in itself so admirable a thing, it seems strange that it should cease before the opportunity for it has passed. Except the length of the ticket there is no limit to the amount of work which a lively Scratcher can do at the polls, and it is not clear why "indolence" or "preoccupation" should excuse a man from this sort of exercise any more than from attending his primary. The trouble involved in scratching only makes it the more meritorious; for political desert, as Mr. Beecher has argued, is in direct proportion to the pains you take to make your convictions prevail. To vote the ticket prepared for you by the convention prepared by the prepared primary, is worthy of the Castle of Indolence, and no man not hopelessly given over to sedentary habits should submit to it.

We may as well concede that scratching is generally resorted to as a short cut, and is, instead of an added labor, the substitution of a small trouble for a greater. It is a kind of shirking which is particularly distasteful to the Machine and its apologists, whose rôle is to magnify the demands on the voter's time and patience in the discharge of his political duties. They appeal to a well-known weakness of human nature when they dwell on the necessity of organization and the unremitting attention which it imposes, and declare solemnly that men should drop their business and leave their firesides to take part in it, and refer feelingly to the good old times when the town-meeting was the type of universal political interest. They know that nothing is better calculated to disgust the common voter with the whole business, especially if he makes a simple-minded effort to leave no part of his duty neglected. They are perfectly serene in their expectation that he will conclude that politics is a science not to be learned in a day, and organization the proper work of a few, and that if he casts his ballot on election day it is as much as can be required of him. In the end they are sure of his gratitude for saving them from bother, and of his admiration for such unselfish assumption of the burden of carrying on the government. Or if by a miracle he is undeceived, and his manhood revolts at the dictation of the party managers, they depend for their security against a reform movement first on the love of ease which kept him or drew him out of "practical politics," and then on the enormous difficulties of getting control of long-established machinery. They even mock him by pretending that reform within the party is so easy that it should be attempted in no other way.

One of the last lessons in popular self-government is that politics is no exception to the rule that, with the growth of society in numbers and civilization, comes a deepening aversion to those cares which divert a man's mind from the pursuit of happiness. The same instinct which makes him satisfied to call in a policeman to expel an intruder from his house, instead of turning him out by main strength, or to shift on the Fire Department the responsibility of protecting his house against being burnt up, and which makes him welcome every fresh domestic "convenience," drives him irresistibly towards the greatest possible simplification of his share in the political organism. He feels that government is not one of the ends of life, and that, whatever his obligations to it may be, they are inferior and not supreme, and ought to exact of him the least amount of thought and personal discomfort compatible with their fulfilment. He will avoid them as far and as often as he can, and he will not take two steps for them where he can take one. For this reason the working party organization is always greatly outnumbered by the voters on whom it depends, and the full voting strength of any considerable political district is never seen at the polls. The discrepancy cannot be removed by addressing the sense of duty. The remedy lies in diminishing the number of elections and the causes of vacancies in office, and in reducing the whole system of government, as nearly as may be, to the pattern of a private business establishment.

The result of this would be to invest with greater dignity every political act, and to allow deliberation where now there is no chance for it whatever. All the apparatus which leads up from ward meetings to the Saratoga or Cincinnati convention has for its object the suppression of individual judgment, and it is literally true that the polls are the only point in the series at which there is any play for private choice. But then, of course, it is almost always under the disadvantage of having no power beyond a veto, with the risk of seeming to let in a greater evil than the one sought to be condemned. Hence the long impunity of the Machine, and the slow growth of the independence which is at last beginning to perceive that the best way of attending a corrupt primary is by scratching. Men may very well say, and they are saying in greater numbers every day: We will no longer be the dupes of those who tell us that organization is the life of party, and then control the organization beyond our utmost endeavors to employ it in behalf of the principles on which the party professedly rests; who taunt us, while holding up the ticket which we have had no hand in framing, with having neglected our duties at the primaries; who glorify their own artifices at the expense of our "indolence" and "preoccupation." They offer us as the price of reform the theory of the greatest trouble; we offer them in return the theory of the least. They may intrigue, and dicker, and "fix," and nominate by acclamation; we will erase from the ballot what they have concocted at the convention. We will enable an honest voter, without becoming the sport of primaries, to interpose a negative when their work is all done. Robbed of our right to weigh and discuss and choose elsewhere, at

the polls at least we will discriminate. If we have not assisted in "putting the Machine on the track," we shall do our best with the least exertion to throw it into the ditch.

THE GERMAN-AUSTRIAN ALLIANCE.

THE visit of Prince Bismarck to Vienna has excited the greatest interest throughout Europe, and is clearly a political event of the first importance. It is impossible not to look at it at first from what may be called the dramatic point of view. Can anything show better the changing nature of man than the reception given in Vienna to the stern diplomat who, after Sadowa, signed the preliminaries of Nikolsburg and turned the Austrian Empire out of the Bund of German Princes? It is quite true that even at Nikolsburg Bismarck was careful not to inflict on Austria wounds that cannot well be cured; he offended the pride of the Emperor more than the interests of the people. The Prussian military party was very anxious to keep the battle-fields of Bohemia, and to annex this province to Prussia, as the great Frederic had once annexed Silesia. Bismarck, who was not then as powerful as he is now with his sovereign, had the greatest difficulty in imposing moderation on the leaders of the conquering army. His secretary tells us, in those curious memoirs where the true Bismarck is found, that his *patron*, as he always calls him, left the room where Moltke and the others were, retired to an adjoining room, and had become so nervous with his discussion that he began to sob; the generals heard him, and renounced an annexation which would have been a perpetual obstacle to a reconciliation with Austria. Bismarck's object was to give to his own sovereign the undoubted leadership of the German race; meanwhile he considered, as Metternich and Gentz and all the German political philosophers have done, that Austria had a special mission in the East. She was to represent German civilization and culture in the valley of the Danube, in the peninsula of the Balkans, and to stand as a living obstacle to the growing influence of Panslavism, a force which is yet hardly defined in its character and ambitions, but which has always inspired the German mind with a profound and mysterious awe.

The occasion has come for Prince Bismarck to give effect to the German theories about Austria. By the Treaty of Berlin, Austria was allowed to occupy Bosnia, Herzegovina, and the outlying district of Novi-Bazar. This occupation has met with no serious opposition, while it has given great satisfaction to the military party in Austria. The extension of Austria-Hungary towards the East has begun. It is obvious that the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina will be indefinitely prolonged. This district is placed between Montenegro on one side and Servia on the other, and these two countries will fall by necessity under the influence of the Austrians. There will be, in consequence, in the peninsula of the Balkans, in the direction of Salonica, a group of states placed under the direct or indirect administration of Austria. Prince Bismarck has in this way given a mission to Austria-Hungary; it will be a long time before all these provinces are well intersected with railroads, and before the effects of the government of the Turks are effaced. Austria has always shown much capacity for governing half-civilized countries; she will accomplish much for the Oriental races, and confer on them benefits which will prove the most effectual barrier against Panslavism. Has Russia the right to complain of these changes? It would seem so, according to the Russian papers, the tone of which has lately become excessively hostile to Germany. It would seem from them as if Russia had been betrayed and deprived of all the results of her victories, and had been a mere cat's-paw for Austria. But these attacks are without sufficient justification. First of all, it is quite evident that, had it not been for Prince Bismarck, Russia could not have entered on the war with Turkey. At the Conference of Constantinople peace seemed at one time almost certain. The representatives of Europe had united upon a certain *minimum* of reforms which were to be imposed upon the Porte; Lord Salisbury assented, as did the French plenipotentiaries and General Ignatieff himself. At that juncture Bismarck sent a telegram to Count Münster telling him that it was a disgrace for Europe to give way before Turkey; that if the others were satisfied with the *minimum* of reforms, he was not. The surprise of Count Münster amounted almost to consternation. The Conference was broken up without having been able to come to an agreement on the Turkish question.

Prince Bismarck not only allowed Russia to enter upon the Eastern war, but he protected her against all the other Powers while the war was going on. There were hours of trial for Russia. Her armies were not well organized, the transports were slow, the army of Osman Pasha was inflicting enormous losses on the army commanded by the Czar in person. Who can tell what thoughts came across the minds of Austrian statesmen during that period? During the siege of Plevna one single Austrian *corps d'armée* entering Turkey would have turned the Russian campaign into a disaster. But Count Andrássy was ruling the policy of Austria, and there was already at that time a thorough understanding between the German and the Austrian chancellors. Russia was, in fact, protected against Austria during the war, and the neutrality of Europe allowed the Russian armies to arrive before Constantinople. Why they did not enter Stamboul, why they did not use the force of accomplished facts and strike one of those blows which seem the blows of destiny and which seldom meet with any resistance, is a mystery which has hitherto not been solved. It seemed almost incredible that Russia should not give her people and the Christian world of the East the pride of occupying Constantinople. When the Congress of Berlin was opened it was clear that Prince Bismarck had repaid, and had repaid generously, the debt of gratitude which Germany owed to Russia. Prince Gortchakoff may now be speaking with bitterness of the ingratitude of Germany; he may regret that he allowed France to be too much humbled and weakened in 1870. He bids her "faites-vous forts"; she can return him the compliment, but it is more difficult for her to make herself strong, as he desires, than it was for him to use his victories and to make them bear the best fruit. The Russians entered into the war with the greatest audacity, not to say imprudence, and when everything had become easy they became timid. They allowed the Powers which had not made the war to draw more prizes than Russia herself. She is left with slices of Armenia and Bessarabia, while England has taken Cyprus, and Austria is now quietly taking possession of Bosnia, of Herzegovina, and of the district of Novi-Bazar. The understanding between Count Andrássy and Prince Bismarck is of long standing. Bismarck has often said that Andrássy was necessary, not only to Austria, but to Europe; but since the visit to Vienna this understanding has become more apparent, and it may have taken the form of some practical arrangements, not to say treaties. These arrangements principally concern France, Italy, and Russia.

As for France, there is little to say. There was a deep-seated irony in the declaration which Prince Bismarck made to M. Teisserenc de Bort, the French Ambassador to Vienna, when he paid him his visit. He said that France had nothing to fear; that Germany was satisfied, quite satisfied. Perhaps this was a distant allusion to a famous saying of Napoleon III. in his days of glory: "Quand la France est satisfaite, l'Europe est tranquille."

As for Italy, she cannot see with much satisfaction the alliance of Austria with the strongest power in Europe. In his recent sensational pamphlet, called 'Res Italicæ,' Colonel Haymerle speaks with great sympathy of the Italian army and of the Italian people; but he warns them against the designs of the party called "l'Italia irredenta," the party of action, which is keeping up an agitation for the annexation of Trieste and of the Trentino. Would it not be much better for Italy, he asks, now that she has completed her unity, to become a friend of Austria? It is quite clear that Austria, backed by Prince Bismarck, will only look with contempt on the "Italia irredenta" party. Italy can get nothing out of the present situation; she was used to obtaining a province after each European war, whether she had herself been beaten or victorious on the battle-field; but this time, as a diplomat wittily remarked, she can get nothing "parcequ'elle n'a pas même été battue." The establish-

ment of the Austrian rule all along the opposite coast of the Adriatic is not pleasant to the Italians; but they must submit to the inevitable.

Russia looks, of course, with much concern on the alliance which has been made at Vienna, and in which she is more interested than any other power. She feels now more isolated from Europe; she found it difficult to carry on a war against the Turks, how could she carry on a war against Germany and Austria-Hungary? In case Russia should begin, a few years hence, a war against Turkey, it would be easy for the Austrians, starting from Novi-Bazar, to reach Constantinople before the Russian armies had crossed the Danube and arrived before the Balkans. Austria has now a flank position which allows her to go straight to Constantinople without encountering great difficulties. Russia is not and cannot be well pleased with such a state of things; she comes out of the war tired, discontented, disappointed; there are in the empire many germs of discontent. Russia must do again what she did after the Crimean war—reconstitute her army, build up railways, civilize her people, develop her immense natural resources. She has a vast future before her; but she needs financiers, engineers, economists, professors more than diplomats. Prince Gortchakoff has done as well as he could; he is a true Russian patriot; but he must have found that there is still too great a distance between the dreams of Russia and the stern reality—between the cup and the lip.

LAND AND LAND REFORMS IN ENGLAND.

London, October 5, 1879.

WE seem to be about to enter, after a short interval, upon a new period of economic legislation. The great commercial reforms which were timidly commenced by Huskisson half a century ago, which were conclusively settled in their principle by Sir Robert Peel, and which Mr. Gladstone developed in detail during his long term of office as Chancellor of the Exchequer in the successive administrations of Lord Aberdeen, Lord Palmerston, and Lord Russell, are about to receive a further application. The time to which Mr. Cobden looked forward, when the doctrine of free-trade, acknowledged with respect to the products of the soil, should be applied to the soil itself, is evidently coming. Lord Hartington's speech on Mr. Chaplin's motion for a Royal Commission of Enquiry into Agricultural Distress marked the conversion of the Whig aristocracy on this point. It is as notable in its way as the Edinburgh letter in which Lord John Russell gave the signal for the repeal of the Corn Laws. The conversion has not been effected by argument, though irrefragable arguments can and will be used in defence of it. The potato disease and the Irish famine repealed the Corn Laws. The beggary of the farmers, the falling rents, and the untenanted acres of landlords will precede the substitution of commercial for feudal principles in the ownership and tenure of the soil. The first effect of the distress is, of course, to provoke an outcry for protection. Familiar quackery occurs more readily to the mind of the farmer class than does unfamiliar political economy. But dear and scanty bread and meat cannot be forced upon a nation which knows what it is to have them cheap and abundant. The demand for protection, or for reciprocity, is simply a signal of distress, a cry of pain, and as such only does it deserve attention. The speeches of Lord Beaconsfield in the House of Lords and at Aylesbury are as good indications of the future as can be desired. He does not understand economic questions, though he is very fond of talking about them; but he clearly sees what are going to be the questions of the future.

Of course, Lord Beaconsfield begins by misrepresenting—or perhaps it would be fairer to put the initial step in the process a stage further back, and to say he begins by misunderstanding—the position of his adversary. He charges Lord Hartington with advocating the artificial creation of peasant proprietorships and the compulsory division of the soil. The same accusations were thrown a generation ago at the heads of Mr. Cobden and Mr. Bright, and provoked a furious encounter between them and the *Times* newspaper. What Lord Hartington asks now is that legislation intended to promote the accumulation and retention of land in a few hands shall be abolished, that settlements shall be restricted to lives actually in existence, and that the law of entail and the custom of primogeniture shall cease. Scope will thus be allowed for the free action of the natural forces of accumulation and distribution, and even for the liberty of personal caprice in the distribution of property. Greater variety would thus be introduced into the rural life of England. Instead of the iron-bound system which now prevails, in which the soil is owned by great landlords, farmed by capitalist tenants, and cultivated by landless laborers, this arrangement, while possibly for a long time predominant, would be gradually and increasingly tempered by an infusion of the old yeoman class and by that of peasant proprietors. The embarrassed landowner, instead of mortgaging the whole of his land for the payment of younger sons' portions or dowries, would clear it of these incumbrances by selling a part, if there were no entail or settlements tying his hands. It is often denied that any such consequences as these would follow. Land, it is said, is a bad commercial investment, and few persons will put their capital into it merely for the sake of the return it brings. The land of England is under-rented. The great landlord, whose income is counted by thousands and tens of thousands a year, compounds for diminished rent by the social ascendency and political authority which make his tenants his electioneering retainers, and enable him to control the representation of counties, and to earn a peerage, if he be a commoner, a step in the peerage if he be a peer already, a seat in the cabinet or a Garter. Smaller men are obliged to follow this ruling example. The sentiment of independence is so little developed in the farming class that they are willing to do personal and political homage for the sake of diminished rent. They like, too, to feel that, in case of a bad year or succession of years, they have a good landlord behind them. They speculate on the return of ten or fifteen or twenty per cent. in hard times. In Ireland this fact accounts for the strange phenomenon that tenants have been found to refuse the fee-simple of their farms, and to pay its full value for the mere tenant-right. They are not so foolish as they seem. They pay for the protection and assistance in emergency of the landlord. They invest in his kindness and good-nature. Of course on such a system as this a healthy self-reliance is impossible. In any other business such a principle would be seen to be absurd. The social evils which spring from it are even more serious than its economic disadvantages. Arrogance and ostentation on the one side, and an unmanly dependence and servility on the other, are its results. These disagreeable moral features are, perhaps, more conspicuous in England than elsewhere, and they painfully mar the finer elements in the national character.

Of course, long-established habits might for a considerable time interfere with the use, by landlord or tenant, of the freedom which the proposed legislation would give them. Landlords might for some time, under the influence of perverted class-feeling, continue to prefer a large and embarrassed to a smaller and free estate. Their greatness in the county would be estimated by the number of acres nominally theirs. The farmer, too, might shrink from severing himself from a landlord to whom he looks up as a patron and an insurance office. But here and there, and one by one, bolder spirits would break through the old routine, and their example would be followed. This is not merely theory, though even if it were, it is so obvious a corollary from human nature that it might be taken for granted. It has, however, even under present conditions, already received ample verification in one of the most important agricultural districts of England. In South Lincolnshire there are no great landlords; the land is mostly held in properties varying from a thousand to fifty or thirty acres, and the properties of fifty or thirty acres are fragments of once larger properties. Whenever a considerable farm is to be sold, it is found most profitable to split it up into small lots—two hundred acres, a hundred and fifty, fifty, thirty, twenty—and these are bought by men who intend to live on and cultivate them. The laborer who has saved a little money, who keeps the village public-house, or whose wife keeps the village shop, borrows a little more and buys a farm of twenty or thirty acres, which he cultivates with his own hands and those of his sons, with occasional hired and neighborly aid. The interest of the debt is paid, and gradually and ultimately the principal. It is noteworthy that the portion of Lincolnshire in which this system prevails suffers less from the general agricultural distress than any other.

It would be erroneous to say that an alteration of the existing laws would make this practice the rule. It exists in the part of Lincolnshire to which we refer because there are no large-acred squires and nobles anxious to monopolize a whole county, and driving the competition of yeoman and peasant out of the field. But it would become the rule in some parts of the country and the healthy exception in others. Probably for many generations England will be mainly owned by great landlords, and cultivated by tenant-farmers through the instrumentality of hired laborers, but it will be raised and tempered by an infusion of yeomen and peasant proprietors. The scientific methods appropriate to large farming, and the energy due to the sense of ownership, thus brought each

into the view of the other, would elevate the standard of agricultural skill and industry. The total productiveness of the country would in all probability be greatly increased.

We are far enough, however, from this result at present. Lord Hartington's speech, justifiable on social and economic grounds, had, of course, its party motive. It is connected with the effort now being very systematically made to win back the counties to the Liberal side. They were its strength before the Reform Bill of 1832, which, by the Chandos clause, handed them over to the Tories. For a long time the farmers will remain the political retainers of their landlords, believing in their patronage and not believing in the protection of the ballot. A more serious hindrance to the reform of the land-system will be the opposition of the great family solicitors, who hold the title-deeds of country gentlemen and are their confidential advisers and social confessors, and whose business would be cut down to nothing if the sale of land was made easy and simple negotiation gave a title. But though these things will delay the reform, it will ultimately be achieved in spite of them. †††

Correspondence.

THE HONEST MONEY LEAGUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I object to the suggestion of your Cincinnati correspondent "S. R. R.," that "under the depraving influence of the legal-tender notes" I have in some way been instrumental in making the term "honest money" appear as "a dissolving view." I do not quite understand how this wonderful stereoptical feat is supposed to have been accomplished, but I feel that the suggestion is not complimentary, and I object to it.

If "S. R. R." wishes to criticise an association formed for the purpose of convincing the people of the folly of irredeemable paper money, for assuming the name of the Honest Money League, he has found fair game, vulnerable to his most carelessly aimed arrows. The name was recognized when it was adopted as open to many objections. It is not precise; it may be also pharisaical. It was simply the least objectionable which could be devised at the time when the League was organized. The name, however, was not allowed to cloud the object which the League had in view—the consummation of resumption at the time fixed by law and the prevention of the many schemes for the issue of "fiat" money. This was its main if not its sole end, and to this it directed all its efforts. The only exception to this course was its publication of Mr. McCulloch's lecture on Bimetallism. When, therefore, the Greenback-inflation party becomes disintegrated and disappears, and Democratic and Republican platforms vie with each other in extolling coin and paper convertible into coin at the will of the holder as the only legitimate currency, its work is accomplished.

It cannot be denied that there is much in the present condition of our national finances, and in the laws which regulate them, to cause grave apprehensions in the minds of thoughtful men. But if one looks back to our situation a year ago, and compares it with our condition to-day, he must be a chronic grumbler of the most dismal type if he does not find ample cause for congratulating himself and his countrymen. Indeed, one need not be naturally very sanguine to see the happy change which has taken place—a fair road opened to the measures which are necessary to put our monetary affairs in the most satisfactory condition. There should not now be any great difficulty, if the work were systematically undertaken, in creating a popular sentiment in favor of retiring and destroying the three hundred and forty-six millions of outstanding legal-tender notes. If the same number of men as originally met to form the Honest Money League, equally in earnest, will organize an association for this purpose, and will give their thoughts and time to the work, it can be accomplished. Here is a fair field for "S. R. R.," and, if he accepts the challenge, it is to be hoped that he will invent some more definite and fortunate name for his association than that of the Honest Money League.

I can speak for a considerable number of those who have sustained the Honest Money League in saying that we consider it the imperative duty of the Government to redeem and cancel the legal-tender notes as fast as they are presented for payment, and that we are in favor of repealing the law of 1878 by which the Secretary of the Treasury is ordered to keep them in circulation, as soon as possible. We also hope that the decision of the Chittenden case by the Supreme Court will show that the greenbacks have already lost their legal-tender character, and that they are now no more than simple demand-notes, kept at par by redemption on presentation.

Lest I should seem to be avoiding the point concerning the silver coinage made by "S. R. R.," I will say that that danger seems to be very greatly lessened by the present temper of the people. The coinage of two millions of silver dollars per month may go on for a year or two yet without damage to our standard of price. These dollars will take the place of the one and two-dollar bills of the national banks, the issue of which is now forbidden by law, and we shall still maintain our gold standard.

In conclusion, let me say that my former letter was not intended to lay "the unction of the aged Simeon" anywhere, but simply to show from the experience of the Honest Money League that popular opinion can be successfully influenced by furnishing correct information in a cheap form on any economic question of present political interest, and to express the hope that a permanent society might be organized for this purpose.

M. L. Scudder, Jr.

Chicago, Oct. 13, 1879.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE NEW YORK ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Republicans who have sincerely supported the Administration in its efforts at reforming the civil service are surprised and indignant at the support apparently given by it to the Cornell ticket. If Messrs. Evarts and Sherman, in giving countenance to the supporters of Cornell, were merely overlooking and pardoning personal insults, we could commend their unselfish patriotism. But when they condone opposition to principles which they have taught us to consider vital to the welfare of the nation, we cannot forgive them so easily. President Hayes in his letter of acceptance gave more prominence to civil-service reform than to any other portion of the Republican platform. That admirable letter, so clearly stating and enforcing the need of reform in this respect, won more votes for Mr. Hayes from independent citizens than anything else. These principles were reiterated in the President's inaugural address. It will be remembered that disaffection among Machine politicians was manifested very soon after the inauguration, and the Senate exhibited unusual hesitation and delay in confirming Mr. Hayes's Cabinet appointments. This called forth strong expressions in favor of the President among the people. But the bitterest and most decided opposition to any attempt at improving the public service appeared in the Rochester Convention of 1877, at which Senator Conkling denounced in the most vituperative terms members of the Administration, and all who favored any reform in the civil service. He brought Dr. Johnson into requisition—language of his own failing in bitterness—and said that "reform," instead of "patriotism," was the "last refuge of a scoundrel." Before long a practical test occurred. An order, designed to promote civil-service reform, was issued, which Mr. A. B. Cornell, holding a federal office, disregarded and openly defied. He was therefore removed by the President. When the question of concurrence in his removal came before the Senate Mr. Conkling opposed the Administration, and made one of the numerous "greatest efforts of his life" in striving for his retention in office. Mr. Sherman, in communications to the Senate, showed not only that Mr. Cornell had been contumacious and disobedient, but that he had neglected the duties of his office and ought not to be retained. And now that Mr. Cornell, by Mr. Conkling's personal dictation, has been nominated for Governor of New York, we are told that Mr. John Sherman is coming to our State to advise his friends and supporters to forget the past and vote for Cornell! And we are also informed that Mr. Evarts is to make a speech in favor of the Saratoga ticket, and that this ticket is also approved by President Hayes!

There is something almost ludicrous in the last newspaper reports about Mr. Evarts. They say that he has returned to Washington satisfied, after an interview with Mr. Cornell and Gen. Arthur, that there is no alliance between the Cornell Republicans and Tammany Hall! Credulous Mr. Evarts! Does he forget that when John F. Smyth was in danger of removal for his violations of law, and his extortions from insurance companies, the Tammany Senators came to his rescue and saved him? Does he know that John Kelly avowed that the object of his running was not to be elected himself, but to defeat Robinson—in other words, to elect Cornell? Has he noticed the efforts of Police Commissioners French and Wheeler as champions of Tammany Hall? Has he observed the fulsome praises of Kelly and his chief supporters which appear daily in

the Albany *Evening Journal* and other leading partisan Republican newspapers? Does he suppose that "alliances" of this kind are in writing, under seal, and capable of proof, except as they are proved by the acts of the parties?

Secretaries Evarts and Sherman may choose to abandon the principles which they have seemed to espouse, but I trust they will not be able to carry with them those who have sincerely adopted these same principles, not because members of the Cabinet have advocated them, but because they believe them right. "T. W.," who was opposed to Cornell's nomination on other grounds, advises Republicans now to support him, mainly because Cornell *was* opposed to the Administration in this civil-service business. This is very well for "T. W." and any others who agree with him in opposing civil-service reform; but it is a powerful and controlling reason to those who do approve of the *expressed* policy of the Administration for *opposing* Mr. Cornell as the champion of the Machine doctrines that "to the victors belong the spoils," and that our present civil service is "the best in the world." If the Administration is not willing to stand by its doctrines, *some* of its supporters are.

It is said we must elect Cornell and all his colleagues on the ticket, or the Democrats will win in 1880, and all that was won in the war will be lost. Senator Conkling and Rev. Henry Ward Beecher both seem to be of this opinion. Their speeches in Brooklyn, however, fail to tell us why this is so. Must the Insurance and the Tammany and Canal rings control in New York in order to prevent the "solid South" from coming into power in the nation? Does the "life of the nation" depend on the election as Governor of New York of a man whom a Republican Administration found unfit to be Surveyor of the Port? or as State Engineer of a man who was convicted by a Republican committee—of which Assistant-Secretary Seward was one—of the grossest incompetence and rascality? or on putting into the office of State Treasurer an intriguing Machine politician now before the Supreme Court as defendant in an action brought by some of the most prominent tax-payers of this city, in which he is charged with attempting—by fraudulent collusion with Democratic politicians—to collect a fraudulent claim from the treasury of the city of Albany?

I have no sympathy with the Democratic party; I desire to defeat its attempt to get possession of the Government in 1880, but *non tali auxilio*. The Republican party will be all the stronger next year by such a lesson in favor of the nomination of the best men of the party as will be taught to those who run the Machine by the defeat of Cornell, Wendell, and Soule.

INDEPENDENT REPUBLICAN.

ALBANY, Oct. 13, 1879.

AN OPEN QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The last Legislature of Massachusetts bestowed upon the women of this State the legal right to vote, under the same conditions as men, for members of the public school committees. The law was passed after much hard work on the part of the Woman's Suffrage party. This party regarded the new law as the opening wedge which would eventually clear the way for woman's suffrage in the full meaning of the expression. But a great disappointment has befallen the friends of woman's suffrage in this State. Having overcome the so-esteemed brutal force of a Massachusetts Legislature, they are met by a new difficulty—the, to them, childish indifference of the women themselves. After the most careful instructions touching the manner of registration—which instructions were published in the newspapers of the Commonwealth—there seems to be no general movement on the part of the women of our State to prepare for the new duties awaiting them. The right to vote for school committee, instead of proving a wedge in the hands of the advocates of woman's suffrage, is now being used as a weapon by their opponents, who declare the present indifference of women to be proof positive that the woman's suffrage movement will fail. This, of course, the Woman's Suffrage party indignantly deny, while they contend that, woman's right to vote being indisputable, the suffrage should be conferred on women though but a handful of women desire it.

That the apathy of the women of this State concerning their newly-acquired privilege does not in itself show that woman's suffrage must prove a failure, I admit. That the apathy in question may indicate a very important—indeed, all-important—reason why woman's suffrage will never be a success, I think is unquestionable. So far as this apathy means only an inexperience of new duties and an unwillingness to undertake them, it counts for nothing; or rather it counts for only this, that, from the position taken by the Woman's Suffrage party—the position that women are kept from the enjoyment of certain natural rights by the tyranny of men—the women of Massachusetts show a disgraceful lack of character concerning their rights, which no theory of man's tyranny will satisfactorily explain away. But if, instead of meaning an inexperience of new duties, this apathy referred to points to a permanent natural disqualification in women generally for that amount of public life which voting implies, then the great mass of women will never want to vote, and the woman's suffrage agitation will come to naught. The real question, the vital question still open is this: Are women by nature disqualified for voting? The question, Have women the right to vote? is absurd and not worth considering. Of course women have the right to vote if they wish to vote. No conceivable argument can deprive them of this right. I have that confidence in Nature, however, which leads me to believe that the wishes of the great mass of women will be an absolutely safe guide in settling this matter of woman's suffrage.

In questioning woman's natural qualification for the suffrage, no question is intended to be raised touching woman's mental ability if she choose to divert her mind, in a measure, from its usual channels in the direction of politics. What I do mean to question is, Whether woman's natural duties can be as well performed if she add political duties to them? If they cannot, Nature has disqualified women for the exercise of political duties. Now, the dividing line between the duties—or occupations—of men and women respectively is by no means fixed, and is perhaps less fixed to-day than ever before. This line, however, can never be obliterated. Women can never become soldiers, or sailors, or police, or—to my thinking—State officers. On the other hand, women always must—and their nature will make them always ready to—fulfil the duty of bearing and raising children for the race. This is the special, the all-important function of women, and there is no danger that anything will permanently interfere with it. If woman's suffrage be found to interfere with it, woman's suffrage will be impossible.

I said above that women should vote if they so desired. But by women I do not mean one woman in five hundred. The exceptional woman with a taste for politics argues but little for woman's suffrage in view of the real question to be decided. For it is nonsense to suppose that men and women are so different in nature that special training cannot greatly modify this difference. Indeed, special training has so modified or changed the natures of some women as to make distasteful to them the performance of those duties which I have indicated as the most natural and the most important belonging to women. We have no reason to doubt, then, that the necessity or the desire on their part could make it possible for women to perform many duties belonging to men; but the question is not, What are women capable of doing? the question is, What are women capable of doing consistently with the complete performance of their special duties?

The proposition laid down by woman's suffrage advocates, that any woman wishing to vote should be allowed to do so, does not seem to me defensible. It is perfectly defensible, however, to hold that if any woman chooses to modify or change her nature, or take upon herself duties generally performed by men, she should have perfect freedom to do so; always provided her doing so does not work injustice to her fellow-citizens. For example: Would a woman become a merchant? The door is open to her and should be kept open, and this, too, though there is little doubt that a general following of mercantile pursuits on the part of women would interfere with the due fulfilment of their special function. For the state to prohibit women from mercantile pursuits, however, would be as absurd as for the state to compel women to marry. Why, then, should not those women vote who wish to, however small their number? Because such a course would be unjust to the great mass of women. The right to vote carries with it the duty to vote, and the state has no right to impose upon women in general—as granting the privilege of voting to a few women who wish it would practically do—a duty which nature may have incapacitated them from fulfilling. The Woman's Suffrage party would, of course, deny such incapacity, which would be to deny the existence of the whole question at issue. The question exists, however, and there are more who answer it against woman's capacity for the vote than who answer it the other way; and this is true among women themselves. The only position for the state in the matter is not to answer the question at all, but leave the answering of it to women as a sex. When women with some unanimity demand the suffrage, the state should bestow it. Whether we think so or not, this is practically the position the state takes to-day. Let women as a sex demand the suffrage, and the opposition to their demand would count for little. But besides the injustice to woman of forcing the suffrage upon her, the state owes it to itself not to

grant the suffrage to women until there is good reason to believe they will generally use it. If a large majority of the better classes of women neglect the suffrage when granted, the state opens the gates to all the evils lately pointed out by Mr. Parkman in his recent *North American Review* article. If it be asserted, on the other hand, that the better women will perform their political duties as a matter of conscience, should the suffrage be given, though not demanded by them, then, in view of the open question above-indicated, the state, by forcing women to perform political duties, may be forcing them to do so at the expense of the welfare of the race. However we look at the matter, the only rational course for the state is to withhold the suffrage from women until there is a real and general demand for it.

This conclusion has been reached without meeting the argument, so often brought, that it is unjust that women should have no voice in the election of that body which takes their money from them in taxes, and makes laws for them to obey. In reply to this, it may be said that the great mass of women who feel this no injustice, and who are willing to trust to man to see to it that they are fairly dealt with by the law, can hardly be said to be treated with real injustice. An injustice that is unperceivable to intelligent women generally either can be no injustice to them or else they are hardly fitted, at least as yet, to get rid of this injustice by taking upon themselves political duties. Perhaps they feel that though unrepresented in the deliberations of legislative bodies, as far as votes make representation possible, they are practically represented by a more potent unseen influence over men than their votes would give them. Those women, however, who really feel the injustice referred to deserve our commiseration. This I say with all seriousness. They are in an unfortunate position, whichever way the question of woman's qualification for the vote be decided; for either they are unfortunate in belonging to a sex disgracefully blind to its own rights, or else they are unfortunate in possessing natures out of harmony with what Nature intended woman's nature to be. Their unhappy position, however, can hardly affect the conclusion reached concerning the state's proper position toward woman's suffrage.

If the foregoing be the true philosophy of the woman's suffrage question, would it not be in the interest of woman's suffrage for its advocates to waste less time over the question of woman's right to vote, and concentrate all their strength on the real enemy to their cause—the women themselves? If they fail to convince them, they must accept defeat as Nature's negative answer to the question, Are women naturally qualified to vote? B.

Boston, October 16, 1879.

DEPARTMENT ATTORNEYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with your remarks in your last issue on the speech of Mr. John A. Bentley, Commissioner of Pensions, at the anniversary of the Grand Army of the Republic, I would call attention to the fact, but little known, that under the present laws practically any person, without regard to character, intelligence, or profession, may appear as attorney before the Pension Office or any of the executive departments. This may account in some measure for "Mr. Bentley's prejudice against lawyers," but, as you well point out, he has done much towards magnifying this evil. Nor is an upright attorney protected, for if in any way he infringes the severely technical rules of the Pension Office he is at the mercy of the Commissioner, and may be suspended or debarred from practice at his pleasure.

Bills have been introduced in both Houses of Congress to form a regular departmental bar, under such regulations in regard to admission and exclusion as govern the bar of every court; but, so far, each measure of relief of this sort has failed of passage.—Yours, respectfully,

William B. King.

No. 908 M Street, Washington, D. C., Oct. 18, 1879.

Notes.

THE September-October number of the *Library Journal* recommends itself to all parents and instructors of youth, for it contains a full report of the papers and remarks at the late Boston Conference on fiction and the reading of school children.——We have received the current circular of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle—an organization for promoting home study with a view to securing "the college student's general outlook upon the world and life." Full information concerning it may be had on application to the President, Mr. J. H. Vincent, Plainfield, N. J. The studies for the present year include Merivale's 'General History of Rome,' Eugene Lawrence's 'Primer of Latin Literature,' 'Philosophy of the Plan of Salvation,' by J. B. Walker, D.D., Blaikie's 'How to Get Strong,' and numerous other text-books which we cannot specify here.——M. Feuardent has disposed of four Tanagra figurines to Mr. Fairman Rogers, of Philadelphia, who has, after Mr. Appleton's example in Boston, presented them to the Academy of Fine Arts in his city. They are all female figures. One has the pointed hat characteristic of these statuettes, two have fans, and the third perhaps had one. For gracefulness of lines the smallest is easily to be preferred. On account of the excessive duties imposed upon antiquities at this port, these four figures are delivered from Canada—a fresh argument against annexation. ——Prof. Charles Eliot Norton has placed on exhibition at 127 Tremont Street, Boston, a collection of drawings by Mr. Ruskin which are partly the exhibitor's own, and partly contributed expressly by Mr. Ruskin. They considerably outnumber the drawings which were shown last year in London in connection with Turner's. The catalogue, like the exhibition itself, is arranged chronologically, and the notes and memoranda appended from Mr. Ruskin's own hand are, if we may use a Teutonic compound, autobiographical-critical.——We have received from G. A. M. Liljencrantz, C.E., Chicago, two charts published by him representing in zigzags the series of thermal maxima and minima daily for one year at four cities in this country. The value of these diagrams will not equal the pains required to prepare them. The description is obscure in saying that "the full lines represent the series of the maximum . . . daily *variations*," forgetting that this last term is commonly employed to denote the *range* within a single period, and not the difference between adjoining periods.——John Wiley & Sons have issued the completed 'Treatise on the Differential Calculus' by Profs. Rice and Johnson, an excellent work. Its philosophy of the calculus is essentially the same as that of the German work of Prof. Karl Snell, of the University of Jena (published in 1846). ——With Part VIII. begins the second volume of Dr. Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan & Co.) It opens in the midst of Libretto and closes in the midst of Mendelssohn. Some of the prominent names included are Jenny Lind, Mme. Lucca, Malibran, Liszt, Lulli, Martin Luther, Lowell Mason, and Méhul, and Colonel Mapleson is not omitted. Famous songs like "Lilliburlero," "Lochaber no More," "Malbrook," and the "Marseillaise" have here the words, history, and music given. Lute, Lyre, and Mandolin are the chief musical instruments treated, and under the last is given an inedited sonatina of Beethoven's, composed for the mandolin. Macbeth Music, Magyar Music, Madrigal, and Mass are among the more important general articles. There is a noticeable increase in portrait illustrations, Liszt, Lulli, Malibran, and Méhul being thus commemorated.——Mr. F. W. Foster is contributing to successive numbers of *Notes and Queries* a "Title List of Catalogues of English Plays," including, besides professed dramatic bibliographies like the 'Biographia Dramatica,' all the important sale-catalogues of theatrical libraries.——Mr. Austin Dobson is preparing for the series of "Illustrated Biographies of the Great Artists," issued in this country by the Scribners, a life of Hogarth. A selection of Mr. Dobson's poems is to be published in New York this winter. His Theocritan *villanelle* in the November *Scribner's* was written as an introduction to a forthcoming translation of Theocritus, Moschus, and Bion by Mr. Andrew Lang, whose prose translation of the 'Odyssey' we reviewed not long ago.——We are indebted to Sr. Don Alfredo Chavero, President of the Congress of the Mexican Republic and, besides his prominent legal and political standing, a genuine enthusiast in the antiquities of his country, for the 'Anales del Museo Nacional de México.' It can safely be said that nothing has ever been published on Mexican aboriginal history (excepting, perhaps, the Collections of Documents of Sr. Icazbalceta) exceeding in interest and importance these luxuriously equipped brochures, which contain fac-similes of paintings and scrupulously exact reproductions of monuments, not to speak of the texts, which appear under such signatures as Orozco y Berra, Chavero, and Sanchez. The publication reflects the greatest credit upon our sister Republic, and promises to be of lasting value for science.——In our recent review of 'Fern Etchings' we understated the number of etched plates, which are sixty-five in all. As three of these are double, they represent sixty-eight species.——The Independent Republican Committee, whose headquarters are at 8 Union Square, have issued a timely pamphlet capable of being divided at once into tracts, and well adapted to convince candid voters of the reasonableness of the aims of the movement headed by the Committee.

—More English announcements are: 'The Russians at Home and the Russians Abroad,' by Mr. Sutherland Edwards; 'Russia before and after the War,' by the author of 'Society in St. Petersburg'; 'Cyprus as I saw It in 1879,' by Sir Samuel Baker; 'Travels in Asiatic Turkey,' by Commander Cameron; 'Sunshine and Storm in the East; or, Cruises to Constantinople and Cyprus, 1874–78,' by Mrs. Brassey. Several important works are to be completed—Mr. J. R. Green's 'History of the English People,' with a fourth volume; Prof. Masson's 'Life of Milton,' with a sixth; Lanfrey's 'History of Napoleon I.,' with a fourth; also, Walpole's 'History of England from 1815' will be continued in a third volume from 1832 to 1841; the fourth and fifth volumes of Ihne's 'History of Rome' will appear this season; and Mr. E. A. Freeman will bring out a third series of 'Historical Essays.' In the same branch of literature we must mention a 'History of the Huguenots of the Dispersion,' by Reginald Lane Poole; the 'Correspondence of Gilbert Elliot, First Earl of Minto, while Governor-General of India, 1807–14'; a 'Life of Cobden,' in two volumes, by John Morley; the 'Letters of Charles Dickens,' edited by Miss Dickens and Miss Hogarth; and 'Fifty Years of the British Constitution, from 1830 to 1880,' by Prof. Sheldon Amos. Translations into prose of Dante's 'Purgatorio,' by A. J. Butler, of 'Select Letters of Cicero,' by the Rev. G. E. Jeans; 'Selections from Addison,' edited for the Golden Treasury Series by J. R. Green, and from Shelley, by the Rev. Stopford Brooke; 'Essays on Art and Archæology,' by C. T. Newton; 'Lectures on German Thought,' by Karl Hillebrand; and the 'Folk-Lore of Old Japan: a Budget of Notes about Nypon,' by C. Pfoundes, conclude our summary for the present.

—*Harper's Monthly* for November has the popular character which one expects in this magazine. The opening paper, by W. H. Rideing, treats of the national pike between Cumberland and Wheeling, and is worth reading if only for the glimpse it gives of one of the most beautiful regions in the United States. The writer's imagination is not equal to that of Mr. Howard Pyle, who furnishes several charming illustrations to the article. Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin has a chapter on "Early American Art," of which sundry interesting examples are given in the accompanying engravings. Mr. Benjamin's critical capacity is freshly revealed in sentences like these: "Sully had great refinement of feeling; this is shown in a certain favorite ideal head of a maiden which he reproduced in various compositions. One often recognizes it in his works." In what he has to say of Copley some of his dates would be changed by reference to the latest life of that artist, whose portrait-painting began at fifteen. The warfare against the English sparrow, with which Dr. Coues's name is so prominently connected, is discussed and partly deprecated by one of his associates in the Smithsonian Institution, Prof. H. W. Elliott. This well-known writer relates the history of the introduction of the sparrow into the United States, and sums up the pros and cons of his case by acquitting him as a city bird, and sentencing him to judicious suppression as a country bird. In regard to the moot question whether the sparrow feeds on insects, he suggests rather than makes the point that the young, of which there are three or four broods every year, are fed wholly on insects or their larvæ. Mr. A. A. Hayes, jr., describes what he saw among the cattle ranches of Colorado, and enters into an elaborate estimate of the profits of a business whose magnitude, actual and future, has not yet dawned upon the Eastern public. In his Easy Chair, Mr. Curtis tells a flattering tale of the pecuniary success of the late Summer School of Philosophy at Concord, and finds Sir George Campbell's observations in America highly creditable to his temper and his intelligence.

—There is little in the November *Lippincott* to call for special remark. The second paper of "Rambles of Three" is not more successfully humorous than its predecessor, although we are shown a gentleman in the attitude of the Venus de Médicis, and a lady posing as the Fighting Gladiator, and although the text is fully as amusing as the illustrations. Mr. Oswald continues his Central American sketches acceptably. The first part of a story called "Aimée," by G. H. Peirce, promises well; Mr. J. Brander Matthews writes circumstantially about Sheridan's "Critic," without attempting criticism of course; "Goethe's Mother," by Alfred S. Gibbs, consists principally of letters to and from the "Frau Rath," and is accompanied by an outline portrait of her; "Leadville" is an illustrated and substantially complete account, by I. Bonner, of the new mining city; there are also articles about the raising and exportation of beef in the West, and about the bicycle and how to use it, and poems by Miss Lazarus and Miss Charlotte F. Bates which are not particularly striking. The cream of the number, perhaps, is "Sir Charles Godfrey, Baronet," a short story by Philip Bourke Marston; it has a very delicate flavor, and is in the main so cleverly handled that the reader will regret the cheapening of the tragic element due to a slip or an oversight, very likely, and remediable by the cancelling of a single sentence. In "Our Monthly Gossip" there is a translation from Zola, in which he is at his best and uses his realism to heighten the poetical effect of his picture.

—Mr. Goldwin Smith speculates in the November *Atlantic* as to "The Prospect of a Moral Interregnum," which, since "the realities of faith" seem to him inextricably bound up with "current definitions" (to borrow a phrase from a transcendental writer who holds the contrary opinion), he thinks is good. The replacement of the current theology by Evolution and Agnosticism points to it very clearly, he believes. "Nothing, we must recollect, can in any but a figurative sense be henceforth *sacred*"; "In the struggle for existence he (Napoleon) survived the Duc d'Enghien"; "he (Napoleon) was an Agnostic, thoroughbred; all the more evidently so because he coolly restored religion for the purposes of his policy"; "If Jonathan Edwards found the truth it is very remarkable, since he never sought it for a moment"—there are a number of neat, not to say telling, phrases indeed, which make the paper entertaining reading aside from its value. As to its value opinions will undoubtedly differ. "In the next generation Evolutionists and the belief in the struggle for existence will be clear of the penumbra of Gospel morality, and the world will then have their Sermon on the Mount," is an assertion which must seem to many people less and less likely to prove true, since, measured by the test of experience even, the aforesaid penumbra appears to many as real and valid as any induction can, and to be no whit impaired by the attacks on the theology with which it has hitherto been bound up. It will not, however, be denied that Mr. Goldwin Smith makes out a good case, and that his essay is both serious and stimulating. The same can hardly be said of any other paper in the number. "Our Military Past and Future," which is this month the "sensational leader," views with alarm the condition of American militia, proposes to substitute for it "a force of national volunteers organized by the War Department and commanded by the President," and wants military science added to the studies of the public schools. The article, which is anonymous, addresses its suggestions "not only to the national authorities but also to the American people," but we fear thorough consideration of them will be postponed in both quarters, at least until after the Presidential election of next year. As a pure matter of taste it would, perhaps, have been more satisfactory if a critic of the military capacity and personal bravery of eminent generals in the late civil war had signed his paper. "Irene the Missionary" is finished; "The Waldenses of To-day," a short paper by George E. Waring, jr., is worth reading; "Englishwomen in Recent Literature," which, for some undiscoverable reason, associates Lady Anne Blunt, Mrs. Mark Pattison, and George Eliot, is distinctly the reverse; the reviews are numerous, and, for the most part, well done.

—A correspondent, writing from the University of California, for whose communication in full we are unable to make room, calls attention to the graduates of our so-called Agricultural Colleges as fit subjects for adoption into the army as second lieutenants. Their advantage over other civilians is, first, the general scientific and classical education which they have received—in some cases comparable to that obtainable at West Point—and, secondly, their instruction in military tactics, as required by the law which endowed those colleges, for the express reason that "there might be a large number of educated men, having a considerable knowledge of military affairs, who would be of service to the Government in case of emergency." The last class graduating from the University of California—47 picked men out of the 142 who entered—had been "made familiar with the manual of arms, and the manœuvres of company and battalion drill, target practice, and the use of a battery of field guns," besides having listened to "frequent lectures by a regular army officer on the organization and supply of armies, grand tactics, and the conduct of campaigns." Such men, our correspondent thinks, should by law have precedence of all other civilians in the appointment of second lieutenants.

—We have been favored with an abstract of the civil-service examinations in the New York Custom-house from April 3 to June 3, 1879—for admission only, and not for promotions. Applicants are divided into two grades, (A) if the annual salary is $1,200 or more, (B) if the salary is less than $1,200. For the former there were 266 applicants, for the latter 51. The following statistics concerning them are not without interest. Age: A, ranging from 20 to 72 years (average 42 years, 6 months); B, from 19 to 62 (average 40 years, 9 months). Nationality: native, A, 228, B, 29; born in New York State, A, 140, B, 22. Education: common-school only, A, 56½ per cent., B, 92; academic, A, 33½ per cent., B, 8; collegiate,

A, 10 per cent., B, 0. Previous occupation : in United States civil service, A, 33⅓ per cent., B, 20 ; military, A, 20½ per cent., B, 25½ ; naval, A, 3½ per cent., B, 4. Vocations : these range from a railroad president to a stoker, and are summarized as follows : clerks, A, 38¼ per cent., B, 23⅓ ; mercantile, A, 17, B, 17¾ ; professional, A, 14½, B, 2 ; brokers and agents, A, 13¼, B, 5¾ ; mechanics, A, 10, B, 39½ ; farmers, A, 3½, B, 5¾ ; seamen, A, 3½, B, 5¾. The appointments to vacancies in Grade A were, in the Collector's Office, 9, in the Naval, 4. Their ages ranged from 26 to 54, with an average of 37 years. Ten of the thirteen were born in New York ; six had been in the civil, and two in the military service of the United States ; six had received a common-school education only, six an academic, and one a collegiate ; seven had been clerks, three merchants, one a manufacturer, one a broker, and one an expressman. Their examination standings upon a scale of 100 varied from 96.56 to 91.03, with an average of 93.49. Six appointments to vacancies in the Collector's Office were made from Grade B. Their ages ranged from 30 to 43, with an average of 38 years. One-half were born in New York ; all had been in the United States civil or military service; only one had received an academic education. Four had been clerks, one a policeman, and one a mechanic. Their examination standings varied from 95.6 to 88.75, with an average of 92.16.

—In the October *Nineteenth Century* Mr. Karl Hillebrand begins a series of "Familiar Letters on Modern England," which by and by, probably, we shall see collected, but which, to judge by the opening paper, will also be worth noticing as they appear. A great many things relating to English life Mr. Hillebrand is not going to write about—politics, for instance ; and why so large a portion of the female part of the community "prefer being treated by their male fellow-creatures as sexless comrades, to receiving those homages, rather understood than outspoken, and more of general attitude than of direct courtship, which make the charm of French society." It will be seen from this phraseology that if Mr. Hillebrand abstains from discussing this subject, it is not because he has no opinion upon it ; indeed, our author everywhere in this essay expresses his views with a bluntness and decision which remind one less of a literary critic than of a professor talking *ex cathedrâ*. What strikes him first in modern England is the respect paid to the ways and works of foreigners, a tendency not bad in itself, but bad here because founded not on reason and knowledge but upon whim and fashion. "When I live among the English," says Mr. Hillebrand, "I always feel as if I were aboard ship, and every now and then all the passengers at once rushed to starboard when their attention was called to something on that side, and again to larboard, with the same awkward impetus, as soon as some authoritative voice pointed out something there. . . From a British Thucydides Macaulay has become a species of British Capefigue, and the awkward scholar of Jena and Heidelberg, who did not understand himself, a poetical dreamer, full of hidden treasures of thought ; the flippant and frivolous Parisian wit, half malicious monkey, half good-natured child, the model of all radical and democratic virtues." The cause of the extravagance, if not of the changeableness of British opinion, proceeds, according to Mr. Hillebrand, from British indisposition, or incapacity, to look below the surface. "An English liar, or hypocrite, or humbug is the character easiest to be looked through; partly because the inflexible Englishman wants the suppleness necessary to assume half-true appearances ; partly because such half-true appearances are not admitted by the moral code of English society. . . . Now, a little exaggeration in kindness of manner, in statement, in dignity of behavior, in assertion of principles, is a thing which nobody finds fault with in the Continental nations of old civilization, and which everybody there takes *cum grano salis*. Now, it is this *fable convenue* of political, religious, literary, and social life in France which the English are very apt to take for genuine, when it is not meant at all to be taken thus by those who use it." All this is noticeable, not only in political judgments and in conversation, but also with regard to literature and art, and in the writings of persons who pretend to wide and thorough scholarship. "You hear people speak quietly of Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt and Rachel, of Gambetta and M. Dufaure, of G. Planche and Sainte-Beuve, of O. Feuillet and Mérimée, without the slightest perception of the distance between such names, and the very relative consideration their bearers enjoy in their own country"; and further proofs of the same tendency are given in the shape of quotations from reviews and popular authors like Mr. Lecky. Perhaps the class most hardly hit is that which finds such delight in the use of foreign catchwords :

"To take up only one of those instances of want of *nuance* resulting from a misunderstanding of foreign words and ideas, the word *philistine* is a new expression taken from the German ; and if an Englishman uses it he is bound to use it in the German sense, or to declare he gives it another sense. . . . This word, indeed, has always kept in the German mind something of its origin—the opposition to the liberty and Bohemian life of the student. What constitutes *philistinism* is pedantic regularity of habits, both in life and thought, prosiness, want of enthusiasm, narrowness of social and intellectual horizon, a certain mild conventionalism, and timid shrinking from paradox, noise, and fantasy. Never was there any man less *philistine* than the dashing, bustling, passionate Whig [Macaulay], whose ponderous rhetoric charmed the youth of our generation throughout the civilized world."

—The French opera season has thus far proved very successful. The operas which have been given, "La Fille de Madame Angot," "La Périchole," "Giroflé-Girofla," and "Barbe-Bleue," have all been well given, and have each run for a considerable number of nights. All the parts have been well taken, even the subordinate ones (as, for instance, the *Trois Cousines* in the "Périchole"), and there has been nothing to complain of in the chorus or the orchestra. Of course interest has centred in Capoul, who had never been heard here in opéra bouffe, in Mlle. Paola-Marié, the sister of Irma (through whom the part of *Périchole* first became familiar to New York theatre-goers), and Mlle. Angèle, about whom nothing was known here at all. As to the last, we can only say that if her musical taste and skill were equal to her beauty she would make the most dangerously-fascinating *Lange* on any stage. But she has as a singer very serious faults. She does well enough in energetic passages, but where delicacy and shading are required she breaks down, and, what is worse, frequently sings false. But her appearance is so fine that the blemishes in her singing are not treated critically. With Paola-Mari the case is very different. She is decidedly attractive in appearance and sings almost perfectly in both serious and bouffe methods. She has a refined and pleasing manner of acting, though to our recollection she is inferior to Irma in the "Périchole." She is not such a poetical gipsy and vagabond ; there is a little too much air of business about her Bohemianism, and this does not belong to the part. In other words, she is inferior as an actress to her sister, as she is also to Aimée, whom she surpasses, however, considerably in refinement. Capoul has made in opéra bouffe a success only equalled by that he made some years ago in Italian opera ; and the success in the present case is much the more legitimate of the two. He never had a sufficiently powerful voice for Italian opera, but for the light music of Offenbach and Lecocq a powerful voice is not needed, What is needed is, above all, refinement and delicacy and expression. All these Capoul has to an extraordinary degree, besides that admirable faculty of making love well which counts for so much in any kind of opera. His manner is not at all bouffe, indeed we doubt if he has a conception of what bouffe acting is. He generally acts and sings his parts as if they were serious or genteelly comic, and the result has been a complete triumph. Capoul's method of singing is perfect, and the management of his voice so good that its weakness seldom makes itself felt.

—Besides these stars Mr. Grau's company comprises Mlle. Beaudet, who made her first appearance here in "Le Petit Duc," and has developed a good deal of musical and dramatic talent. She makes a very pretty and pleasing *Paquita* in "Giroflé-Girofla." Of Mézières, Duplan, and Jouard (whose acting of *Pomponnet* in "Madame Angot" struck us as better than ever), it is hardly necessary to say anything. On the whole, the company has proved much stronger than Aimée's, though we do not think it has an actress as good as Aimée. It has produced, however, in every way more respectable performances than Aimée is in the habit of giving ; indeed, the manager has endeavored to restrain the license peculiar to this sort of entertainment by giving the less objectionable operas, and making them as decorous as possible. This sort of reform cannot be carried very far, for expurgated opéra bouffe would be nothing at all. But Mr. Grau has persuaded people that he has been giving a series of operas which are free from reproach. The Muse of bouffe may fairly, now and then, pay to morality the tribute of a little hypocrisy, and this is what the Muse, as managed by Mr. Grau, is made to do. Nevertheless, we must say that the hypocrisy is apparent. Nothing will ever make opéra bouffe an improving or harmless form of entertainment ; and the rapid progress it has made of late years in New York towards a socially respectable status may well fill the moralist with apprehension. Unmarried women do not as yet go to see "Madame Angot" or "Giroflé-Girofla." But will they not in a few years ; and if they do, will it not be even more difficult than it is now to prove to the biassed foreigner that our country is the home of purity and innocence ?

—Colonel Mapleson opened on Monday night the season of Italian opera with a performance of Verdi's "Traviata." Two artists unknown to the New York stage made their début in the two principal parts. Mme. Ambre, who appeared as *Violetta*, has a voice of uneven character and strength. Her middle and higher notes are full and sympathetic, her lower notes weak and wanting in artistic finish. Her interpretation of the leading rôle was not altogether satisfactory. Whilst she possesses much of the graceful ease which is the stamp of French artists, she is unfitted to represent the morbid passions attributed to this most pitiful of stage heroines. The very incapacity, however, may enable Mme. Ambre to appear to greater advantage in other parts. Of the new tenor, Signor Runcio, it suffices to say that he has a pleasant little voice, which, however, is neither strong enough nor sufficiently cultivated to entitle him to take a leading part in Italian opera. Signor Galassi was the same delightful, highly-finished artist that we knew last season. The orchestra, under Signor Arditi, was very strong and effective. As a whole, however, the opening evening was very far from being a success. The audience remained cold and indifferent, and Colonel Mapleson must bring out stronger forces than last night either to ensure an artistic success or, what is of greater importance to himself, to make this year's enterprise a profitable financial investment.

—The first number of a weekly newspaper devoted entirely to music appeared on Thursday last. We welcome in the *Musical Review* a journal which in its line is certainly much superior to any paper of the same class published in this city. The editor states in a short address to his readers that having no connection whatever with any firm engaged in what may be called the musical trade—musical-instrument makers, music publishers, etc.—the purpose of the paper is to represent and view music as an art, not as a profession or calling. The first number, besides very excellent critical remarks on the musical events of the week, contains original articles, general notes on kindred topics, some highly interesting extracts from German musical papers (among which we would call attention to a spirited defence of Schumann's genius, written with all his dignity of style by that veteran critic, Dr. Hanslick, in reply to a very violent attack on the great composer published in Wagner's organ, the *Bayreuther Blätter*), and finally a long and interesting letter from a correspondent in Paris.

—It is often said that the bibliomaniac and the pinakomaniac are not extravagant, but are making a good investment with a certainty of a rise in price; which would be true if there were no such thing as a change of fashion. But many an edition of a Greek or Latin classic that was fought for at the auctions of the last century and brought tens or hundreds of pounds, is now lumber on the booksellers' shelves and would not bring as many shillings. It will be interesting to see if there will be any diminution or reversal in our day of the Molière mania that now possesses France. It seems to be at its height; but no one can tell how far an extravagance of this sort may go. The 1666 edition of the 'Œuvres' (Paris, G. Quinet) sold in 1876 for 5,700 francs, and has since been priced at 7,000 francs ($1,400). Single plays sell at auction for over 1,000 francs, and Morgan & Fatout ask in their last catalogue 2,200 francs for the "Femmes Savantes" of 1673, and 2,500 francs for the "Sicilien" of 1667!

ARNOLD'S MIXED ESSAYS.*

UNDER this title Mr. Arnold has collected nine essays; one, that on "Democracy," published nearly twenty years ago, but the others so recently that they must be familiar to readers of the prominent English reviews. They are as follows: "Equality," "Irish Catholicism and British Liberalism," "'Porro Unum est Necessarium,'" "A Guide to English Literature," "Falkland," "A French Critic on Milton," "A French Critic on Goethe," and "George Sand." Collection of them in one volume has been esteemed a mere piece of book-making by some of the large class of critics permanently hostile to Mr. Arnold, we believe, but what he says in his preface, that they have "a unity of tendency," is true, though, since we gain a preface thereby, we are none the less obliged to him for pointing it out. Literature, he says, is a great force of civilization, but it cannot do everything to secure it, and is indeed only a part of it. Civilization is really the humanization of man in society. This is in great measure the goal of man's endeavor, and the means of attaining it are various. "First and foremost of the necessary means toward man's civilization we must name *expansion*," says Mr. Arnold. The need for expansion is as genuine an instinct as the need for right conduct. Railroads and the telegraph, and "all the conveniences of life by which man has enlarged and secured his existence," are manifestations of this instinct; but that which "we English know best and prize most" is the love of liberty. "The love of liberty is simply the instinct in man for expansion," and the fatal objection to Prince Bismarck's ideal of a benevolent despotism, for example, is that it is "against nature." Besides liberty the love of equality is a manifestation of the instinct of expansion; of this, however, "we English" have little, but it is just as real a tendency as the other, and "inequality, like absolutism, thwarts a vital instinct." The instinct of expansion, in short, manifested by the love of liberty and of equality, is "the basis which man's whole effort to civilize himself presupposes." The basis given, Mr. Arnold sums up the powers which contribute to build up civilization as "the power of conduct, the power of intellect and knowledge, the power of beauty, the power of social life and manners." And he goes on: "That the aim for all of us is to make civilization pervasive and general; that the requisites for civilization are substantially what have been here enumerated; that they all of them hang together, that they must all have their development, that the development of one does not compensate for the failure of others; that one nation suffers by failing in this requisite, and another by failing in that—such is the line of thought which the essays in the present volume follow and represent. They represent it in their variety of subject, their so frequent insistence on defects in the present actual life of our nation, their unity of final aim."

This is excellent constructive criticism of his volume. But it is also a substantially accurate statement of "the unity of final aim" of all of Mr. Arnold's writings, and there is perhaps nothing in this last volume to indicate a revision in any important respect of one's former notion of its author, of his sentiments, and of the value of them. Another way of putting this is to say that Mr. Arnold is still harping on the same string, and there is nothing new to report of him. And doubtless there are many persons of distinguished culture who think of Thackeray's wish that Carlyle would "hang up his damned old fiddle" when they read another essay insisting in the same way and in almost the same phraseology upon the "sweet reasonableness" of another than "the Puritan ideal," and upon "our old remedy, culture," for the cure of all present ills. Nevertheless, several of these essays have an air of practicality that is perhaps a little more distinct and emphatic than heretofore it has been—a definiteness and particularity of statement which many persons may hitherto have missed in Mr. Arnold. The charge of vagueness has been one of the principal charges against the "religion of culture," as it is derisively termed, and of which its promulgator wrote some eight or ten years ago: "It is said to be a religion proposing parmaceti, or some scented salve or other, as a cure for human miseries; a religion breathing a spirit of cultivated inaction, making its believer refuse to lend a hand at uprooting the definite evils on all sides of us, and filling him with antipathy against the reforms and reformers which try to extirpate them. In general, it is summed up as being not practical, or—as some critics familiarly put it—all moonshine." We should say that the criticism which this so happily and vivaciously epitomizes had been gradually decreasing in volume and intensity since 'Culture and Anarchy' was printed, and that it had been to some extent replaced by a recognition on the part of "my countrymen" that "our urgent want now is, not to act at any price, but rather to lay in a stock of light for our difficulties"; or, at least, that such a position was a tenable one.

To several of these essays, at all events, it would not be necessary to apply it. They are none of them, to be sure, essays in practical politics, but they certainly are, as Mr. Arnold says in that on "Equality," "for the thoughts of those who think." The first is a plea for regarding state-action as something which may be right or wrong as circumstances indicate, but which in itself contains no fundamental error or tyranny. "If I were a Frenchmen I should never be weary of admiring the independent, individual, local habits of action in England, of directing attention to the evils occasioned in France by the excessive action of the state. Being an Englishman, I see nothing but good in freely recognizing the coherence, rationality, and effectiveness which characterize the strong state-action of France." The second is a plea for "Equality," by which is meant social equality, and is perhaps the most elaborate and the most substantial in the volume. "Equality before the law," says Mr. Arnold, "we all take as a matter of course; that is not the equality which we mean when we talk of equality. When we talk of equality we understand social equality; and for equality in this Frenchified sense of the term almost everybody in England has a hard word"—Lord Beaconsfield, Sir Erskine May in his 'History of

* 'Mixed Essays. By Matthew Arnold.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.

Democracy,' Mr. Froude, Mr. Lowe, and Mr. Gladstone had lately been stigmatizing it each in his own way. Mr. Arnold makes an examination of contemporary national opinion upon the subject, and regards freedom of bequest as a bulwark of inequality, since the constitution of property with which the feudal Middle Age left the societies of Europe was full of inequality and tends thus to preserve itself. And after showing his country to be in a minority of one in the matter, he accuses her social inequality of "materializing our upper class, vulgarizing our middle class, and brutalizing our lower class. And this is to fail in civilization," he dryly adds, proceeding to support his accusation in his familiar manner. "Irish Catholicism and British Liberalism" is a plea for an Irish Catholic university, for recognizing that hostility to Catholicism as such tends to increase its dogmatism and its Ultramontanism, which are its worst side and are already conspicuous in Irish Catholicism, and for transforming the English middle class, if Ireland is still to be governed in deference to its prejudices. The next essay is in behalf of better secondary schools in England, and the next a suggestive review of Mr. Stopford Brooke's 'Primer of English Literature.' That on Falkland—"our martyr of sweetness and light, of lucidity of mind and largeness of temper"—is too familiar to need further mention, and the remaining three contain much delicate and just literary criticism, besides representing the tendency which gives them a place in this volume.

This is not vague or impractical. It is, on the contrary, all very simple and plain. It is, most of it, directed to Mr. Arnold's own countrymen, to one class of them, to one fault of that class: it is, all of it, English, local and personal. This, indeed, we take to be the essential mistake of Mr. Arnold's later writings—their distinctly practical tendency, namely; whether or no they be considered to have any really practical value, is another matter. A writer may merely be "holding out his pouncet-box in the midst of the general tribulation," as Mr. Arnold says he is accused of doing, or he may indicate with precision and power one great source of the evils in question, and advocate with luminous persuasiveness one plain but very widely neglected remedy for them, and yet it may be that his true function is not to be continually concerned with the general tribulation at all. Few Anglo-Saxons probably sympathize with the regret of M. Taine that in Thackeray the gain of morals was the loss of art. But few of Mr. Arnold's sincerest admirers, we imagine, are reconciled to the exclusiveness with which of late years he has devoted himself to his missionary work. It is possible to go along with him completely and still regret this. One may be fully convinced of the provinciality and faith in machinery of "our English race," of the worth of ideas and of knowing the best that has been thought and said in the world, of the nobility of sweetness and the necessity of light, of the just demands of intellect as well as the claims of morals, may even accept the theology and theory of 'Literature and Dogma,' and still regret that pure literature does not more completely absorb his attention. To feel this one need be neither ungrateful for nor tired of Mr. Arnold's advocacy of culture. It is so good a thing that it cannot be too much insisted upon, and few people, we imagine, easily tire of witnessing the way in which he exhibits the inadequacy of Puritan and "progressive" ideals. There is always an intimate pleasure to be obtained by the disinterested observer when the process of flaying somebody is going on, and no one has reached the perfection in this art which belongs to Mr. Arnold. The spectator need fear no remorse accompanying his enjoyment, since it generally happens that the victim is both as unconscious as is consistent with squirming, and guilty as well. And if Mr. Arnold's power and dignity were less than they are it would be possible to go over the list of those whom he has delicately castigated, from Bishop Colenso to that school "whose mission is to bring into order and system that body of truth with which the earlier Liberals merely fumbled," with positive satisfaction. But controversy cannot be said to lose all its evil by losing all its grossness; no one has shown its weakness, and the contrasted strength of statement not deliberately persuasive, better than Mr. Arnold; and, however delightful and instructive it may be, it has at least one serious defect—it takes the place of something else, something, upon the whole, better. "The general public carries away little from discussions of this kind," said Mr. Arnold long ago, "except some vague notion that one advocates English hexameters, or that one has attacked Mr. Newman. On the mind of an adversary one never makes the faintest impression." And later: "Only think of all the nonsense which you now hold quite firmly, which you would never have held if you had not been contradicting your adversary in it all these years." And evangelization necessitates controversy. It is true that writing about literature and contending for nothing, for no principle underlying literary phenomena, so to speak, is only dilettanteism, but there is a level which Mr. Arnold sometimes reaches, upon which he writes in such wise as to show that he is perfectly at home there, upon which we always find him when he gives us joy instead of pleasure, as he says of Joubert, and upon which he seems to evince almost no concern for the transformation of the British Puritan. At such times he brings to literature—to the "criticism of life"—a union of intelligence, culture, divination, and seriousness of thought which many who admire the vivacity that his tact brings to the conduct of controversy never suspect in him. At such times few other writers so well satisfy one's reason, who so effectively stir one's susceptibility. "Freedom of speech may be necessary for the society of the future, but the young lions of the *Daily Telegraph* in the meanwhile are sacrificed," said Mr. Arnold once, and we may say in the same way that the British Puritan certainly needs transformation, but that in the meanwhile Mr. Arnold sacrifices himself. In the meanwhile he is in a measure lost to letters.

RECENT NOVELS.*

THE Southern mind is a very curious subject of study. We hear a good deal of the Southern heart when it is to be fired, and of Southern susceptibilities when they are to be spared, but back of these emotional regions must exist a mental framework of what stand for ideas, which, as giving final direction, must be worthy of investigation. 'The Earl of Mayfield' contains four hundred and twenty-eight pages, and two hundred and twenty of them may be read as any other sane book may be, with more or less satisfaction in the cleverness and variety of the story, although we confess to gloomy forebodings when the hero, Mr. Carew, soothes the pangs of personal bereavement by getting up on his plantation an imitation of the ancient Saturnalia; but on the two hundred and twenty-first page begins, and fills the rest of the book, the purest melodrama. The author apparently considers this the fitting complement to the rest of the story, and the reader rubs his eyes, turns the pages backward and forward, and finally betakes himself to the study of the Southern mind wherein coherence and incoherence stand on precisely the same level.

Thomas Carew, a Southerner with Northern convictions, finds himself in Corinth, in 1862, just after the battle of Shiloh. Having been goaded into the army, and being convinced that the struggle is hopeless for the South, he contrives to get his discharge and makes his way to Memphis, whence, with one companion and a colored boatman, he floats down the Mississippi to his own sugar plantation, a few miles above New Orleans. This voyage, with its tribulations and final success, is very well described, and in quick succession follow his relations with General Butler, commanding in New Orleans, the freeing of his own slaves by Carew, and his departure for New York, having largely increased his fortune by sales of sugar and cotton, and leaving his colored brothers working the plantation better than ever before. In New York he finds himself in the midst of the draft riots, and is joined by a long-tongued and noisy compatriot, who induces him to set off for Washington, with a view of enlightening President Lincoln on Louisiana affairs. This compatriot, De Lancey, is drawn with considerable humor, and all the hurried march of events is represented with simplicity and an occasional vivid touch which makes one feel that the writer knows whereof he affirms.

The war is over, and Mr. Carew is living on his plantation, when he sees an English advertisement for "next of kin." By examining family papers he is convinced that the advertisement relates to himself, and he sets off immediately for England to claim the title and estates of the Earl of Mayfield, explaining to his friends that he is not proud, but he much prefers to be an English peer. In England all doors open before him, his attorney "simply lays the papers before my friend, the Home Secretary"; the Attorney-General is of opinion that "the petitioner has shown sufficient evidence of his right to the dignities of Earl of Mayfield, Baron Carew of Gracedieu, and a Baronet of Great Britain." Carew orders the immediate purchase and restoration of the "Palace of Mayfield," and goes home to receive a call from the Duke of Norfolk, who salutes him as "Cousin Carew," and invites him to take his seat in the House of Lords whenever he likes. The Lord Chancellor sends for him in a day or two, and, after some bowing to the right and left, "the duke gently led the new peer to a bench covered with crimson-velvet, on which he now took his seat as 'Earl of Mayfield.'"

The Earl issues orders for the restoration of park and barbacan, for the emblazoning "of his arms on sundry stone towers, and, adopting the

* 'The Earl of Mayfield: A Novel.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.

style of the 'gentlemanly clerk,' for the preparation of a suite of elegant sleeping apartments," and then promptly recrosses the Atlantic, orders all his property in Louisiana sold, and returns to find the palace "like a fairy vision, surmounted from its highest tower with the broad ensign of England"—so that no doubt he had been made Lord-Lieutenant in his absence. Entrance reveals a bewildering mixture of crimson-and-gold lackeys, pointed stone arches, Axminster carpets, and painted glass windows "replete" with ancestors. Then comes a hasty trip to Rome ; Mr. Carew, having got his house ready, looks up and finds a long-lost love, marries her with the jovial assistance of Lord Augustus Loftus, and takes her to England without informing her of his new rank. They reach the "palace of Mayfield" with some confusion of mind on the bride's part, but before she can get her bonnet off, the irrepressible Duke of Norfolk trots in with his wife ! The Duchess addresses the bride as Countess of Mayfield, whereupon she faints, and no lady who respected herself could do less. She recovers, finds that the Duke and Duchess have just dropped in to stay a day or two, without invitation ; there is a vista of a week at Arundel, and the happy couple are seen last in a blaze of glory. The book is a very curious one—there are gleams of humor in the first part ; over the second part no human being can keep his sobriety—chiefly on account of the infantile attitude of mind at the shows of this world. In the first part the writer deals with actual events which have stirred the hearts of his readers ; in the second he wanders into a fool's paradise, where his ignorance and his fantastic standards are equally manifest. His notion of the process by which a claim to a peerage is established is worthy of Victor Hugo. The book is painful but interesting reading as an indication of the specialties of the Southern mind.

A new edition of 'Toinette,' by Albion W. Tourgee, gives an opportunity to call attention to a distinctively American novel of more than the usual merit of its kind. The subject is a difficult one to handle, as it involves in one of its phases the race-prejudice of the North, and in another the caste-prejudice of the South. But, however difficult the problem, it is clearly stated and carried out to its legitimate tragic end with much subtle persuasiveness and candor. Here, however, the author's heart fails him, and after the real close of the story, at Toinette's flight, he adds the perfunctory termination of a happy marriage. This is to be regretted not only because the literary unity of the book is impaired, but because an excellent picture of the present relations the races in the South bear to each other is obscured. The interest in novels of the 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' order is now become historic or wholly intrinsic; but 'Toinette' deals with what are called "living issues," and deals with them well enough to make one desire even better success. 'Figs and Thistles,' by the same author, is marred by occasional whimsicality of a purely American and conscious type, as in the prologue, and now and then by un-English phrases so foreign to the general style of the book as to suggest that the author might have easily avoided them if he had considered such matters important. Indeed, these blemishes change Mr. Tourgee's audience from the lovers of literature to the bright boys and girls who are devourers of stories. The story is of the temptation of a conscientious hero, who from obscure beginnings has pushed himself through college, into business success, and into Congress ; this is made particularly trying, but his wife, who does excellent duty as a *dea ex machinâ*, steps in and rescues her husband in a melodramatic scene. The details are unimportant, and the actual historical properties are used exclusively as properties and have no political interest. The merit of the book consists in its showing of the conjunction of self-reliance and humorous tolerance in American character, the origin and peculiarities of which form the puzzle that so many foreign travellers set themselves to solve.

Miss Bates's novel does not, as part of the title might suggest, deal with the question of claims against insolvent states based on overdue negotiable securities. Her story turns upon the familiar but interesting passion of love, and the bonds she has in mind are those which mysteriously linked the fates of three persons whose fortunes the story pursues, Miss Rachel Poynter, Mr. Oscar O'Grady, and Mr. Frederick Bathurst. Of these three the last-named is a young man of excellent character, but of somewhat *borné* intellect and sympathies, proud, reserved, and of an argumentative turn, who is engaged to Miss Poynter ; the next is a young man of taste, fancy, courage, susceptibility, everything but depth of character; abominably selfish, and quite fitted by nature to charm the heart of woman and make her miserable for life. Miss Poynter is a lovely young woman, full of character, sensibility, and feminine capacity for self devotion. Her heart is torn by the conflicting emotions produced by a growing interest in O'Grady and her sense of duty to her affianced lover, who, it should be said, is very fond of her. The scene is laid on the Nile, the party of which these three are the principal actors making the usual winter journey in the usual Nile boat. The Nile novel is rapidly becoming a branch of literature by itself, and Miss Bates follows all the rules which experience has shown to be proper for its production. Some conflict of feeling in the heroine between two lovers is as much a part of the necessary "business" as the descriptions of the scenery, the natives, and the dahabeah. Miss Bates is somewhat original in her plot. She first breaks the engagement with Bathurst, and substitutes one with O'Grady, though the experienced novel-reader can see with half an eye at the same time that the second engagement will come to nothing. The death of her father, who does not appear to have had much confidence in O'Grady, leaves Rachel in a position in which she has an independence, but not enough to enable two to live upon it luxuriously. O'Grady, who has, beneath his devotion to art and whatever is beautiful and harmonious, a good deal of practical sense as to the relation between income and expenditure, suddenly finds that he is confronted by the staggering thought that if he wishes to marry Rachel he must work for a livelihood. Accustomed as he is to an easy life, and finding it difficult to reconcile himself to the idea of coming down from dry champagne to claret for dinner, he does not long hide his embarrassment from his *fiancée*, who, not ceasing to love him, insists on releasing him from his engagement—a release against which he, however, like an honorable man, loudly protests. This leaves the heroine in rather a melancholy situation, and Miss Bates is clearly of opinion that she never will marry at all. The tale is distinctly a woman's novel, and will not be likely to interest masculine readers very much. It may safely be put into the hands of young girls about to go up the Nile as a sort of sentimental *vade mecum* of that fascinating but dangerous region.

'The Old French Château' is a nice, lively, bugaboo story, apparently of modern times ; a suitable mixture of haunted castles, gipsies, grated vaults, smugglers, battles in the dark, and the inevitable English peer travelling with his family. Things seem a little "mixed" at the end; but this is natural, and in the course of the story there are various points from which the reader does not see his way out at all, which we take to be the object of a mysterious plot.

We wonder if the Mme. Charles Reybaud whose name is on the title-page of 'Uncle César' is the author of 'Le Cadet de Colobrières' and other pretty stories which we remember of old, or whether this writer succeeds to her name as she does to some of her literary gifts. The story is somewhat painful, but there is good character-drawing, and a certain persistent fidelity in treating of the slow, disintegrating processes that affect human character and action, which is anything but commonplace. The buoyant and successful selfishness which at first makes M. Fauberton the delight of his fellow-townsmen is the same sentiment which shapes his subsequent cruel life, and the prudence which seems altogether admirable in Camille's youth slowly dries up the sources of feelings which seemed sincere and might have been controlling. The Messrs. Appleton are fortunate in their translator, whose work is very well done.

We believe it is the Duchess in 'Alice in Wonderland' who constantly remarks : "And the moral of *that* is . . ." Following her example, we should say that the moral of 'Sarah de Berenger' is: "Behold, we suffer fools gladly." A greater fool than Miss de Berenger it would be difficult to find, and she controls the fate of most of the characters. Another woman, whose folly is so steeped in disinterested humility and self-abasement that one hardly likes to call it by its right name, is the other controlling influence in the story, and between the two they make a singular world. The best part of the book is the description of Uzziah Dill, the convict, cobbler, temperance lecturer; the story of his sins, weaknesses, and gifts, his downfall and despair, with the slender thread of rectitude and affection running through his wretched life, make the most original and truest thing in the volume. Of course a book by Miss Ingelow is refined and readable, of course there are pretty scenes in it, but she easily gets off her own ground, and does not get back with that alacrity which would indicate that she knew it.

'Haworth's' does not amount to much. There is an inventor with

'Toinette : a Tale of the South. By Albion W. Tourgee.' New York : Fords, Howard & Hurlbert. 1879.
'Figs and Thistles : a Western Story. By Albion W. Tourgee.' New York : Fords, Howard & Hurlbert. 1879.
'Nile Days ; Egyptian Bonds : A Novel. By E. Catharine Bates.' Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.
'The Old French Château near Toulouse.' Boston : Loring.
'Uncle César. By Mme. Charles Reybaud.' New York : D. Appleton & Co.
'Sarah de Berenger : A Novel. By Jean Ingelow, author of 'Off the Skelligs,' 'Fated to be Free,' 'Studies for Stories from Girls' Lives,' etc.' Boston : Roberts Brothers. 1879.
'Haworth's. By Frances Hodgson Burnett, author of 'That Lass o' Lowrie's.' New York : Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879.

his model; an impossible Miss Ffrench; her very silly father; Haworth, who is essentially the navvy raised to his highest power; with his impossible mother; a few gusts concerning labor and capital. But the tools seem quite unmanageable by the hand that holds them, and after having called up spirits, Mrs. Burnett is forced to let them go without making them speak.

'Madelon Lemoine' will do no harm to anybody. It is not really tedious, though it is long, and the want of truth to human nature in the more ambitious parts is balanced by some good descriptions and the better drawing of some of the minor characters. Mr. Unwin, the clergyman, and his wife are life-like, and their daughter Mary is charming. There must be a considerable class of people in England and America who consider marriage with a peer (present or prospective) the legitimate and natural result of a life of humble duty, and it is to this class that 'Madelon Lemoine' especially addresses itself.

'The Marable Family' describes the very complicated doings of a highly principled and gorgeous family living in Georgia before and during the War of Secession. We have failed to master the plot, which is complicated by theft and adoption of children, but there are a great many of the finest sentiments in the book.

'The Distracted Young Preacher' is a lively little smuggling story.

THE TELEPHONE AND ITS INVENTOR.*

THE Count du Moncel has for a generation been a prolific and popular historian of electrical novelties. Without being especially distinguished for original research, he has the art of arranging heterogeneous materials cohesively, and presenting them in entertaining, readable shape. He is a little inclined to exalt the claims of the scientists and inventors of France, but is reasonably impartial in distributing praise among the scientists and inventors of other countries. He is occasionally superficial, and sometimes falls into serious errors, which are probably necessary consequences of the haste imposed upon him by an apparent attempt to keep up in his reports with the rapid progress of invention and discovery. In the work under consideration he treats of the telephone, microphone, and phonograph as cognate subjects, and has collected a large mass of curious information with reference to them.

The second French edition of this work, published in 1878, contains in its introductory chapter a tolerably correct account of the origin of the invention for transmitting speech telegraphically, which is now distinctively called the telephone, and for which the world is indebted to Alexander Graham Bell, of Boston. The corresponding account in the introductory chapter of the American edition is calculated to convey a grossly erroneous impression of the facts. The two accounts are subjoined, the wider column indicating those portions which are alike, and the points of departure being indicated by two narrow columns. The left-hand column gives the correct translation of the second French edition, and the right-hand column gives the version published by Messrs. Harper & Bros.:

"As early as 1874 Mr. Elisha Gray was occupied with a system of musical telephone, which he wished to apply to manifold telegraphic transmissions, and

[Second French edition.]	[American edition.]
"if it is to be believed, the researches which he had to undertake"	"the investigations which he made in order"

"to establish this system under the best possible conditions, gave him a glimpse of the possibility of transmitting articulate words by electricity. While carrying on his experiments on the telegraphic system, he arranged, in fact, about the 15th of January, 1876, a system of *speaking telephone*, and he deposited the specification and drawings in the American Patent Office, in the form of a *caveat*, or provisional specification. The deposit was made on the 14th February, 1876; on the very same day Mr. Graham Bell also deposited in the American Patent Office a request for a patent in which"

[Second French edition.]	[American edition.]
"in addition to a system of simultaneous electrical transmissions by means of a telephonic apparatus, were mentioned not only a telephonic speaking apparatus based on the employment of *undulatory* electric currents, but also the means which may be employed to obtain *these undulatory currents themselves*, whether by induction or by variations in the resistance of the circuit. The telephonic apparatus which was represented in this *request for a patent* had not, it is true, furnished at first satisfactory results, as Mr. Bell himself admits, but operated under the best conditions it has been able to reproduce speech very well, and it may be considered as the point of departure of the magneto-electric telephones which have furnished the interesting results which are known to us. In the *caveat* of Mr. Gray, it is true, it is only a question of the speaking telephone, and the drawings which are given of it are so exact that an apparatus made according to them would work perfectly, but the principle of this telephone was clearly indicated in the patent of Mr Bell, and under the conditions in which it was placed it was hardly susceptible of application; this was, indeed, a telephone which puts under contribution a pile and a liquid conductor, and the best proof of its small practical importance is that Mr. Gray himself, in the last improvements which he has made in this kind of instruments, has only improved the Bell telephone. Nevertheless, we should consider it as the point of departure of battery telephones, which, improved by Mr. Edison, were to furnish the best results on long telegraphic lines, and which, later, were to give birth to the microphone. "It is known that Mr. Bell was put in possession of the American patent, but this decision has lately been attacked by Mr. Gray before the Supreme Court of the American Patent Office. The sequel will tell on which side was the right."	"he spoke of an instrument of the same kind, but with special application to simultaneous telegraphic transmissions by means of a telephonic apparatus; and the few words which could, in this specification, refer to a telephone with articulate sounds, applied to an instrument which, by Mr. Bell's own admission, had not produced any satisfactory results." "In Mr. Gray's *caveat*, on the contrary, the application of the instrument to the electric transmission of speech alone is indicated, the description of the system is complete, and the drawings which accompany it are so exact that a telephone made from them would work perfectly; this was proved by Mr. Gray himself, when, some time afterward, he finished his instruments, which differed in no respect from the one described in Mr. Bell's statement as worked by a battery. On these grounds Mr. Elisha Gray would certainly have obtained the patent, if the expiration of his *caveat* had not been the result of an omission of form in the Patent Office, which, as we know, decides the priority of inventions in America. An action on the ground of this omission has lately been brought against Mr. Bell, in the Supreme Court of the American Patent Office, to set aside the patent granted to him. If Mr. Gray did not appeal before, it was because he was then wholly occupied with experiments on the system of harmonic telephone, applied to telegraphic communication, and he had no time to attend to the matter."

Judged by the foregoing, the American edition does not contain the corrections and additions made by the author and appearing in his second French edition. The subject is of general interest, and there are some other additions and corrections which may well be made in any future edition. Thus, Mr. Gray executed his caveat on the day on which it was filed—February 14, 1876—while the application of Mr. Bell bears upon its face the evidence that it was executed upon the 20th day of January preceding. Figure 20, on page 57 of both the American and the second French edition, is not, as is asserted, a copy of the drawings accompanying Mr. Gray's caveat, but is a copy of the drawings contained in his application for a patent, made nearly two years afterward, and differs materially from the caveat drawing.

The New York *Tribune* of April 3, 1877, contained a report of some remarks of Mr. Elisha Gray's at a public exhibition on the preceding evening, in which he gave the credit of the invention of the speaking telephone to Mr. Bell, who was, as Mr. Gray said, present at the time in the audience. In a lecture delivered by Mr. Gray in McCormick Hall, on February 27, 1877, he also gave Mr. Bell "full credit for the talking feature of the telephone," as may be seen on reference to the Associated Press reports of that lecture at the time. Mr. Gray was a truthful witness. The real history of the speaking telephone is that Alexander Graham Bell, of Boston, was the first to invent a method of, and apparatus for, transmitting speech telegraphically, by causing electrical undulations similar in form to the form of the vibrations of the air accompanying speech, and that all the so-called telephones which preceded Bell's worked by interruptions of the electrical current, and not only were not intended to transmit speech telegraphically, but could not possibly transmit it; one very good reason for which is that interrupted or discontinuous electrical currents cannot copy the forms of the vibrations of the air accompanying speech, because such vibrations are continuous. All telephones previous to Bell's were intended for signalling by the Morse system, and operated by causing a receiving instrument to give out a musical tone of definite pitch—a long tone, or a long interval between two tones, and a short tone, or a short interval between two tones, corresponding respectively to the dash and dot of the Morse alphabet; the pitch of the tone given out by the receiver being that due to its rate of vibration, which corresponded with the rate or periodicity of the interruptions in the current. In Mr. Bell's invention the sound which is made or uttered at the transmitting station, and which is the prime mover or prime controller of the apparatus, is faithfully reproduced by the receiving instrument. That is to say, the vibrations of the air accompanying the sound made or uttered at the transmitting station cause the transmitting membrane or disc to set up corresponding forms of vibrations, which so vary the strength of the electrical current in the circuit that the membrane or disc at the receiving station, in obedience to the varying attraction of its electro-magnet, is also made to set up the same forms of vibrations, and hence to communicate them to the air and excite in the listener's ear the sensation of sounds like those made or uttered at the transmitting station.

The value of the American publication is, of course, greatly impaired by the presence in it of so misleading an account of the origin of the tele-

'Madelon Lemoine: A Novel. By Mrs. Leith Adams, author of 'Winstone,' 'My Land of Beulah,' etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.

'The Marable Family: A Novel. By Shaler Hillyer.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.

'The Distracted Young Preacher. By Thomas Hardy.' New York: D. Appleton & Co.

* 'The Telephone, the Microphone, and the Phonograph. By Count du Moncel.' Authorized translation, with additions and corrections by the author. New York: Harper & Bros. 1879.

phone. It is noteworthy that there seems to have been on some one's part a lack of either patience or ingenuity enough to make the work consistent with itself throughout, as will be seen from the subjoined quotations: Thus, on page 33: "Up to the time of Mr. Bell's invention the transmission of speech could only take place by means of acoustic tubes, or of the string telephones of which we have spoken." Again, page 36, referring to Bell's telephone shown at the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876: "This telephone, in fact, reproduced articulate words, a result which surpassed all the conceptions of physicists." On page 56, referring to Gray's caveat, it is stated in substance that it contained so precise a description that an instrument made from Mr. Gray's design "would have acted perfectly. This was, in fact, afterward proved by him." Page 72: "The Edison telephone, like Mr. Gray's, which we have already had occasion to mention, is based upon the action of undulatory currents, determined by the variations in the resistance of a conductor of moderate conducting power, which is inserted in the circuit, and the vibrations of a diaphragm before which the speaker stands react upon it. Only, instead of employing a liquid conductor, *which is practically useless*, Mr. Edison has attempted to use semi-conducting solid bodies."

The publishers will doubtless perceive the propriety of revising their translation in another edition, and it seems hardly worth while at present to spend further time in calling attention to the jumble of inconsistencies which the present translation contains. As the commercial interests of the owners of the Bell and Gray patents have now been happily settled, by a compromise which is understood to be satisfactory to all parties, it may naturally be expected that the future English literature of the telephone will not be stained by further attempts to obscure the subject unfairly in the interests of owners of conflicting patents.

A Defence of Philosophic Doubt; being an Essay on the Foundations of Belief. By Arthur James Balfour, M.A., M.P. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Balfour begins his preface by describing his book as "a piece of destructive criticism, formed by a series of arguments of a highly abstract character." He seems to think this statement sufficient to deter the general reader from his pages. It would surely be more than sufficient to deter him from the present notice, were we to attempt in it any analytic report at second hand of the particular highly abstract and concisely-stated arguments which Mr. Balfour uses for his purpose. But as we pen this sad concession there comes over us a compassionate sense of what an exquisite kind of æsthetic enjoyment the general reader is deprived of by his invincible repugnance to the divine exercise of reasoning, for reasoning's own pure sake, about the first foundations of belief. Mr. Balfour's book betrays an analytic power, a neat compression of statement, an ability to see familiar things as if they were strange things, and a dry and ironical humor, which mark his accession to the band of English-writing philosophers as an event of which it may be difficult to measure in advance the importance.

Briefly then, without reference to specific arguments, the purpose of the work is to show that the ordinary scientific conceptions of the world as matter in motion, which existed as such before consciousness supervened, of the uniformity of nature and the law of universal causation, are beliefs wholly without *rational* warrant; that the arguments of the neo-Hegelians in England to establish the absolute certainty of their own principles are nugatory; that all the popular tests of a belief's being certain are worthless; that Spencer's proof of an external world is ridiculous; that the ordinary psychologic idealism, of which Professor Huxley is perhaps the best mouthpiece, is contradictory; that the proof of a belief, and its disproof alike, by an appeal to the necessities by which it was evolved, are irrelevant; and that, finally, science, so far as it pretends to use particular perceptions as premises, reaches conclusions which are suicidal, by showing that no particular perception has any worth. In some admirably-written pages which introduce the book the special province of "philosophy" is defined by Mr. Balfour as the systematic account of the *grounds* of our beliefs and disbeliefs. The grounds or *claims* on belief of all our commonly-accepted creeds, so far at least as they are scientific, do not then consist "in *reasons*. Whatever they may be they are not rational grounds of conviction, raised by their very nature above the reach of criticism. It would be more proper to describe them as a kind of inward inclination or impulse, falling far short of—I should perhaps rather say, altogether differing in kind from—philosophic certitude, leaving the reason therefore unsatisfied, but amounting, nevertheless, to a practical cause of belief, from the effects of which we do not even desire to be released."

But the grounds for any religious belief can be described in quite as dignified a set of terms as this. It is quite true that philosophic men of science are prompt to admit that all science is but an hypothesis, and at most a probable one. But the trouble is that the anti-religious popular scientific professors always speak of religion as if science had made it far more than improbable—namely, impossible. The defence of religious faith against such illogical death-sentences is the positive interest which has animated Mr. Balfour throughout all his pages of destruction. But on this positive part of his task he hardly expatiates at all, and his book will speak as little to the ears of popular theologians as to those of popular scientists. To genuine students of philosophy, who really care for consistent thinking wherever it may lead, we recommend it as one of the most original and refreshing productions of recent years.

The Law of Domicil as a Branch of the Law of England, stated in the form of rules. By A. V. Dicey, B.C.L. (London: Stevens & Sons. 1879.)—A treatise on domicil such as Mr. Dicey's is an important addition to the literature of the law. Considering how much has been written about it by very able men and its great practical importance, it is not a little remarkable that the subject of domicil in many of its parts should be still involved in obscurity and doubt. To those who are familiar with Mr. Dicey's method of discussing legal topics it is unnecessary to say that his examination of it has every merit which can be given by a clear style, and the happy union of a keen power of discrimination with a strong faculty for perceiving and stating general principles. Mr. Dicey is the author of a valuable work on Parties, and was, unless we are much mistaken, the originator of that method of writing law-books (made so familiar, both in England and on this side of the water, by Sir James Stephen's digest of the Law of Evidence) which consists of stating principles of law in the form of rules. As contributions to a possible future code of English law Mr. Dicey's and Sir James Stephen's books are of great interest; but, apart from all questions of codification, they have an immediate practical value as law-books. The new method has many great advantages over the old, of which the chief, perhaps, is that it conduces to great clearness and precision of statement. Though these are in law-books the primary requirements, they are yet conspicuous by their absence from far too large a proportion of current treatises. As between the books of Mr. Dicey and Sir James Stephen, it is hard to say which are best written. Sir James Stephen has been fortunate in taking branches of jurisprudence for his province in which the novelty and success of his treatment compelled immediate attention. Mr. Dicey's have attracted less general attention only because they relate to special and technical branches of the law. Mr. Dicey's present treatise relates, it will be seen, solely to the law of domicil as administered by English courts. "No attempt is made to determine whether the rules which made up the law of domicil, as administered by English courts, are or are not the same as the rules administered by foreign tribunals, and forming, therefore, part of various foreign legal systems." The advantages which this method has in the eyes of a follower of Austin are very obvious to the professional eye. For the English lawyer the rules of law prevailing in foreign countries are not, properly speaking, law at all, since they do not rest upon the only sovereign authority which, for him, has the power of imposing or enforcing sanctions, and a law without a sanction is a contradiction in terms. It avoids, too, the errors "which have arisen from confusing the rules of so-called private international law, which are in strictness 'laws,' but are not 'international,' with the principles of international law properly so called, which are 'international,' since they regulate the conduct of nations toward each other, but are not in the strict sense of the term laws." It should be observed, however, that most of the principles of the law of domicil are the same in all civilized countries, and consequently the greater part of Mr. Dicey's rules state the law of the United States on the subject in stating that of England. The treatise embraces the following topics: the nature of domicil, the ascertainment of domicil, and the legal effects of domicil. It covers the greater part of the subjects included in Story's 'Conflict of Laws.' As an illustration of the ease with which the great bulk of English law may be condensed and digested we may mention that Mr. Dicey brings the entire body of the law on this involved and difficult subject into seventy-three rules, covering twenty-eight pages. The remainder of the book is taken up chiefly with an exposition of the rules, based, of course, in great measure upon an examination of decided cases. We have no space to criticise the work in detail. There are here and there rules, for instance, in the part devoted to the ascertainment of domicil which, we think, might be modified as to form, though not in substance. There appears to be here a slight tendency to lay down, as principles peculiar to the law of domicil, rules which are merely branches of

the general law of evidence. But this is perhaps rather a criticism of the courts than of Mr. Dicey. Altogether we must cordially commend the book to lawyers as a treatise on a branch of English and American law which will be found alike of much practical value in professional practice and of great philosophical interest to the student of jurisprudence.

Lancashire Memories. By Louise Potter. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—This is a book of unpretentious essays on English country life, written from the personal experience of a cultivated lady. They are pleasant reading for their air of gentle breeding, but principally, perhaps, for the inherent interest of the subject. English rural scenes will probably always continue to have a unique charm for people given over to literature for its own sake. There are character-sketches here where the past and passing generations, with their personal prejudices and idiosyncrasies, are shown in the midst of a forgotten fashion of surroundings; country scenes, with anecdotes of sharp-witted rustics pitted against condescending city-bred curates, the honors of victory resting with the former, to their own satisfaction at least, and forming premises for most unreasonable conclusions; reminiscences of girlish boarding-school life, in which the awkwardness of the English school-girl, which was the despair of the French dancing-master, is naïvely accepted as praiseworthy, and proof of qualities in which the French girl, by reason of her grace, perhaps, is lamentably lacking. The reader will readily recognize the order to which the book belongs, and, we trust, with respect, although doubtless with tempered enthusiasm.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bishop (N. H.), Four Months in a Sneak-Box	(Lee & Shepard) $2 50
Brentano's Aquatic Monthly, Vol. I.	(A. Brentano, jr.)
Centennial Celebrations of the State of New York	(Weed, Parsons & Co.)
Durant (Dr. G.), Hygiene of the Voice, new ed.	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 1 50
Grove (G.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part 2, swd.	(Macmillan & Co.)
Guthrie (M.), On Mr. Spencer's Formula of Evolution	(Trübner & Co.)
Harper's Latin Dictionary	(Harper & Brothers) 9 00
Herr (J. G.), Scattered Notes on the Text of Shakspere	(W. C. Wilson & Co.)
Higginson (Mrs. M. H.), Room for One More	(Lee & Shepard) 1 25
Houghton (Rev. W.), Gleanings from the Natural History of the Ancients	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 1 75
Koolman (J. ten D.), Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache, Part 9, swd.	(Hermann Braams)
Lane (E. W), Selections from the Kur-án	(Trübner & Co.)
Leonhart (R.), Practical Course for the Study of German	(Pittsburgh)
Leonhart (R.), Children of the Outlaw	(Stevenson, Foster & Co.)
Loftie (W. J.), Ride in Egypt	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 00
Miller (Dr. A.), Plain Talk to the Sick	(Chicago)
McCarthy (J.), History of Our Own Times, Vols. I., II., swd.	(Harper & Brothers) 20
Phelps (Miss E. S.), Sealed Orders	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Redhouse (J. W.), History, System, and Varieties of Turkish Poetry, swd	(Trübner & Co.)
Reid (Christian), A Gentle Belle: a Tale, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.) 50
Verne (J.), Tribulations of a Chinaman in China	(Lee & Shepard) 1 00
Zola (E.), The Markets of Paris, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75

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From the Scotsman, Edinburgh, Sept. 12, 1879.

Good popular works on chromatics are rare, probably owing to the fact that the subject has an artistic as well as a scientific side, and few authors are equally competent to deal with both. Mr. Rood, Professor of Physics in Columbia College, is one of the few, and his work, which forms the latest volume of the International Scientific Series, bears ample testimony to the fact. In dealing with the subject of color in painting and decoration, he points out an important distinction which, in decoration at least, is apt to be forgotten. "The object of painting," he says, "is the production, by the use of color, of more or less perfect representations of natural objects." The artist is thus to a considerable extent restricted in the choice of his tints. "In decorative art, on the other hand, the main object is to beautify a surface by the use of color rather than to give a representation of the facts of nature. . . . Accurate representations of natural objects are avoided; conventional substitutes are used; they serve to give variety, and furnish an excuse for the introduction of color which should be beautiful in itself, apart from any reference to the object represented. Accurate, realistic representations of natural objects mark the decline and decay of decorative art. A painting is a representation of something which is not present; an ornamental surface is essentially not a representation of a beautiful absent object, but is the beautiful object itself; and we dislike to see it forsaking its childlike independence, and attempting at the same time both to be and to represent something beautiful." To those who wish to know not only the facts but also the method by which they have been reached, no better guide than Professor Rood's work need be desired.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 30, 1879.

The Week.

BEFORE our next issue the elections will be over, leaving many interesting conclusions to be drawn, upon which it would be idle now to speculate. The *Times* has been summing up the canvass in this State in letters from an intelligent staff correspondent, who concludes that Cornell's election is assured. Nevertheless, he asserts that the most noticeable feature of the campaign is "the indifference and apathy which the masses of both parties display regarding its progress and result." There has been no lack of endeavor to rouse popular enthusiasm, he says; indeed, the two parties have exerted themselves much more than has been customary of recent years. Meetings are incessant, the people flock and listen, and even applaud, but still are not "roused." Outside of the meetings there is very little talk of politics; "the observing traveller," who would like to have it, does not overhear it and cannot readily get it. "There is hardly a Democrat in the State who is not quite willing to admit that against Mr. Cornell's character as a private citizen or a public man not one word can with truth be said; and it is difficult to find a sensible or intelligent Republican who denies that Lucius Robinson has been a very good governor, and that the interests of the State might, without danger, be again given into his hands." This, if true, is remarkable enough; but the correspondent adds: "Under such circumstances, as may readily be imagined, there is but little opportunity for discussion." He forgets, however, that if we are to believe the Republican stump-speakers, from Mr. Evarts down, the issue is not at all whether Mr. Cornell is an honest and capable person, or whether Mr. Robinson has been a faithful governor; nor is it in the smallest degree local, but wholly national. Hence the Administration excitement on the platform; and if there is any good reason for this, why should the audience grow cold as soon as it leaves the hall, and be silent on the railroads and in the hotels, and find "but little opportunity for discussion"?

Mr. Sherman's speech at the Cooper Union on Monday evening was more discreditable than Mr. Evarts's, by as much as the Secretary of the Treasury was more immediately concerned in the dismissal of Cornell. In other respects they differed but little. Both declared Mr. Conkling's puppet a mere name in the present canvass: "it is the cause, not the man," as Mr. Sherman expressed it. Both made the Southern question the staple of their exhortations, and drew the same false moral from the Chisholm and Dixon murders; though here, it is only fair to Mr. Evarts to say that he was easily surpassed by his colleague in drawing a misleading picture of the actual condition of the South. Both, finally, ignored civil-service reform, Mr. Sherman rather ostentatiously; for he opened his speech with a careful statement of the present Republican platform, from which the most important plank in the Cincinnati platform of 1876 had completely disappeared. He concluded his speech by saying that he knew of nothing that would disqualify Mr. Cornell for the office to which "he was nominated by a Republican convention fairly and openly"; that the President "has openly expressed his desire for the success of the entire Republican ticket"; and that as for himself, regarding the election of Mr. Cornell "as of the highest national importance," if he had "a thousand votes and a thousand voices they would all be for him." This is the very bouffe of politics.

Mr. Sherman's account of the actual condition of the South is so extraordinary in a public officer, part of the Federal Administration, and bound by his very position to know the essential untruthfulness of his representations, that it calls for the severest censure. At a time when the crop which is peculiarly associated with negro labor is annually on the increase beyond the production of the palmiest days of slavery, the Secretary of the Treasury dares to say that "whole communities" at the South "are slowly decaying in all the elements which would tend to make them prosperous and happy." Mr. Boutwell himself, looking out of his car-window, would hardly have returned from the South with such a report as that. Mr. Sherman has not lately been South, except into Kentucky, where he was very careful the other day not to indulge in talk like this, or to allege that "a controlling minority in some of the Southern States . . . has reduced the body of the negroes at the South to a condition but little better than that of slavery." This language might have passed in the days when outrages were manufactured for political purposes, but it is ridiculous now. Mr. Sherman asserts that "no Republican speech, pointing out the errors and wrongs of the laws devised by the ruling class, could be made in these Southern States without danger of life or liberty." This is not true, but if it were, we should like to ask him whether freedom of speech is likely to be promoted south of Mason and Dixon's line by reckless and extravagant declamation north of it concerning Southern society. What sort of a preparation is it for Mr. Sherman's joining in his own canvass in that section if he secures the Republican nomination next year? or what for the humbler stump-orator honestly seeking to recommend his party to a suspicious and hot-blooded population?

Two days before, in a speech at Paterson, New Jersey, Mr. Sherman considerably modified the Stalwart position. In the beginning, Stalwartism made *all* voting at the South, and, in fact, the preservation of the peace at the South, matter of Federal concern, and all Southern crimes and outrages, such as the Chisholm murder, affairs on which elections all over the country, and especially Federal elections, ought properly to turn. At this very moment Republicans in New York are asked to vote for Cornell for the State Governorship because of the Chisholm and Dixon murders in Mississippi. Secretary Sherman has now, however, considerably reduced the sphere of Stalwart responsibility by declaring that what the Republican party demands is the right to protect voters at Federal elections, while in local elections the State voters "may cheat each other as they please." This will be cold comfort for the negro voters at the South, who have been taught to look for Federal protection under all circumstances, because it is in State elections they are most interested, and it is as State voters that they are most exposed to violence and intimidation.

But it would probably be difficult to get any Stalwart to define his exact position with regard to Federal power at the South, although he is quite clear about its limits at the North. Indeed, there is a wide discrepancy between the accounts given by Stalwarts of their grounds of complaint. Mr. Sherman says now he will be satisfied if Federal voters are protected; but others complain of the appearance in Congress of "Confederate Brigadiers," while Mr. Foster, the Governor elect of Ohio, said in his late speech here that he did not mind the presence of these Brigadiers in Congress; what he finds fault with is that these gentlemen "come to Congress unrepentant," and "declare that they never will make any apologies for what they have done." So that it would appear that we at the North are to lay aside all serious business of government, and devote ourselves to abusing the South, until its representatives, after a bloody civil war of four years' duration, come forward and humiliate themselves and discredit the memory of their 200,000 dead by a public confession of guilt and shame. To talk of this seriously as the politics of grown men is very difficult, and yet the Stalwart leaders are mostly middle-aged and gray-haired, and the Organ makes much boast of their "age and experience." Age

and experience seem, however, to do about as much for them as they did for old George III. Some of them ought to be keeping a nice little Kindergarten, where the naughty boys come up and say they are sorry and will never do it again.

"Ben" Hill has played into their hands lately with curious indiscretion by writing a long letter in reply to one from Mr. S. B. Chittenden upbraiding the South with its crimes and shortcomings. There was nothing in Mr. Chittenden's letter which has not appeared in a thousand newspaper articles. The reason for writing it is by no means apparent; but whether well-founded or not, its assertions and charges called for no answer. But the Southern political usage requires every public man to defend his State or "his people," and so Mr. Hill composed a long epistle showing that the present troubles were all the fault of the North, and every Stalwart paper reproduced it as a capital campaign document, because it shows that the writer is "unrepentant." "Stirring up Ben Hill" has long been a favorite Stalwart pastime, and we suppose it will continue as long as he remains as simple-minded as he appears to be now. Mr. Blaine began the Stalwart movement by "drawing" him in 1874, and Butler was re-elected in the following year "to take care of him."

Mr. John Jay has written a letter to the Republican State Committee, provoked by the announcement that he had served in the capacity of Vice-President at the recent Republican mass-meeting, from which it seems clear that he is not yet prepared to support the Republican candidates. Mr. Jay would be glad to know—and he is sanguine enough to think "thousands of Republicans would welcome the assurance"—that Mr. Cornell is an ardent and unselfish civil-service reformer, and to receive some unmistakable declaration from him that he "has taken his stand upon the national platform adopted at Cincinnati." At present Mr. Jay is left in a good deal of doubt, not to say distrust, concerning this, and he submits his right to have his doubts cleared up before recognizing the importance of Mr. Cornell's election in a national sense. He inclines, however, to the belief that Mr. Cornell is not an advocate of civil-service reform, and mentions as evidence which has weight with him the pointed declarations of President Hayes in his message to Congress, January 31 last, which pronounced Mr. Cornell's removal from the Custom-house necessary in order that "the office may be honestly and efficiently administered." He also recalls the fact that Mr. Cornell's nomination was greeted "as the triumph of a splendid audacity, the knell of reform, and the boom of a coming flood of corruption." Still, to dispel "these doubts and dangers which seem to gather about us" very little is needed, in Mr. Jay's estimation. "A simple declaration from Mr. Cornell and his associates" that they stand on the Cincinnati platform would be almost sufficient to clear the air completely. His letter is written "with all respect and frankness," he says, and though impulsive young Scratchers may think the tone of it characterized by a temperance that amounts to timidity, it is quite possible that what appears like caution is in reality to be ascribed to a subtle and insidious courtesy calculated to do Mr. Cornell as little good as outspoken denunciation.

The Scratchers have had one curious experience. They have found it impossible to get six or seven of the leading Republican papers of the State, such as the Buffalo *Commercial* and the Rochester *Democrat*, to publish their addresses, even as advertisements. This illustrates well both the fidelity of country papers to the party, and the doubts which they all feel, in spite of their expressions of confidence, as to the effect of "Independent" views on the voters. It sheds some instructive light, too, on the kind of education on current political topics which the voter gets from a party paper. It was probably to the expectation that these would permit dissenters to use their columns, if not for love for money, that the Organ referred when he warned the "large-eyed boys" against "the mirage." The eyes of "the boys" certainly grow larger the longer they watch the performances of himself and his colaborers during a political canvass.

Ostensibly, at least, there is to be no "fusion" between the Republicans and Anti-Tammany Democrats upon county nominations this year, although there will probably be the usual "trading." Indeed, the three county tickets in the field are unusually weak, or, at all events, not composed of the names which have been accustomed to fire the heart of the naturalized voter every fall, and it is suggested that the candidates have been put up merely to be knocked down. But this is not important, if true, as the same game has been played apparently by all parties, and if the Republicans are disposed to sacrifice their local ticket in the interests of Cornell, they will probably find the Robinson men quite as ready to do likewise. The tickets are such, however, that the independent voter will not find it difficult to make a fair selection, though he will hardly need to resort to the Tammany list, which, with the exception of one or two names, is the most impudent offered by Tammany to the voters of the city since 1871; and we say this without reference to the fact of the foreign birth or parentage of every one of the candidates. The *Times*, we observe, is doing excellent work in assisting its readers to vote judiciously, and points out the propriety of scratching certain "regular" nominees, with a zest due, perhaps, to the comfort it takes in feeling that, if bad State officers are necessary to the salvation of the country, bad local officers are not.

The approaching election in Louisiana is really "of national importance," since the new Constitution provides that the legislature to be then chosen may appoint Presidential electors for 1880, and no one doubts that it will. Both parties have made their nominations, Mr. Wiltz being the Democratic candidate for governor, and Mr. Taylor Beattie at the head of the Republican ticket. The Republican Convention met last week, and besides nominating, so far as appears, irreproachable candidates, adopted a platform in curious contrast both to previous Southern Republican platforms and to this year's assortment of Northern ones. It expressed gratitude to Mr. Sherman for bringing about the present national prosperity, praised President Hayes "for his acts and fidelity to the party," protested against the ousting of Kellogg from the Senate, and declared General Grant its unalterable choice for President in 1880. But with this everything that can be suspected of Stalwartness ended. No reference was made to the fact that the South is solid for fraud, violence, and murder, and the Democratic attempt to repair in Congress the result of the war is not mentioned. As the *Times* remarks, "these exciting themes are reserved for Northern platforms." Indeed, there seems to be nothing in the resolutions, so far as politics are concerned, that can repel any sensible and sincere voter, but, on the contrary, much to compel respect and attract support. A Republican victory in Louisiana under these circumstances is something to be desired. It would mean that constitutional government is respected in at least one State of the South, on the one hand, and on the other that to this end the overthrow of carpet-baggery was necessary.

The appearance of another Independent candidate in Yazoo County is a good sign. Mr. R. G. Hudson has offered himself as a candidate for the State legislature, and solicits colored votes while desiring and expecting white ones, in the proportion, he says, of at least one-half. He deprecates the race issue, and declares he would leave the Independent ranks if the movement led to that. He is opposed to extremists whose triumph would confirm the North in being "solid," and would stimulate instead of allaying emigration of negro laborers. Emigration he regards as a calamity, especially for all who, like himself, own large tracts of land—Mr. Hudson has 1,500 acres—which they want cultivated, and depend upon for their solvency, and who are supply-merchants into the bargain.

The letter has a tone of sincerity, and does not invite the wrath of the Barksdales or Dixons.

The Boston *Journal*, by way of showing that the Republicans did not tolerate Butler's badness between 1868 and 1875, prints an indictment of him drawn up by his constituents in the Middlesex District in the fall of 1878, after he "had sought the nomination of the Democratic party for Governor," and committed other party offences; that is, they put up with him beautifully, bad as he was, as long as he was "faithful." The exposure of the moral obtuseness of his former associates, in which Butler is now engaged, is the best work—in fact, in our opinion, the only good work—he has ever done, and we have watched his career as closely as most people.

The mission of General Adams to the hostile Utes has had the gratifying result of securing the immediate release of the women and children who were carried off from the White River Agency. They appear to have owed their lives to the wife of Chief Johnson as much as to any one, she being the sister of the friendly Chief Ouray. This chief's orders to cease fighting were, it is alleged, heeded in time to save Merritt's command from utter destruction, as the hostile band had been greatly strengthened by accessions from neighboring tribes. The latest statement of the causes of the outbreak enumerates the repeated lessening of the amount of rations, the want of any head chief at the Agency, an interpreter unfriendly to Mr. Meeker, and bad whiskey furnished by the ranchmen. The instigation of renegade whites should, according to the revelation of the battle-field, also be reckoned. The trouble is not yet over, but General Adams is evidently well fitted for the delicate task of effecting the object of further military operations without actually resorting to them. While his success in rescuing the innocent captives was still problematical, Governor Pitkin, of Colorado, addressed Secretary Schurz by telegraph in very heated terms, complaining that the Government was doing nothing to protect the frontier, accusing Ouray's tribe of being as much implicated in the hostilities as the Utes of the north, and intimating that if the troops were to be withdrawn he ought to have authority to carry on "the most vigorous and uninterrupted warfare" by means of volunteers. Mr. Schurz replied that the Government was acting, through Commissioner Adams, in a way calculated first to save the women and children, and then to satisfy the ends of justice without renewing hostilities; and this he thought much the best way of protecting the frontier. His information from the Commissioner was directly opposed to the Governor's assertion that Ouray's tribe had had any part in the rising; nor were the White River Indians all engaged in it.

The acquittal, after a long and careful trial, of Blair, who killed his coachman in New Jersey last summer, calls for some explanation from the Brooklyn *Eagle*. That paper tried and condemned him to be hanged within twenty-four hours after the killing, without having heard the culprit or examined witnesses, although it makes great fun of the Stalwarts who pronounce people guilty of murder in the South under similar circumstances. Now, what we should like to know is, whether the *Eagle's* trial of Blair was, in its own opinion, sufficient; whether it thinks he ought properly to have been executed on its verdict, and whether the subsequent proceedings before the Jersey courts were superfluous? If these proceedings were not superfluous, and the legal trial was a proper trial, and the finding of the jury worthy of respect, we should like to know what we are to think of its furious attack on the prisoner in advance of the trial, and before his jury had been impanelled. If trial by jury is the right of everybody accused of crime, what are we to call the conduct of an excited editor who calls for his execution as soon as he hears by telegraph of the crime?

The specie imports during the week were again large, and the total amount of foreign specie received here since the resumption of specie payments is now a little over $56 000 000; of this total about $50,000,000 have been received since the first day of August. Foreign exchange is still favorable for gold imports, and between $7,000,000 and $8,000,000 is said to be afloat bound for New York. It will cause no surprise if the net specie imports for the first year of specie payments amount to $75,000,000. This amount, together with what is mined and coined, will represent the expansion of the currency, since by existing laws all the paper legal-tender that was outstanding at the beginning of specie payments must still remain in existence. In these pregnant facts are to be found some of the most important reasons for the wild speculation that is now raging at the Stock, the Produce, the Cotton, and minor trade Exchanges. At the Stock Exchange, where railway securities and shares form the bulk of what is speculated in, there is the additional reason that while the tonnage of the railroads is largely increased, the rates for transportation are very much higher. At the Produce Exchange the full harvests in this country and the short crops in Europe afford another reason. The increased consumption of goods and general merchandise supplements the general favorable currency condition for advancing the prices in the other markets. But after all the good reasons are fully taken into account, the fact remains that speculation is overdone in every department and that the times are becoming wild. The volume of business at the Stock Exchange has reached such a magnitude that the New York banks have had the subject of check certification under consideration, and have appointed a committee to confer with the Stock Exchange on the advisability of establishing a clearing-house for Stock Exchange transactions, so that only the resulting differences on stock transactions rather than the whole volume of these transactions may require bank facilities. If such a clearing-house could be established it would make safer the business of such banks as mainly have brokers for their customers, but it would also tend to increase the volume of speculation by making the conditions under which it is done easier. Silver bullion advanced in London to 53¼*d.* per ounce; and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced to 89⅝ cents ($0.8933).

The foreign news of the week is without interest. The British seem to be settling down at Kabul, and have begun by hanging five persons guilty of complicity in the murder of the embassy; but no policy for the future has yet been announced, and it seems to be doubtful whether an occupation of the whole country or of only the provinces adjoining British territory will be attempted. Both parties in England are preparing vigorously for the elections by imposing "demonstrations," in which their weightiest orators thunder forth criticism and denunciation; but the Liberals are already hedging a little in their foreign policy, by giving out that they would not be by any means as peaceable and industrious as the Tories try to persuade people. In France and Germany there seems to be for the moment complete quiet.

Colonel Haymerle's article on the "Italia irredenta" folly has probably not forced any public man of weight in the Peninsula into sympathy with the movement, but the respectable and thinking classes have been doubly shocked by having the whole nation implicated in the plans of a small and only noisy faction, and by the sudden springing of a German-Austrian alliance which leaves Italy completely isolated. That her statesmen should, as is reported, be talking freely of a counter Latin-Slav alliance, is credible enough; and perhaps France and Italy would be thought, as hostile neighbors of the new allies, a more than sufficient offset to the Chinese menace to Russia on which some military critics in Germany rely in case of need. It must be apparent, too, that if Russia is in danger from having so large a territory adjacent to China, on the other hand she is in the best possible position for making and keeping friends with her. The British Government is already said to have despatched a reinforcement to its fleet in Eastern waters, in view of a possible war between China and Japan, and of the alleged concert by which, in consideration of a part of Kuldja, Russia agrees to support the Chinese fleet against the Japanese.

MR. EVARTS'S SPEECH.

IT was a new surprise when the Secretary of State of the United States made, last week, an ordinary campaign speech to promote the election as Governor of the State of New York of a man whom the President of the United States, according to his own official declaration, dismissed from the position of Naval Officer of the Port of New York because that dismissal was necessary "in order that this important office may be honestly and efficiently administered." The general purpose of having Mr. Evarts appear as the advocate of the election of Mr. Cornell is not hard to divine. The present President of the United States, as Mr. Evarts said in a speech at the Cooper Union on November 1, 1876, is a man "nominated because he was in favor of civil-service reform, accepting the nomination as given to him because he was in favor of civil-service reform," and, Mr. Evarts might have added, elected "because he was in favor of civil-service reform"—or because he said that he was. The one thing that has made Mr. Cornell a prominent man—in fact, the main thing that has given him his nomination—is that he has done all he could to kill civil-service reform. When, then, we see the Secretary of State make one of his most humorous and sonorous speeches in favor of Mr. Cornell's election, the meaning of this unusual performance is that it is an attempt to have the champion of civil-service reform do the work of its most bitter enemy, and to bring out the respectability of the Republican party in support of its refuse; and it is an attempt which has succeeded.

That was the general purpose of Mr. Evarts's appearance. The especial manner of his service in the ranks of Mr. Cornell's retainers was this: He was not to bring forward arguments in favor of any supposed policy of the Republican party, or to give testimony as to the good character of its candidates, and thereby to bring new recruits to the party from without; but his work was to stop the defections within the ranks of the party itself. He was to put an end, as far as might be, to the pernicious practices of "bolting" and "scratching." With all deference to Mr. Evarts, the practice of "bolting" and "scratching" is a wise one. If a man has a right to vote at all, he has the right to vote according to his own conscience; and if he has a duty to vote at all, it is his duty to vote according to his own conscience; and if the voter thinks that the public interests call upon him to vote against any one man or set of men, we all agree that he is bound so to vote, whether that man or set of men be nominated by the one party or the other. "Bolting" is simply voting against the whole of a party ticket, and "scratching" is voting against part of it; and if a man is bound at any time to vote according to his conscience, he is bound at all times to "bolt" and "scratch" whenever his conscience tells him he will so best serve the public interests. Not only, too, is it a duty to "bolt" and "scratch," but this same bolting and scratching is a very simple way, and the only way, of keeping bad men out of our public offices. Every man who strikes the name of Mr. Cornell from the Republican ticket, whether he votes for any other candidate or not, takes a very effectual method of keeping him a private citizen and out of the governorship; and to accomplish that would be a very solid, substantial result, though it is what Mr. Evarts calls "voting in the air."

Three years ago Mr. Evarts professed to believe that the matter of most vital importance to the people of the United States was to destroy the power of men precisely like Mr. Cornell. In his New York speech of 1876 he said: "The future question of this country is precisely that—how we are to curb the power of the immense range of office-holders over the politics of the country; they are killing all the statesmen; they are belittling all the issues; they are degrading all politics." And he added: "The Republican party has a right to demand of Governor Hayes, if he is elected, . . . that he carry out the work of weeding out the incompetent and unworthy Republicans and filling their places with honest and worthy Republicans; and if there are not enough Republicans, filling them with *honest and worthy Democrats*." The work of "weeding out" began, under Mr. Evarts's own advice, with the removal of Mr. Cornell.

Mr. Evarts, too, has professed to be himself a believer in civil-service reform. Civil-service reform, as he well knows, means only one thing—the putting men in our public offices, and keeping them there, because they are honest and capable public servants, whether they belong to the one party or the other. Now, we all know, as does Mr. Evarts, that, practically, the only opposition that civil-service reform now meets, or has ever met, in this country comes from party men like Mr. Cornell, who use the public offices to pay for work done in their own service. Mr. Evarts said of civil-service reform, "That is the war we are in for," and he has told us how he proposed to carry on that war. At the mass-meeting held on the 11th of January, 1875, in New York City to protest against illegal interference in the affairs of Louisiana, we had a speech from Mr. Evarts. The acts he complained of were acts of a Republican President and a Republican Cabinet, and he then said to his hearers: "You, therefore, are assembled here as citizens of the United States to teach every political party that there are limits to their competition and their antagonism which *no political party shall safely pass*." He meant, though he did not say it in so many words, that political parties were to be taught that lesson by "bolting." There was no other way. He had no other in his mind. And when Mr. Evarts, for the purpose of serving Mr. Cornell and Mr. Conkling, speaks of "voting in the air" he is throwing aside the best words and acts of his life.

Civil-service reform has not fared well at the hands of some of its professed friends. The President, who was elected "because he was in favor of civil-service reform," carried out his promises to the people by giving public offices to one man who had written a cheap campaign life of himself, and to other men who counted the votes that elected him. The men to whom he gave offices were notoriously neither honest men nor fit for any public service. The Secretary of State of that same President gives his voice and the weight of his official position to secure the election to a high office of a man who, as he well knows, represents all that is bad in American politics. Mr. Evarts has done himself no honor. Mr. Cornell and Mr. Conkling have made such use of him as they wished; they will throw him aside whenever it suits their purposes. He does not trust them, nor do they trust him. He does not respect them, nor they him. If Mr. Evarts had spoken on this occasion as we had a right to expect from his past utterances, he might have done a great service to the American people and to himself. He has benefited neither.

THE LAST REPORT OF THE WOMAN SUFFRAGISTS.

THE revival of the Woman's Suffrage controversy in the *North American Review* by Mr. Parkman's article, and the replies to it of five of the leading friends of the movement, have attracted attention mainly because of Mr. Parkman's appearance in the field. The debate has slumbered so long, and the world has so long been familiar with what Messrs. Phillips and Higginson, and Mesdames Howe, Stone, and Cady Stanton have to say on the subject, that probably no fresh utterances on their side would have caught the general ear. Mr. Parkman has won distinction in a field far removed from politics, and in so far as he has touched on contemporary politics at all, has touched on it in the character of a calm if not very hopeful observer. His views on the woman's suffrage agitation were, therefore, to all intents and purposes those of a new-comer, and his presentation of the case against it, though made up in the main of old arguments, had much of the charm of novelty. These arguments were very skilfully arranged, too, and he was unusually successful in his attempt to produce those which are in this matter the least presentable, though the most important. If the Suffragists could have put forward a recent convert in reply to him, somebody of mark, for instance, in any field of activity who had during the last fifteen years been won over by their labors, it would have given vastly more weight to their answer, and this may be said with-

out any disparagement of the answer itself as made. As it is, the renewal of the discussion cannot be thought to have much if any political importance, and we fear most of those who have read it have done so through a somewhat languid curiosity simply.

What the world wants to hear now from the Suffragists is, as a correspondent suggested in our last issue, some account of the progress they have made in converting men and women to their views, and of this they give us nothing. This is the more important because there is a widespread, and we believe well-founded, impression that their cause has lost ground with the general public within the last ten years, both in this country and in England; or, in other words, in the only two countries in which it ever obtained any foothold whatever. Some persons of note in England who ten years ago openly advocated it have publicly withdrawn their support, and a still larger number, both here and there, who once were active in promoting it have ceased to appear as its champions, though they may not have abandoned it as a theory. The popular interest in it, if we may judge from the newspapers and from private conversation, has all but died out. In saying all this, however, we have men in our mind, and the Suffragists could well afford to admit its truth, if they could show that they had been successful in spreading their own ardor to a considerable degree, or, indeed, to any degree, among women themselves. We looked, therefore, with some interest into their essays in the *North American Review* for evidence of the progress of the movement in this direction. On this point the friends of the higher education of women, and of the admission of women to wider and more varied fields of labor, are very strong. Their articles bristle with facts as to the number of schools and colleges which have been opened to women, and as to the success of women in new fields of industry. The Suffragists produce none of this kind of testimony. Their practical success is limited still to Wyoming, which is too new and gelatinous a community for its experiments to make much impression on those who are laboring with the problems created by dense population and deeply-rooted habits and traditions. In other words, they are still, by way of convincing us that female suffrage would work well in practice, forced to rely mainly on their own prophecies, which are not received as yet with the respect and confidence to which they may hereafter prove to be entitled. After they have shown that women are entitled to the suffrage *à priori* as a natural right, and that the world, as now governed by men, is governed badly, there remains a huge gap in the argument which can only be filled by prediction, and it is, of course, of the utmost importance that the prophets should not only be numerous, but should come from outside the very small number of persons who have made female suffrage a hobby, and have staked their reputation on its success.

What is of more importance than all is, that they should show that they have made some progress in enlisting the support of women themselves; but on this point they are silent. They argue that women have the right to vote, are morally and mentally competent to vote, and that the community would be the better of their voting; but they do not say that the women wish to vote. They must admit that this makes their agitation very peculiar. In all other movements for the extension of the suffrage—except, perhaps, that by which it was conferred on the negroes at the South—the desire of the class on which it was proposed to confer it to possess and use it has been unmistakably manifested. There never has been any doubt of its existence. Thus far the Woman's Suffragists have been unable to produce any proof that their clients approved of their advocacy, and they do not produce it now any more than fifteen years ago. As well as we can make out, there are in the neighborhood of Boston a few hundred women who would vote if they could, and who believe they ought to vote. There may be more, and they may have numerous sympathizers in other parts of the country, but these give no sign of their existence. If they desire a share in the Government through the ballot-box they keep it secret. This is not true of the desire to multiply and diversify women's occupations and the means of earning their bread, and to provide them with better means of education. On these matters there is no lack of expressions of feeling and opinion; but as yet there is no evidence that any considerable or increasing number of women would like to take part in elections.

Nor are they showing an increasing desire to participate in current political discussion, either through the press or platform, although to enable them to do this no legislation is necessary. We venture to say that within fifteen years not one woman has been added to the list of those who make themselves heard in public on questions of general politics, nor have the women who fifteen years ago were engaged in agitation added a single subject to the list of their topics. They were then engaged in denouncing intemperance and unchastity and the subjection of women, and they are engaged in doing the same thing still—nothing more; and yet within that period by how many questions of surpassing interest besides these has the world been shaken? If, therefore, the Female Suffragists cannot show that their cause has made any progress among women themselves, or that the attraction of political discussion has not increased among women, it is easily seen that they appeal to the public once more under serious disadvantages, because it is on these points the public expects them to have something new to say.

They labor under one other disadvantage, which is also serious. Usually, agitators laboring for an important legislative change for the benefit of a particular class have special and peculiar knowledge of the class, and are in a certain sense its recognized representatives, and maintain its rights against those who do not belong to it and have but slight if any acquaintance with it. In the case of the Female Suffrage agitation, however, there is no outward sign that the agitators speak for the class for which they claim emancipation. They have received no marks of adhesion from the great body of women. They can show no credentials of any kind beyond their own ardent interest in the subject, and they have, it would appear, made little or no progress in procuring them. But this is not all. In demanding from men the concession of the vote to women they are addressing a body who know fully as much about women's wishes and feelings as they do. Almost every man is in some sort of relation with a woman for whose opinion on the question of woman's rights and possibilities he has more respect than he has for Mrs. Howe's or Mrs. Stone's or Mrs. Cady Stanton's, and whose opportunities for enlightening him are far greater than those of these ladies, or of any orators, can possibly be. This influence, which is none the less powerful for being unseen, would seem to be at present exerted against the Suffragists. There can, in fact, be little question that it is to this that the smallness of the impression the agitation has as yet made on men is due. We venture to say that ninety-nine men out of every hundred find that the women for whose judgment and character they have most respect are either indifferent to the suffrage—that is, believe it would burden them with a new duty without adding to their happiness or usefulness—or else believe that it would be a positive injury to women and introduce into the world a fresh obstacle to what they consider right living.

This may be a regrettable state of things, but it is a state of things with which the friends of the suffrage must deal promptly, if their discussions are to lose the air of barrenness which now unquestionably hangs around them. Dr. Johnson's saying—quoted by Colonel Higginson—that "Manners make the laws," bears strongly on this point. Women cannot be got to call for the suffrage, either by Mr. George Hoar's proposition that "the fundamental principles of republican government" require them to take it, or by Dr. Franklin's dictum, that those who "have no vote" are "absolutely enslaved to those who have votes." All the logic in the world will not make either man or woman clamor for liberty who does not feel himself or herself a slave, and it never has done so. As a matter of fact, in all republics men agree to be governed by persons against whom their votes were cast, or whose principles they detest. Half the people of the United States are living in this very condition at this moment, and the reason they do so is that it is under this arrangement they find themselves most comfortable and their chief aims in life most easily attained, and they pay

little heed to what orators say about the logical absurdity of it. No government could be carried on, and no government ever was carried on, by literal acceptance of the loose generalizations of political philosophers, even when they are as practical as Dr. Franklin, and the women in this matter are as shrewd as their fathers and brothers.

A POMERANIAN WATERING-PLACE.

AHLBECK, Sept. 2, 1879.

THIS little Pomeranian settlement near the great harbor of Swinemünde has now become, with the adjoining Herringsdorf, the fashionable sea-side resort for well-to-do Berliners. During a visit of nearly a month we have heard scarcely a word of English, or seen an English or American name in the hotel-register or in the published visitors' list. There are crowds of rest and pleasure seekers, but no games, no races, no rowing, and almost no society in the sense of American watering-places. The summer and early fall are divided into four "seasons" of from three to six weeks each, and the houses—mostly owned by a few large stock companies—are rented in flats or suites already furnished, even to kitchen utensils, to families, or more commonly *parties* of families, who take them invariably by the season, make few acquaintances outside their own party, and live immensely at their ease. There are big out-of-door beer-gardens, and concerts or theatrical performances in the large hotels daily; bathing, mainly by children and invalids; meals five times a day, commonly in large, open porches built for the purpose, where many a *Geheimrath*, member of the Reichstag, or general may be seen from the promenades with his family and friends.

These things, however, interest the stranger far less than the scenery and native inhabitants and institutions of the place. Beech and oak-covered hills, reminding one of a New England village, heavy pine forests, and a wonderful sandy beach give a strange variety. Half a mile back of the hilly ridge which skirts the sea lie immense fertile meadows of ten thousand acres, from which the sea was pumped in thirty months, twelve years ago, by wind and steam power, and the moisture of which is now controlled by a simple system of self-regulating canals and windmills. Around it to the north and east are the Pomeranian forests, in which deer, wild boars, and occasionally moose are hunted. The forester has an acre cleared and replanted every year, and the wood sold at auction to the fishermen at a very low price. In spite of his precaution, however, trees are silently sawed down and stolen nearly every night in winter by those too poor to buy, and his too strict predecessor was lately murdered by a trespassing party which he discovered, while a strand officer who attempted to enforce the laws against *hauen* for eels—a method by which all fish within reach of the too-fatal instrument are destroyed without being secured—was taken from his house by masked men and drowned with an anchor about his neck. Every storm from the north or east throws the now very common amber upon the strand, and the fishermen occasionally bring it up in their nets. It is farmed out by the Government to a Jewish company, to whom all that is found must be sold at a fixed price, unless the finder makes oath that he intends to keep it himself. The fishermen insist that it is not the resin but the decayed and petrified wood of antediluvian trees of extinct species.

This is, moreover, the *locus* of several interesting myths which German poetry and romance have made famous. A mile out at sea stood the once famous city of pirates and freebooters, Vineta, wealthy and magnificent beyond imagination, submerged by the gods for its pride, and now occasionally seen in calm weather by fated souls, who are sure to be drawn by the charm of the vision beneath the waves. Near my window, in a deep ravine, was the home and treasure-house of the pirate chief of the Vitalians, Störtebeck, who in the rôle of the awful black man is still the terror of the German nursery. "The friend of God and the foe of all men," he preyed long and successfully upon the commerce of the Hanseatic League, till he was at last captured, early in the fifteenth century. After his head was struck off he rose and ran past fourteen of his condemned followers before he fell, thus saving their lives, according to the sworn promise of his judges. A bowlder on the strand confines the Amber Maiden in her subterranean chamber of the dwarfs, whence she briefly reappears every hundred years, and where she still awaits her deliverer.

There are no tides in the Baltic, but a brisk wind changes the sea-level several feet, and a great storm like that of 1872 more than twenty-five feet. It is relatively very shallow; its surface is somewhat higher than that of the North Sea; and its waters, fed by more than two hundred and fifty streams, are warmer, and consequently less salt, than those of the North Sea. All its harbors are artificial, and located at river-mouths. Its level is gradually rising in the north and sinking in the south from geological causes, and zoölogists enumerate here about one hundred species of fish, more than a dozen of which are well known in the market. During four or five of the coldest months the East Sea is ice-bound, and sometimes frozen over for miles from the mainland. Every storm changes the bottom, and wrecks are very frequent. During the last twenty-five years nearly a quarter of the fishing population of this place has been drowned.

We began our study of the inhabitants by a visit to the village school, where the shady side of the German school-system may be seen. There is but one teacher, who has been at his post forty-eight years, and has now two hundred and thirty children under his care. He lives in the reed-thatched school-house, and until recently was obliged to eke out a living for his family by working in the harvest-field. He is a pietist, and teaches his pupils to sing Sankey's melodies while he plays a two-stringed violin. The children have few, often no school-books, and the instruction is almost purely oral. They are trained in the three Rs, learn a little geography, and are taught to revere God and the Kaiser. At fourteen the boys go into the boats and the girls learn to dress fish, gather faggots, harvest, cook, weave nets, etc. There is a town library of forty volumes, although many inhabitants scarcely see a book after leaving school. We listened the other day to an animated discussion by a dozen fishermen whether the world went round the sun or vice versa—a question on which opinion was about equally divided. The people are remarkably sober, industrious, honest, moral, and contented, and without exception Protestants. With a population of nearly one thousand souls there is no church, and the burial service is conducted by the schoolmaster. Many of the more prosperous have built neat cottages, which are rented to summer visitors. Their owners are sometimes thrifty enough not merely to remember in the bills of their guests the ordinary extra items for boots, candles, *Trinkgeld*, mustard, beer that was never drunk, etc.; but soap and feather beds, every bath taken in the sea, notification at the police-office, all contribute their mite to charges which, after all, are astonishingly small. The fisher himself lives in a substantial house built on the sand of drift-wood and brick, covered with mortar and thatch-roofed; sleeps on a mattress of sea-grass, under a bed of the feathers of wild ducks caught in fish-nets often fifty feet under water. His diet is of fish and pork fattened on fish, of potatoes grown in sand fertilized by fish-guano that he has made himself and with sea-tang; and in winter he must often borrow money at usurious rates from the well-to-do owners of the smoke-houses, who get the lion's share of the profits of his business.

The sea has a rationalizing influence, and the fisherman is far less superstitious than the *Bauer*, or peasant. He is brought into closer contact with a greater variety of natural phenomena and more disciplined in reasoning from cause to effect. We have heard the inhabitants here discuss, with a degree of intelligence for which it is difficult to account, not only such questions as why fish are more palatable if smoked with oak than with other species of wood, the merits of different sorts of nets and of different methods of drying, weaving, and preserving them, the marvellous properties of dolphin oil, etc., but why the sea draws showers over to itself from the land; why lightning prefers to strike in the sea-water rather than in the sand; the cause of water-spouts and whirlwinds so often occurring hereabouts; the right of the Government to levy a tax on the sea-fisheries; the partitioning off of the Baltic between the various nationalities which now have equal rights on all its water; the evils of the new suffrage law, under which every apprentice and employee, without being bribed, must vote the ticket his superior puts into his hand; the propriety of paying the count, who owns all the land save a few small building-lots he has lately consented to sell, for masts, drying-poles, and faggots in days' work, as at present, rather than in money, as proposed. The three years of military service and the campaigns in which they have served supply the place of an university education to men of this class. It is a part of their patriotism to bring out their best beer and charge their smallest price for their own townsmen or countrymen, and they are fond of boasting how poorly they have served and how much they have overcharged strangers, and especially foreigners. Fishermen here regard peasants with ineffable contempt, as stupid and fit only for woman's work, such as harvesting, digging potatoes on their knees, carrying and cutting wood, etc. Finally, they are not without a saving touch of rough humor. A drunken fisher, nicknamed *Bleistift* from his lead-tipped wooden leg, had quarrelled with his brother, who steered to the shore and left him to push off in the boat alone, a few days ago. In a sudden flaw the boat was upset, and, heavily ballasted as it was with stones, it sunk at once, and *Bleistift* was drowned on the fishing

ground. The next night, as a group of fishermen were drinking beer and eating fresh flounders at the village inn, one pushed back his plate and said solemnly to the dead man's partner: "This flounder tastes of Heyne's schnapps; your brother sends you greeting."

Such a people make the best subjects for a government like that of Germany that we have ever seen, or, in fact, that we can conceive of. They are not educated above their station, have no consuming ambitions and no subversive ideals, are reverential almost to an inconvenient degree to visitors, officers, etc., and are, in repeated instances, stupidly duped by Government subalterns, who are left both to interpret and administer the laws, which only they have read, to the advantage of their own pockets. Refuge from a year of jaded city life among such a people, in a cleanly and simple fisher-cot as is here the custom, is so refreshing to body and soul that one is sure to ask himself if, after all, absolutism, and even obscurantism, may not be here the most sane and moral of administrative policies.

Correspondence.

THE *EVENING POST* ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the letter entitled "New York Republican *vs.* Democratic Retrenchment" in the *Nation* for October 16, the *Evening Post* of the same day published a short paragraph which may be worthy of attention. If so, you may or may not use the following statements (the italics being always my own).

1. The *Post* did not (as indeed it could not) question the truth of any of the statements of political history in your correspondent's article, and complained principally that no attention had been paid to its own subsequent correction of one of the gross errors in its article of September 25. This correction your correspondent never saw, but it could not excuse such flagrant inaccuracy as was exhibited in the criticised editorial article of the *Post*, written expressly that you might accept it as a basis of judicial statement.

2. The *Post* says that your correspondent made a "conspicuously inexact" assertion—namely: "that the *Post* gave all the credit *of the improved management* [of the canals and prisons] to the Republicans." Your correspondent made no such assertion, but said that the *Post* claimed exclusive credit for the Republicans for *passing the constitutional amendments*. Whether or not this assertion was inexact may be determined by a consideration of the following extract from the *Post* for September 25:

"It is only fair to give the Republican Legislature the credit of furnishing the means by which this saving [in canals] was effected, and without which it could not have been effected—*that is, the constitutional amendment*," and again, referring to the States-prisons savings, it said: "The Democratic administration . . . would not have been able . . . to have effected a savings in expenses if the *Republican Legislature had not prepared the way with the constitutional amendment.*"

It did not seem "inexact" to your correspondent to say that in these lines the *Post* claimed exclusive credit for the Republicans (not for improved management, for all concede that to be Democratic) but for passing the constitutional amendments. Neither did it seem unfair to prove that the Republicans were not alone entitled to the credit for these amendments.

3. The *Post* distinctly declared it to be a *pertinent fact* that the Democratic administration of Governor Hoffman depleted the Sinking Fund to the extent of six millions of dollars. Your correspondent showed that this was not a fact at all, but that three Republican and two Democratic legislatures had caused the depletion. Notwithstanding its faulty reply, your correspondent is still unable to believe that the first erroneous article of the *Post* was sufficient basis for "a judicial statement." F. L. S.

[You have been very lenient with him on the whole. Since you wrote the above letter, by way of correcting his own story about "the depletion of the treasury to the extent of $6,000,000 by the Democratic administration of Governor Hoffman," he says with perfect calm:

"As to the depletion of the Sinking Fund we have not the exact figures and dates at hand, but the letter of the *Nation's* correspondent to which we have referred seems to claim that only $5,104,522 96 were misdirected by Democratic legislatures. Whatever the amount may be, it remains true that the sum was restored by the Republican administration of General Dix."

From this you will see that you will do well to keep your eye on him. The "depletion by the Democratic administration of Governor Hoffman" has become a "misdirection by Democratic legislatures." Perfect candor would have required him to confess that $8,637,720 74 was taken out of the Sinking Fund, $5,104,522 96 by the Democrats, and $3,533,197 78 by the Republicans, but the total "depletion" was reduced by a surplus of $1,850,000 from 1868. The two parties were, in fact, to blame in the proportion of about 7 to 10, and the wicked Legislature of Governor Hoffman's first year was Republican.—Ed. Nation.]

END OF THE ADMINISTRATION PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your Albany correspondent, signing himself "Independent Republican," gives true expression to the feelings of a large class of voters in this section, and probably throughout the State. In the struggle of the Administration at Washington with the Conkling-Arthur-Cornell Machine there was a strong feeling of sympathy with, and a desire to support, the former, coupled with an equally strong feeling of indignation for the latter; but save as this feeling found utterance in the fearless and able articles of the *Nation*, and other anti-Machine papers, it could not, of course, make itself heard or felt. But when the contest was brought so to speak, right to our own doors, by thrusting, through the agency of a packed convention, the most obnoxious of the Machine leaders upon the ticket as a candidate for the highest office in the State, then the "Administration Republicans" said: "We will now show President Hayes and Mr. Evarts that they have 'troops of friends,' and loyal ones, in the old Empire State."

Of course the cry of "Tilden" and a "Solid South," and a coming Presidential election, rendered the work of defeating the Machine peculiarly difficult; but many honest men, both "young" and old, set themselves in a quiet yet earnest way to work, and were succeeding beyond their most sanguine expectations, when, lo! we find that there is no "Administration party" to support. Mr. Evarts, Mr. Sherman, and (if reports are true) Mr. Hayes are vying with Mr. Conkling in urging the election of Mr. Cornell. I submit that this is not only discouraging but positively humiliating. In the caucus phraseology, do we not seem to have been "sold out"? Of course we do not "despair of the Republic," nor do we expect that by the election of any of the three candidates for governor "constitutional liberty would be at an end"; but, in view of all the circumstances, we may be pardoned for saying, "Nusquam tuta fides."

A Would-be Independent Republican.

Albany, N. Y., Oct. 25, 1879.

THE PACIFIC RAILROADS AND THE GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comment upon the recently-delivered majority and minority opinions of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States touching the validity of the act of Congress popularly known as the "Thurman Act," which deals with the indebtedness of the Pacific Railroad Companies to the United States, growing out of an advance of subsidy bonds, you evince rather more discernment than most newspaper writers on that subject.

I do not propose to enter into a discussion of the merits of the Court's decision, but merely to notice the implication in your concluding expression. You say:

"There can, however, be no doubt that the companies, taking into account the peculiar manner in which their concessions from the Government were originally obtained, are, in the forum of morals, not in a position to complain of the Thurman Act. It is a pity that they could not have been compelled to take steps toward liquidating their debts without the passage of a statute which this conflict of opinion in the Supreme Court shows to be calculated to create a feeling of insecurity as to corporate property."

To one not familiar with the history of this controversy between the Pacific Railroad Companies and the Government agents this passage might convey the idea that the companies either denied the obligation to pay or were seeking to evade payment of this debt, and that some such compulsory process was urgently needed to make them provide for it in advance of maturity; and that the effect of this Act and the decision on it is to save to the public Treasury a vast amount of money which would

otherwise have been lost. Such an impression has been industriously circulated by the promoters of this policy of coercion, but it is not warranted by the facts.

The Act has not even the poor excuse for existence you suggest of being required to secure the debt. The direct contrary would be nearer the truth. The Central Pacific Railroad Company does complain, both in the forum of morals and in that of public policy, as well as in the courts of law, that this act is unprovoked, impolitic, and unjust in principle.

Finding that the volume of Government transportation was diminishing year by year far beyond all expectation, and that the compensation was also shrinking (greatly to the benefit of the Treasury, though not directly credited as against these subsidy bonds) and might continue to do so unless, by the outbreak of a great war or another inflation of the currency, the traffic and the remuneration should be carried up again, the companies themselves, realizing that a considerable balance must accumulate at the close of the thirty years' term which it might be difficult or impossible for them to meet, called the attention of the officers of the Government to the fact, and to the propriety of some modification of the contract by mutual agreement which would meet this debt, and at the same time do away with the litigation of which the acts as they stood were so prolific. As long ago as February, 1875, they proposed to start a sinking-fund in the U. S. Treasury, with fixed semi-annual payments sufficient to cancel the entire debt, principal and interest, within a few years after its maturity—these sums to be paid whether the roads earned them or not. For this indulgence of a few years' extension in time there were good public reasons and equitable claims entitled to consideration in any readjustment of the burden beyond that of guaranteeing a debt otherwise perhaps uncollectible in money.

There are other ways of providing for a debt not due for many years, known to business men, besides a sinking-fund, and one of them is to enlarge and improve the property itself by the construction of feeders and branch lines, so as to create a productive basis of credit sufficient to meet all the obligations as they matured ; and this policy the companies have been censured, by unthinking persons, for having pursued to the apparent neglect of a less productive sinking-fund. Time may demonstrate the wisdom of that, and the folly of this plan of exacting from these roads, and of course from the people who use them, the extinction of this subsidy debt at so rapid a rate, regardless of the efforts of rival routes, or of the well-being of the property lien itself.

These offers were made in good faith and in a conciliatory spirit by the companies, and were received by the executive branch in the same friendly manner, as became the representatives of parties anxious to put an end to a vexatious contention by which neither side profited. No sooner was the matter referred to Congress than certain demagogues (whom I must suppose either egregiously misunderstood the subject before them, or else had their own ambition more at heart than the good of the country) fancied they saw an opportunity to gain personal advantage by setting aside these amicable negotiations and insisting upon a resort to new, doubtful, and mischievous usurpations of power by the legislative branch, in order to carry out a theory of compulsion there was no occasion for. The Supreme Court, apparently sharing the delusion that it was helping to save to the country a large sum which would otherwise be lost, has been constrained to lend its sanction to this extreme measure.

Had there been a real danger that these subsidy bonds would never be repaid except in the way of transportation of mails, troops, munitions, etc., perpetually, it would hardly have justified such undignified trifling with the public faith ; for at the inception of this great enterprise it was the general expectation that double the amount of aid would be required to carry it through, and predictions were common that if it could be built, even at that outlay, it would still be the best investment of the public credit ever made, though no other return should be made to the Treasury than that of saving in time, services, and a multiplied efficiency and safety in internal development, commerce, and national power and prestige.

To the mind of a statesman it would make no difference if the debtor were derelict or reluctant, so long as he was standing strictly on his rights under the law and the contract ; but in this matter there was no wrong, no neglect, no provocation for strained or punitory legislation. The railroad companies were, I repeat, no way in default : and made known their intention and desire to comply with their agreement as made, unless a satisfactory alteration could be reached. They were entitled to respectful, considerate treatment ; they had performed their very important, arduous, and hazardous service in completing these roads as stipulated, and many years sooner than required by the law to do, at great additional cost to themselves and with corresponding profit to the country. The Government, as well as the public, was reaping all, and more than all, the benefits anticipated, and the subsidy bonds were being slowly repaid, with an offer to accelerate the payment, notwithstanding they were popularly, and with some reason, regarded in the light of donations. The real question involved was a simple matter of business policy, viz., how and on what terms shall the ultimate payment of the debt in money be put beyond all contingency, and what rate of extinction will best accommodate the usefulness of the roads without over-taxing the traffic upon which they depend, and which depends upon them ? This was a case requiring the practical wisdom and experience with affairs of magnitude of business men, able to grasp the future needs of the far West, rather than the vanity of self-seeking aspirants for political honors who seized upon it for personal ends. Just how much it will cost both sides to undo the wrong wrought by this mistaken policy remains to be seen.

Meanwhile this Act and the decision on it, which unsettle so much, settle little or nothing to the point in hand. Congress has made its law to meet a fancied case, and the Government has gained the case so made up. The Thurman Act left all the bones of contention of the original acts and added new ones besides. The real difficulties are still to be met, and, notwithstanding this decision of the court, the best thing Congress can now do on behalf of the Government it in part represents is to repeal this strife-breeding legislation, drop the attitude of menace, and treat these companies as their other creditors do, abide by the agreement and the contract morally interpreted, or reopen the negotiations on the business basis in which the obligations and rights of both parties and the equities in the case can be duly weighed and respected.

It is a matter of small moment whether the United States Government gets this subsidy repaid a few years sooner or later; but the question whether this nation can afford to swerve from, vary, or repudiate its solemn covenants, without the consent of the parties thereto, or whether it shall assume to act as judge in its own cause, and thereby procure the labor and skill of its own citizens upon false pretences, is one which touches every person. These companies can better afford to be wrongfully deprived of their property without just compensation than the country can afford to be put into such an attitude of questionable faith.

It is for the Supreme Court to declare the law ; others as well as the judges may trace the consequences of their decisions upon the course of Government and society. This particular judgment and the reasons for it are but another of a series of steps recently taken calculated to fill the country with alarm. The difference in principle betrayed by the majority and minority opinions, which you deplore, is far-reaching and all-pervading ; and grave enough to cause all well-wishers of the country to join with you in regrets at its appearance, but for other reasons. "It is," in truth, "a pity that these companies could not have been" *allowed* to settle "their debts by the passage of an act" which would have called out no such unhappy difference, and not at all "calculated to create a feeling of insecurity as to corporate property."

If it is to become a guiding principle of jurisprudence among us that neither corporation nor person can acquire any right of ownership or enjoyment in property which the majority of the legislative power cannot at its discretion abridge, annul, or take away under the pretence of giving it to the public, then the ordinary incentives to enterprise and industry, the impulses toward associated effort and internal improvements are destroyed ; the element of honest thrift, which characterizes the difference between nations as it does between men, is blighted, and one of the strongest bonds of the perpetuity of society is endangered.

Very respectfully yours,

C. P. Huntington,
Vice-President C. P. R. R. Co.

[We print the above at some inconvenience this week, and must defer our comments for want of space.—Ed. Nation.]

A SUGGESTION FOR OUR CITY COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The success of the Humboldt Academy at Berlin, which affords young merchants, officials, and university graduates an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the ripest culture of the day, through the medium of scholarly lectures, not "popular" dilutions, held weekly during the winter semester (October-April), suggests the thought, Could not our city colleges imitate the plan so auspiciously begun abroad ? At Berlin the most eminent professors are engaged to lecture, and a small

fee is charged for the course, which was attended in 1877–78 by eight hundred "hearers."

Assuredly in our city an effort should be made by our alumni associations to extend to the constantly-increasing class of young clerks, merchants, and university graduates an opportunity to become acquainted with the best thought of our time, the ripest conclusions of science and philosophy, history, literature, and ethics in their broadest scope and influence. I understand that Columbia several years ago appointed a committee to raise a fund to establish a post-graduate course. The New York University did start such a course about a decade ago, but it was discontinued after one season. By united effort, however, carefully avoiding all preferences save the good to be achieved, it is possible to attain success, especially now when financial prospects are brightening.

It is the duty of our colleges to impress themselves more strongly on the thought of our country. At a time when the public conscience is almost debauched, and a disorderly foreign element threatens to overwhelm American society and politics—I refer to the wild theories of the labor party, etc.—it behooves our colleges to do their share towards creating an enthusiasm for learning and an appreciation for culture among as large a number as possible, and develop American thought, so that it shall be broad, generous, and reverent. Our colleges must ultimately achieve for America what her universities have accomplished for Germany. There it is the student who controls the national life; here it is, unfortunately, the carpet-bagger and the pot-house politician.

Details of the plan I leave to more prominent correspondents of the *Nation*, satisfied for the present in having called attention to what is imperatively demanded (and will be heartily welcomed) by a large number of alumni. A. S. I.

New York, Oct. 20, 1879.

Notes.

GINN & HEATH, Boston, have in press a new edition of Hudson's Shakspere's Complete Works. They have lately issued several of the plays in handy separate volumes, with new notes by the same author. They will publish this week 'Remnants of Early Latin, Chiefly Inscriptions,' by Prof. Frederic D. Allen, of Yale College.——'The Art of Cookery,' by Matilda Lees Dods, is announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons; also, 'The Essentials of Anatomy,' by Profs. Wm. Darling and A. L. Ranney. ——A. C. Armstrong & Son have issued at a low price their octavo reprint, uniform with Hallam, of Sir Thomas Erskine May's 'Constitutional History of England,' in two volumes. This edition follows the third English in including a supplementary chapter, which brings the history down to 1871.——The first number of the second volume of Mrs. Lamb's 'History of New York' will be ready for subscribers about Nov. 1. The last volume ended with the year 1774. A. S. Barnes & Co. are the publishers.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. will publish 'American College Fraternities,' by William Raimond Baird.——Mr. Samuel H. Scudder writes from the Library of Harvard University to *Nature* that the Smithsonian Institution will publish at an early day an index, in one alphabet, to all genera hitherto proposed in zoölogy, whether for recent or fossil animals.——The Historical Society of Rockland County, N. Y., has entrusted to the skilful hand of Mr. H. P. Johnston the compilation of what will be the fullest and most accurate account of the storming of Stony Point. The work will be published by subscription.——We regret to learn, from the October number of the *Bulletin* of the Nuttall Ornithological Club, of the death of Miss Genevieve E. Jones, of Circleville, Ohio, one of the artist-authors of the singularly meritorious work on the nests and eggs of the birds of Ohio now publishing in parts.——In the November *Naturalist* Mr. B. B. Redding has a particularly interesting paper entitled "How our Ancestors of the Stone Age Made their Implements." More exactly he tells how obsidian arrowheads were made before his eyes by a septuagenarian of the Wintoon tribe (Cloud River Indians), who up to the time of the Modoc war had been without fire-arms. The chipping was done with a deer's horn.——All health boards may be advised to take notice of the enquiry into the cause of the foul water universally complained of in the Red River region of Minnesota, as well as further south and west, as set forth in the seventh annual report of the State Geologist (Minneapolis). Alkaline waters and pine well-curbing are the two factors which have produced an endless amount of typhoid fever.——'Contributions to the Natural History of Arctic America' is the title of the report of the naturalist of the Howgate Polar Expedition, Ludwig Kumlien. The chapter on Ethnology is extremely curious.——A valuable Index to the thirteen volumes of the first series of the *American Law Review* (1866–1879) has just been published by Little, Brown & Co. A new series will be begun in January, and the *Review* will thereafter appear monthly.——The second number of the *Musical Review* shows a firmer grasp on the part of its conductors, and is both varied and lively. In a summary notice of Karstner's 'Voix de Paris' it reproduces the author's musical notations for certain exclamations and emotional or physical manifestations, even to the whooping-cough and the hip, hip, hurrah of the English.——Professor Daniel Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten der deutschen Sprache' (Dictionary of the Principal [Grammatical] Difficulties of the German Language), favorably noticed in the *Nation* five or six years ago, has reached an eleventh edition in its old shape, and now appears with twice as many pages in a "large edition" (Berlin: G. Langenscheidt). It is indispensable to any one occupying himself especially with the modern languages.——An interesting portion of the negro population of Africa, if not the highest type of all the *Nigritier*, is the subject of a recent French work, 'Les peuplades de la Sénégambie,' by M. Bérenger-Féraud (Paris: Leroux).——A little pamphlet called 'Quelques Réflexions sur l'Art de Bien Dire' has just been put forth by M. H. Dupont-Vernon, of the Comédie-Française (Paris: Ollendorf). Besides filling a minor but important position in the Théâtre-Français, M. Dupont-Vernon (who is a *licencié en droit*) is a professor at the College Stanislas, at the École Albert-le-Grand, and at the Conservatory. What he offers is a report of a speech on *diction* ("delivery," as we may English it) made to a students' club in the Latin Quarter. It is slighter than M. Legouvé's book on the 'Art of Reading,' but its aim is identical, and it reinforces the argument of the author of 'Adrienne Lecouvreur' with fresh illustrations.

—We have received several communications for which we cannot make room this week; among others, one from Mr. John A. Bentley, Commissioner of Pensions, in reply to our strictures a fortnight ago.

—Mr. E. C. Stedman contributes to the November *Scribner's* the first of two critical papers on his friend Bayard Taylor, and the magazine further celebrates the latter poet in two portraits, one excellent—a woodcut after Gutekunst's photograph; the other, from a replica of the original bronze Cornell Memorial, indifferent. Five years ago, we imagine, Mr. Clarence Cook would have preferred to say of Mr. Morris Moore's "Apollo and Marsyas" that it might be a Raphael, and was at all events a fine picture. Now he has no hesitation in ascribing it to that master, and none in admitting a "Virgin of the Lectern," of which Mr. Moore is also the owner, to be the work of Michelangelo. The engravings of the Apollo and of the drawing for the same subject (an acknowledged Raphael) in the collection of the Academy of Fine Arts at Venice, here set side by side, make the former ascription at least very plausible. Intrinsically, we should say no one except Mr. Moore ought to care greatly if the "Virgin of the Lectern" were prevented from being sold to this country. There is an interesting illustrated article on the Mississippi jetties, by the resident engineer. Most of all we have enjoyed the first instalment of extracts from the journal of Henry J. Raymond, by his son—not the *Times* newspaper of course, but some irregular jottings in an old index-rerum begun three years before the newspaper was established. Mr. Raymond was then connected with the New York *Courier and Enquirer*, and the first entry, in January, 1848, relates to an interview with Webster at Washington, in consequence of Mr. Raymond's having reported his argument before the Supreme Court in a case involving the merits of the Dorr rebellion. Webster, indeed, is the chief figure in these extracts, and capital anecdotes are told about him, as well as conversations reported which, since Mr. Raymond's accomplished hand makes the summary, can be trusted as our common interviewer's cannot. Webster's greatness in familiar contact seemed to his admirer "quite as impressive to his valet as to one who sees the subject of it only on holiday occasions"; and one day when Mrs. Webster remarked, "You needn't give yourself any trouble, Daniel, about your speeches as long as Mr. Raymond reports them," "the effect of hearing her call him *Daniel* was curious." Mr. Webster was at this time no friend of Mr. Clay, concerning whom he quoted J. Q. Adams's saying that "Mr. Clay would be a candidate [for President] so long as he should receive a nomination from a majority of the people in the town of Lexington." The very next month Mr. Raymond saw a letter of Webster's, marked "private and confidential," in which the writer complained of not having been consulted in regard to a proposed Taylor meeting in New York, and intimated that a way should be left open for the nomination of some *other* Whig candidate besides Taylor, from whom

"hundreds of thousands of religious and sober-minded men . . . would be driven to Clay." "Mr. Blatchford said Mr. Webster believed he could be elected President, and none of his friends dared undeceive him." The following judgment is worth quoting :

"After all, said he, what will Mr. Clay leave for future ages ? His speeches contain nothing of permanent value—all relating to temporary topics, and never discussing fundamental principles. He is not an instructed statesman—he knows nothing of the matters we have talked about ; and for what, said he, will he be remembered ?—For his brilliant, effective, popular eloquence, I suggested. Yes, said he, but how much has that availed Patrick Henry ? It is ephemeral, traditional, of little value to any one."

—It requires a steady head to read comprehendingly the first and fourth chapters of "The Grandissimes" in the current number of *Scribner's*. Genealogical details which take us back to La Salle's visit to the Natchez and subsequent excursions of Iberville's men, are, when mixed with the intrigues of a *bal masqué*, slightly bewildering. Mr. Cable is, however, no common novelist, and works a virgin field, so far as he himself has not been the *défricheur* of it ; and already his "story of Creole life" has charms which ensure him eager readers. The date is 1803. There is, to be somewhat nice in our criticism, a certain laxity in the matter of Mr. Cable's French perhaps not altogether Creole. "Theatre St. Philippe," "Nouvelle Orleans," and "chêrie, chêrie" would be thought printers' carelessness ; "Cannes Brulée" seems to plead for a final *s;* and is it quite accurate to call the expression "Comment to ye, Citoyen Agricola !" a specimen of "*tutoiement*" ? In the seventh chapter of his "Confidence" Mr. Henry James, jr., gets down to business, to use a vulgar phrase, and brings the true lover and responsive maid together. But first he sends *him* half across the globe again, and effects a surprising union between two characters not heretofore supposed to touch at any point. "He's so intensely kind," says Gordon Wright's chatterbox wife, "its quite pathetic. One would think he had done me an injury in marrying me, and that he wanted to make up for it." Trouble is evidently in store for this ill-mated couple, for an old suitor has appeared on the scene.

—In an article on "The Use and Abuse of the Pardoning Power" in the November *International Review* Mr. Russell Gray, of Boston, collects various significant statistics. There is, it seems, no record published or kept accessible to the public of pardons granted by the President, and though in some of the States information is to be obtained from printed returns made to the legislatures, these are very defective. Mr. Gray has, however, examined the records of Illinois, New York, and Massachusetts, with, as he says, "rather extraordinary results." In Illinois, during the twenty-one years ending in 1876, there were ninety-two convicts committed to the State Penitentiary for life. During this period ten died, thirty-six were pardoned, and only one of the remainder had been in prison more than ten years. In this State the reasons for pardon are given, and Mr. Gray selects a number of particularly weak ones, among which good behavior in prison, where ill behavior has few attractions, seems the weakest. In Massachusetts a similar return is made to the legislature, and Mr. Gray's examples show that "a prisoner ought, in the opinion of the governor and council, to be pardoned (1) because the testimony on which he was convicted was unreliable ; (2) because the complainant had a bad reputation ; (3) because an accomplice had been pardoned ; (4) because the prisoner was more unfortunate than criminal, by reason of his taste for liquor ; (5) because he is thoroughly reformed (a very favorite reason); (6) because the principal in the crime has escaped punishment." Instances like these, Mr. Gray says, might be multiplied indefinitely from the official returns. The force of them is not impaired by the irritation which the irony of Mr. Gray's paper betrays, or by the inconclusiveness of some of his reasoning from very much such assumptions as those he criticises in pardoning governors and councils. The main evil they suggest is the total lack of system or standard, either fixed by law or enforced by public opinion, in the matter. Mr. Gray suggests several remedies, or rather checks, among which we imagine publicity is considerably the best.

—A swindle of singular audacity is now being extensively perpetrated through the Western and Southern States which our scientific men ought to be more active in exposing. It is a "Chambers's Patent Lightning-Rod," the peculiar feature of which is that it has no connection with the ground, but is supported horizontally on insulators extending over the top of the building. That a device calculated only to invite a stroke of lightning could be publicly announced and sold is not very creditable to the intelligence of our people; but as we learn from reliable sources that it is actually being adopted, our readers may be amused by some account of the descriptive pamphlet circulated by the inventor, a copy of which has reached us. It opens with a statement of the "laws that govern electric action," to which the technical terms lend a very scientific tone, and which, to the poor farmers who are expected to use the invention, will sound all the more scientific in consequence of the obscurity arising from a disregard of English grammar. The following two "laws" will serve as specimens :

"First. There are two great opposite or opposing forces in Nature, such as Life and Death, Day and Night, Summer and Winter, Love and Hatred, Joy and Sorrow, Pain and Pleasure, Male and Female, Positive and Negative."

"Fifteenth. When two objects, holding the opposite kind of Electricity and having their potentials equal or nearly so, as compared with the distance between said objects, there will be no disputive discharge between them."

Further on are pretended quotations from Professor J. Clerk Maxwell, garbled to a degree to amount almost to forgery. A paper of "Professor Caladon," purporting to have been read before the Smithsonian Institution in 1877, is alluded to; but, in fact, no papers are read before the Institution except official ones, and we can find no trace of the name Caladon either in the publications of the Institution or anywhere else. There are a number of illustrations, one evidently designed for the farmers, being printed in two places to be sure of their attention. It represents a Chambers rod stretched over the top of a house and bent up at each end, like a serpent with head and tail erect, engaged in mortal combat with a black thunder-cloud just above it, into which it is belching forth a stream of electricity from each end.

—Of course, also, there is a profusion of testimonials, illustrating the extreme readiness of respectable men to lend their names to projects of which they know nothing. One "Prof." John H. Tice writes a whole pamphlet in favor of the system, but it is not stated what he is professor of. H. B. Lee, Secretary of the Georgia Academy of Science, is entirely convinced of the truth of the theory, and so apparently is W. H. Eckert, Manager A. & P. Telegraph Company, as well as a number of other electricians. W. H. Martin, Actuary Ætna Ins. Co., claims for it a superiority over all other rods. John W. Hartwell, Peter A. White, John P. Whiteman, and other presidents of prominent insurance companies, have witnessed practical tests and experiments "showing conclusively that a ground connection is not necessary for the protection of buildings against lightning." It would be very interesting if these gentlemen would describe the "practical tests and experiments" which they witnessed, and explain the reasoning by which they were convinced. Five ladies of Jacksonville, Fla., certify that they saw a brush of fire nearly two feet in length on each end of a rod in their neighborhood during a recent thunderstorm. We are accustomed to seeing the names of such persons signed to certificates of cures by quack doctors, but not to such a glaring imposition as this. It is perhaps a little creditable to our institutions of learning that the list does not contain the name of any scientific professor, or of any one who could be expected to know anything about the matter. In the latter designation we shall include or omit the telegraph employees who give certificates, as they may consider most to their credit. It may be worth while for the stockholders of the insurance companies whose presidents signed the above paper, to enquire whether they insure against lightning.

—The following extract from a private letter well expresses the state of mind of thoughtful and patriotic men like the writer :

"As one of the 'Independents' of 1876 who, after long hesitation, voted for Tilden, I will say that I cannot even guess with which party I shall vote in 1880. If Mr. Hayes were to be a candidate I should probably vote for *him*—not for his party ; for Grant, I cannot conceive of any circumstances which would lead me to vote. If it came to a choice between him and Tilden, I suppose I should vote again for Tilden. Of all conceivable candidates I should vote first for Charles Francis Adams, and next for Bayard; after these — !"

—We are very sorry to have again to call attention to gross acts of "journalism" on the part of the *Evening Post*. We said in our issue of September 25, commenting on Governor Robinson's letter of acceptance, that, as to "what had been done for retrenchment and reform in the State government during his three years' administration, *he claimed no credit in connection with it for himself and other officers but that of faithful obedience to the constitution and the laws*," and we then gave the figures. The *Evening Post* replied to this by alleging that the means of doing all this had been furnished by constitutional amendments passed by the Republicans, a point on which we had predicated nothing whatever. A correspondent then showed in our columns that it had blundered with

regard to the authorship of the amendments, and had also blundered with regard to the history of the abstractions made from the Sinking Fund. Instead of acknowledging this in its issue of the 24th inst., it has committed more "journalism," by converting the observation of the *Nation* in the paragraph referred to, that "Governor Robinson's letter had all the ring of the old Silas Wright Democracy," into the assertion that "the *Nation* had pleasantly likened the State Democrats to the old Silas Wright Democracy." There ought to be some punishment for offences of this kind, but it would of course be difficult, if not impossible, to devise one. We have several times convicted the *Post* of them, and tried to make clear to it the wrong and shame of them, but apparently without effect. They probably result in part from the too common vice of reading loosely or carelessly, and then lazily omitting to refer again to the subject of your comments when sitting down to write. There is a large number of persons, editors as well as others, who read something and do not like it, because, though not objectionable on its face, it seems to them likely to be injurious to something they value. After it has rattled round in their heads for a week or two the exact language used escapes them, and it sticks in their memory as a direct assertion of the other thing to which it appeared to point at the outset. The editor of the *Post* probably retained no impression of our original paragraph except that it seemed calculated to help the Democrats in the State election. In a week it had become in his brain a claim that the Democrats were like the Democrats of Silas Wright's day, and had passed the constitutional amendments, and that they had selected Governor Robinson to execute them, and that he had done so perfectly. In this state of muddle the editor sat down and began writing on the subject. Being afterwards irritated by our correspondent's exposure of his mistakes he became reckless as well as muddled, and continued to write without consulting either his own files or ours. It is all sad as well as bad.

—The high opinion we had formed of Mr. Joseffy's eminent qualities after his first concert has not only been fully sustained by his subsequent performances, but has been considerably enhanced. Critics and musicians, both professional and amateur, were eager to hear the young artist who had produced such a profound impression in his first concert with works of the modern school—the concertos of Liszt and Chopin—in a composition which to this day is considered to be the highest criterion of the technical and intellectual qualities of a pianoforte-player—namely, Beethoven's immortal concerto in E flat. Mr. Joseffy fully justified the most sanguine anticipations. He rendered this composition in a manner worthy of the master who wrote it—with serene dignity, with brilliant and surprising force, with graceful and poetic finish. There was not a single attempt at sensational effects, nor any evidence of a desire to display his wonderful technique at the expense of the classical beauty of the work before him. It would be impossible to select two compositions of a more decidedly different character and better fitted to prove the versatility of his genius than those chosen by Mr. Joseffy for his second concert—namely, the Beethoven Concerto, of which we have just spoken, and Liszt's Fantasia on Hungarian airs. While the former occupies the first place among the piano-forte compositions of the best period of the classical school, the latter, though it shows perhaps a rather one-sided and local character, may be counted as one of the best and most interesting specimens of the most advanced modern or romantic school. Mr. Joseffy's performance of his countryman's fantasia was given with a fire and passion, yet with a faultless execution and artistic finish, that fairly carried away his audience. Never has an artist in New York been rewarded with more enthusiastic applause, with more demonstrative evidence of genuine appreciation, than were offered to this young stranger, whose name but two weeks before was hardly known in this city, outside of a small circle of professional musicians. In a series of four recitals, without the assistance of Dr. Damrosch's orchestra, Mr. Joseffy performed programmes of a most varied and interesting character, extending over the whole field of pianoforte literature, from Bach to Tausig and Liszt. It is to be regretted that among more than thirty pieces for piano solo he only played one of Beethoven's sonatas, the great "Waldstein," Op. 53, in C major. We can see no reason for this omission, for he showed in the most satisfactory manner by his rendering of this solitary gem how admirably he is qualified to interpret the rest. It would be a treat to hear him play some of the great sonatas belonging to the last period of the master's life, the mere technical difficulties of which are so overwhelming that they are only attempted by artists of the highest rank. Perhaps on his return to New York Mr. Joseffy will gratify us with such a performance, as unusual as it is difficult.

—The first week of Italian opera has not been a success. We noticed in our last number the shortcomings of the first evening's performance, and whilst the second representation—Gounod's "Faust"—was a decided improvement in every way on Verdi's "Traviata," it still fell short in many respects of the standard implied in the high-sounding title of "Her Majesty's Italian Opera Company." The performance of "Faust" was the occasion of introducing two more artists unknown to the New York stage, Mlle. Valeria and M. David. Mlle. Valeria is not a great singer; her voice is neither sufficiently strong nor of sufficient compass to entitle her to this rank; but it is very sweet and sympathetic, the middle notes being of a particularly beautiful quality. She has, moreover, the attractions of youth, of a very prepossessing presence, and of perfectly free and graceful stage manners. We can sincerely congratulate Col. Mapleson upon this acquisition to his company. M. David, who is a Frenchman, sang *Mephistopheles*. He has some very fine notes of the genuine basso timbre, but he sang so abominably out of tune, and used, or rather abused, in so exaggerated and unartistic a manner the *vibrato*, that it was at times positively painful to listen to him. Signor Campanini was received with storms of applause, and gave an admirable interpretation of *Faust*. We have seldom heard his voice to greater advantage than in the "Salve dimora," which, in response to the enthusiastic demands of his audience, he had to sing twice. Signor del Puente was an excellent *Valentine*, and Mme. Lablache a very satisfactory *Siebel*. The performance of "Rigoletto," which took place on Friday, and introduced Sig. Aramburo, a Spanish artist, and Mme. Adini, a lady of American origin, would have been a complete failure but for Signor Galassi's excellent singing and acting. Saturday's matinée gave a repetition of "Traviata," with Campanini in the leading tenor part, which was a great improvement on Signor Runcio's unsatisfactory attempts at the first representation of that opera. Everybody seemed to be conscious of this circumstance, particularly Mlle. Ambre, who appeared in every respect to much greater advantage than on the opening night. In fact, Col. Mapleson's success thus far, what little there has been, has been almost entirely due to his artists of last season, to Messrs. Campanini, Galassi, and Del Puente, and to the excellent orchestra, composed of the best musicians New York can furnish, and led by so experienced a director as Signor Arditi. The chorus, particularly the male part, is vastly better than last year; the *mise en scène*, appointments, etc., very good. But these things are not sufficient. Where is the prima donna? Can the rumor which has lately found its way into musical and dramatic circles, that Mme. Gerster is not coming to New York this season, be true?

—In *Die Gegenwart* for September 20 a Mr. Otto Gross begins a series of articles on "Amerikanisches Universitätsleben," which, to judge by the present paper, will not greatly increase the knowledge of foreigners on this subject. It opens with a picture of the Yard at Cambridge during the admission examination (which Mr. Gross places in the middle of August), in which the local color is spread very thick indeed, but hardly in such a way as would make a possible German student feel at home among the buildings, names, and customs described. Some of the latter have long ceased to exist, and one is tempted to suppose that the writer has got his knowledge of them from such veracious chronicles as 'Hammersmith' and 'Fair Harvard.' An idea of the vividness of his style may be obtained from the following dialogue. The italicized words are in English in the text: "What is a proctor," asks the youth. "*A proctor? Why?* Proctor is a kind of human creature that lives between *Freshmen* and *Sophomore*, and hinders the latter from completely destroying the former. *Proctor's Freshman* has his room directly underneath the Proctor's, and is under his special protection. On this account he often gets off with a less amount of hazing. And then you are certain of Holworth." "What is Holworth?" "Oh! Holworth is the Senior's Heaven; there dwell only Seniors," etc. But the latter part of the article is heavier than this light and graceful beginning. Harvard and Yale are compared, President Porter and a German author, Gerhard Rohlfs, being largely quoted. "Cambridge," says the last-named writer, "is known far and wide, not only as the seat of Harvard College, but also as centre of all that is best in American literature. New Haven cannot claim such a distinction. At Yale a certain earnestness has ever been observed. It perhaps was not the intention, but it certainly has been the result, that its system of instruction has encouraged discipline rather than culture, strength rather than grace, knowledge rather than ornament." "The difference between the two," wisely adds Mr. Gross, "shows itself in the fact that Longfellow is the treasure of Harvard, the geologist Dana that of Yale."

—At the end of a report presented last June to the French Senate on the colportage laws, and recommending changes which would almost amount to their abolition, we find a curious list of books authorized and of books forbidden under the old system. The object of the list was to throw discredit on the laws, and the worst cases no doubt were presented; but even with that allowance they are sufficient. Among the forbidden books are the Bible, Montaigne, Montesquieu, Fénelon's 'Pensées,' Mrs. Gaskell's 'Mary Barton,' Cardinal Pacca's 'Pie VII.,' the 'Mémoires' of Saint-Simon, D'Argenson, Bachaumont, Ségur, the Prince de Ligne, Agénor de Gasparin's 'École du doute' and 'École de la foi,' Quinet's 'République,' the reprint of the *Moniteur*, and actually the future President Grévy's 'Gouvernement nécessaire,' Cousin's 'Fragments de philosophie,' all Victor Hugo's dramas except 'Hernani,' Sir W. Scott's 'Lettres sur les Sorciers,' Fenimore Cooper's 'Camp des Paysans.' But the people whose morals or faith were endangered by such works as these (the list contains ten times as many as we have given) were to be allowed to buy without hindrance 'Les Brigands des Pyrénées,' 'Le petit Sorcier, recueil de prestiges,' 'Le Grand Art de tirer les Cartes,' 'Les Mystères des Harems,' 'Les Grisettes et les Nouveaux Bosquets d'Amour,' 'La Prostitution à Alger.' What will become of the French people if instead of these improving works a flood of Bibles and French classics and works by Coquerel and other Protestants are allowed to be carried around to their doors?

WALPOLE'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM 1815.*

QUANTULÂ sapientiâ mundus regitur! This dictum, if freely rendered "What a small amount of common sense is enough to govern the world," is the true motto for Mr. Walpole's book; for his pages record the immense political results flowing from the prevalence throughout a whole nation of very ordinary good sense. Observers living between 1815 and 1830 might well think, and did in fact think, that England was on the brink of ruin. In 1828 so calm a statesman as Stein wrote as follows:

"The state of England seems to me very serious: a Church, the Anglican, confronting stiffly and oppressively the Nonconformist half of the people; its clergy for the most part non-resident—that is, distant from the scene of their vocation, and not troubling themselves about it; a noblesse that has almost monopolized landed property, and by its Corn Laws drives bread to a price almost twice as high as with us; a population half of which is crowded into the towns, and so becomes dependent on all the accidents of trade and commerce, and is exposed to the most crushing want; a steady persistency in injustice towards six million Irish Catholics, whose treatment exhibits scenes of murder, persecution, spoliation unparalleled in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—all caused by legislation, which ought to protect life and property; an enormous national debt; and at the top of the Government a King dropsical and exhausted by sensuality, a successor in bad health, and after his near decease a child, a minority."

This picture was no doubt, even at the time, one-sided. The brighter aspects of English society are left out of view; but every statement of Stein's is true, and Mr. Walpole's pages afford a long list of social and political evils which might easily lend additional darkness to the sketch drawn by the German statesman. What is noteworthy is that England, so far from falling to ruin, passed through a pacific revolution which issued in more than thirty years of unbounded prosperity. No reformer aroused the people to new life. No heaven-born statesman inaugurated a new era. Not one man of heroic mould arose to save a tottering state. A body of able, but for the most part rather dull, ministers, such as were Lord Russell, Lord Althorpe, Lord Grey, Sir Robert Peel, Sir James Graham, and a score more of men (of whom the greatest was a great administrator, whose keen insight into the needs of the moment was not more marked than his want of foresight as to the needs of the future), led a sensible, steady, unimaginative, and rather commonplace generation from the brink of a revolutionary abyss into the quiet but prosperous paths of conservative reform. No one can wonder that an historian such as Mr. Walpole, well crammed with facts and truisms, and happily reproducing the good sense and, one might perhaps add, the dulness of the generation whose annals he digests, should point with heavy satisfaction to the undoubted triumphs of what may be termed the policy of common sense.

No writer in the *Nation* will be inclined to underrate the substantial merits of the English Whigs, or the soundness of the policy which they and the best of their Conservative opponents combined in carrying out. But the merits of sense, a spirit of compromise, of political judgment, and the like, will never want eulogists in any Anglo-Saxon community, and there is some interest in turning from Mr. Walpole's complacent platitudes about the progress of England to the consideration, not of the triumphs but of the shortcomings of the hand-to-mouth policy which certainly achieved in England a success that is not always granted to the efforts of so-called high statesmanship.

The first and the inherent defect of what may be called the statesmanship of common sense is the tendency to defer dealing with any political problem which does not call pressingly for immediate solution. Writers like Mr. Walpole dwell with natural satisfaction on the fact that conservative reform has removed slowly and one by one all the evils which oppressed the British people at the end of the great war. What such writers do not notice is the price at which the policy of bit-by-bit reform is carried out. Catholic emancipation is the typical example of the virtues and defects of English statesmanship. In any other country than England the agitations of 1828 would have ended in violent revolution or in civil war. The spirit of compromise, the habit of looking facts in the face, the tacit but general understanding that come what would a political difficulty must be terminated by legal means, saved the country from ruin. But when this has been admitted, there is scarcely a word more that can be urged in favor of the manner in which Catholic emancipation was carried. If the measure had in 1800 been associated with the Act of Union, it might have made the Irish Catholics ardent opponents of Repeal. Had emancipation been granted in 1820, neither England nor Ireland would have learned the dangerous lesson that the only way to extort justice was to threaten revolution. Exactly the same moral may be drawn from the movement for Parliamentary reform. An experience of nearly half a century now convinces the most timid Conservatives that the Whigs were nothing like revolutionists, and that a reform even more extensive than the measure of 1832 would not have menaced the monarchy or have revolutionized society. It is further clear that changes far short of those embodied in the Reform Bill would, if carried in time, have satisfied what was, after all, the very conservative feeling of the country. But it is, on the other hand, abundantly clear that the delay in carrying any reform whatever very nearly plunged the country into a revolution. The storm has died utterly away. Its very echoes have ceased to be audible to the present generation. A Conservative Ministry may probably, within the next ten years, establish household suffrage throughout the country, and if any future Lord Beaconsfield should discover that universal suffrage is the best basis on which to ground a Conservative party, he may extend the franchise to every man throughout the United Kingdom with far less difficulty than met Lord Grey when he made the ten-pound householders the controlling power in the state. But though circumstances have so changed that modern Englishmen find a difficulty in understanding either the enthusiasm or the dread excited by Parliamentary reform, intelligent students easily perceive that the pacific movement of 1832 only just escaped from turning into a violent revolution, and that the peril of the time arose in reality from the habit, common to English statesmen of all parties, of leaving evils uncorrected till they became so intolerable that they could not be left untouched without peril to the very life of the state.

The second fault of common-sense statesmanship is the preference which it constantly gives to obvious rather than to thorough-going measures. Here again Catholic emancipation affords a fertile theme for reflection. It may possibly be found that in the long run England has gained from the fact that the politicians of 1829 did not carry out what they themselves deemed on the whole the best remedy for Catholic discontent. But statesmen who live from hand to mouth cannot claim credit for benefits accidentally arising from their failure to carry out their own ideas, and one can scarcely doubt that the men who were really in favor of Catholic emancipation wished for the most part to couple it with endowment of the Catholic priesthood. They failed to give effect to their own policy because simple emancipation was the easiest measure to carry which could conceivably meet the necessity of the case. Here, further, we have the bad side of the English spirit of compromise. A great measure based on Liberal ideas is so carried out as to give the least possible offence to Conservative opponents. A scheme of reform is, in other words, made palatable to those who are opposed to its fundamental principles by being applied so as to lose half the advantages which it ought to ensure. Much the same thing may be said in a less degree of the Reform Bill. To abolish rotten boroughs was an obvious necessity. To admit large towns to a share in Parliamentary representation was also unavoidable. Hence rotten boroughs were abolished, and the large towns received representatives. It was, however, believed, whether

*'A History of England from the Conclusion of the Great War in 1815. By Spencer Walpole.' In two vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.

truly or not, that some indirect benefits arose from the existence of rotten boroughs. Neither Conservatives nor Liberals made the least effort to preserve the alleged advantages of the old system in combination with the changes necessitated by any reform of Parliament. Add to this that it is by no means clear whether, even from a Conservative point of view, it might not have been better to have admitted in 1832 the claim of all householders, at any rate in towns, to share in the franchise. The first requisite of a measure of parliamentary reform was that it should be for a considerable time final, and Lord John Russell showed both firmness and statesmanship when he stood up for the "finality" of the Reform Bill. But a ten-pound suffrage, whatever its practical merits, had that want of theoretical finality which was certain to ensure the rapid growth of a movement for further reform. The terrors of the Chartist agitation are now nearly forgotten; but Chartism was at one time a real peril to the country, and it is difficult to doubt that the introduction of household suffrage in 1832 might have spared England the agitation for further reform which alarmed even calm politicians up to 1848, and embarrassed English politics up to 1868. To have looked forward to the wants or perils of the future would, in 1832, as at almost every other date, have been utterly foreign to English statesmanship of whatever school. Whigs and Tories alike agreed at bottom in carrying or accepting a measure which met the patent wants of the time. Logical completeness, theoretical consistency, or large schemes of policy had as little charm for Liberals as for Conservatives. One and all, they agreed in accepting a practicable scheme, and acquiesced in the policy of common sense. Students or theorists who look at the immense apparent success achieved by such acquiescence find it difficult to decide whether to admire or to condemn a kind of statesmanship which leaves a host of fundamental problems untouched, in the perhaps sound belief that it is best to let things arrange themselves, and that the last word of political experience is "Quantulâ sapientiâ mundus regitur."

DOWSON'S GUIDE TO HINDU MYTHOLOGY.*

TWO or three generations hence the amount of Sanskrit literature accessible through the medium of reproductions in English, German, and French will, no doubt, be inconsiderable proportionally to what there will then be to exhibit. Still, estimated irrespectively of such a comparison, this amount is far from being scanty. Moreover, the time has arrived when popular interest in the ancient creations of the Indian mind, and the materials available in the various languages of Europe for something like an intelligent appreciation of them, amply justify a compilation of the general type of that which has been essayed by Mr. Dowson.

Of attempts hitherto to supply this want for limited departments and provinces the most deserving is the work in two volumes of Sir Henry M. Elliot, entitled 'The Races of the Northwestern Provinces of India.' Under the four heads, Castes; Customs, Rites, and Superstitions; Revenue and Official Terms; and Rural Life, is a rich store of information conveniently arranged for reference. An edition, revised and enlarged by John Beames, was published by Trübner in 1869. The first serious attempt to cover the whole field was made by Mr. John Garrett, Director of Public Instruction in Mysore. In 1871 he published in Madras a stout octavo volume of 793 pages, including an appendix, bearing the title, 'A Classical Dictionary of India, illustrative of the Mythology, Philosophy, Literature, Antiquities, Arts, Manners, Customs, etc., of the Hindus.' To this was added, in 1873, a supplement of 160 pages. The chief defect of this book is its incompleteness, which is not surprising considering that one man has attempted what a score of specialists could hardly have done satisfactorily. There is also an unpleasant look of the scissors about it, too many of the articles being excerpted bodily from the writings of a few prominent Sanskrit scholars. Manifestly the true plan for the compiler of such a work to follow is to collect from every source all accessible information on a given topic, and, having abridged and arranged it, to give his readers the concentrated essence of it. But in spite of these shortcomings, which were hardly avoidable under the circumstances, Mr. Garrett deserves the gratitude of scholars for so much as he has done. The mass of generally trustworthy information which the book contains will be a valuable nucleus for a better-organized and more complete undertaking in the future. It is not strictly a "classical" dictionary, as it includes much that is modern. It has not reached a large circulation in Europe, and is hardly known in this country.

The volume before us, one of Trübner's "Oriental Series," is true to its title, and rigorously excludes all names which do not belong to the ancient times of India. This restriction of the field allows a fuller treatment of subjects, though it is in general brief, in order to bring the book within a moderate compass. The longest article, that on the Vedas, is about eight pages. The leading topic of the book is mythology, which developed to enormous proportions in India, and may be aptly compared to one of its own jungles, which harbors in its tangled depths every monstrous and uncouth shape. Found in its germ in the Vedas, growing under the hand of the exegetes of the Brâhmanas, it came into full bloom in the tasteless and conflicting tales of the Purânas, the latest of the older literature. The honor of bringing order out of this confusion, of detecting the fine thread of sense which runs through all this nonsense, if, indeed, any such connection exists, awaits some future scholar. Much dreary work, plodding through an infinity of speculations and silly legends, remains to be done before a philosophy of the subject will be possible. Naturally, in Mr. Dowson's book we find only a condensed account of the attributes and dignity of each divinity, and the vicissitudes which he suffered in successive phases of religious development. Inseparable from the poetic creations of mythology is religion. Here we miss all but the briefest allusion to Gotama Buddha. Such an inadequate treatment of the author of the great religious revolt, the Protestant Reformation of India, is a serious defect. The accounts of the ancient geography and literature will be found full enough for ordinary purposes. Frequent references to special works where topics are discussed more at length add much to the value of the book.

The author has gathered his materials, as he informs us, exclusively from European writers on India. "I have not resorted to original Sanskrit authorities," he says in his preface; and he adds: "My remaining span of life would at the best be quite insufficient for an investigation of their manifold and lengthy volumes." Why, instead of this somewhat equivocal circumlocution, he should not have frankly avowed himself to be no Sanskritist is not easy of conjecture; the rather, as the fact must be at once patent to any expert, if only from his "Chandîpât," "Chhando," "Gaura," "Havishmata," "Kâvya-darsa," "Târakâ-maya," "Râja," etc., etc. His ventures at criticism apart, his shortcomings are mostly of the kind that might be expected on the part of a person laboring in a field of research for the cultivation of which he has not duly qualified himself. As to editions and translations of Sanskrit works, he has no excuse, however, for not having presented more complete and circumstantial information regarding them. Nor can we commend his habit of sinking mention of his authority for a statement, where such authority is not identified with a name to which he chooses to attribute weight of scholarship. With respect to a statement considered by him to be of this description, it would surely have been better if he had withheld it altogether. And another peculiarity which he more or less obtrudes is that of qualifying a work by an epithet emphatically laudatory, or else of that baldness of characterization which is much more injuriously suggestive than outspoken depreciation. Besides, it is hardly becoming in him to adjudicate on the merits of writers in a sphere where he is a mere amateur.

By way of testing Mr. Dawson's accuracy and ordinary manner of procedure, we take, almost at random, his list of the Pauravas, which occupies a part of pp. 69 and 70. This list is, professedly, that "given in the Vishnu purâna, but the authorities vary"; a remark which we do not understand. By the "Vishnu purâna" is meant Professor H. H. Wilson's English version of it, the revised edition of which the compiler seems to notify that he has followed, in preference to the first edition. In the list in question, Professor Wilson has Prâchînwat, Bhayada, Parîkshit, Asîmakrishna, Nichakra, Sukhîbala, and Vrihatkshatra; Professor Wilson's reviser, Prachinwat, Abhayada, Parikshit, Adhisîmakrishna, Nichakru, Sukhâbala, and Brihatkshatra; and all these corrections Mr. Dowson adopts. On the other hand, he elects, as against the reviser's Pûru, Professor Wilson's Puru, for which there is no authority in the original. Further, Professor Wilson has Nrichakshu; his reviser, Nrichakshus; Mr. Dowson, the unscientific form Nrichakshush. Once more, Professor Wilson, mistaking the sense of the perfectly plain Sanskrit that lay before him, to say nothing of his carelessness, makes Akrodhana father of Devâtithi and Riksha, and Riksha father of Dilîpa; in lieu of which, as his reviser points out, Akrodhana is father of Devâtithi, Devâtithi is father of Riksha, Riksha is father of Bhîmasena, and Bhîmasena is father of Dilîpa. These amended particulars are accepted by Mr. Dowson, with the exception of Bhîmasena, whom he omits; here arbitrarily preferring to repeat a mistake obviously engendered by sheer negligence, if not by what was as bad, the deference of Professor Wilson

* 'A Classical Dictionary of Hindu Mythology and Religion, Geography, History, and Literature. By John Dowson, M.R.A.S., late Professor of Hindustani, Staff College.' London: Trübner & Co., Ludgate Hill. 1879.

to so late and so untrustworthy a guide as the Bhâgavata-purâna, to the effect of inducing him to misrepresent the Vishnu-purâna without acknowledgment. In his "Asîmakrishna," mentioned above, Professor Wilson likewise silently sophisticates his original by the aid of the Bhâgavata-purâna; and there Mr. Dowson declines to follow him. Finally, the names Tansu and Sushena, for Tansu and Sushena, are wholly wrong, and the compiler's own property. We here have abundant evidence of free exercise of caprice, in the absence of capacity of scholarly judgment.

Even a most cursory inspection reveals to us that Mr. Dowson has few pages which are quite free from errors of commission or of omission. He wrongly attributes to the celebrated Colebrooke an edition of the 'Abhidhâna-chintâmani.' Ahichhatra and Ahikshetra are set down as names of a certain city. The words should have feminine terminations, and otherwise are erroneously expressed; for we are to read, in their stead, Ahichchhatrâ and Ahikshatrâ. Both Angirasas and Angirases are given, though only the latter is possible. The "Ânanda-chandra," a drama, is unrecorded, as are twenty-two other compositions of the same class, all which were catalogued together in an English publication in 1865. It is by no means true, as is implied at p. 45, that Burnouf translated the whole of the Bhâgavata-purâna. Bharata is not named by the compiler as author of the Nâtya-sâstra, notwithstanding that the work—which, further, is not registered—has come down to us in its presumed entirety, and that part of it is in print. Under Bhattâchârya we are referred to Kumârila, who did not bear that title, but the title of Bhatta, Bhattâchârya designating none but Pandits of Eastern India, which was not Kumârila's home. And so Tarkâlankâra, not Tarkapanchânana, is given as the title of Jagannâtha, the author of the law-digest translated by Colebrooke. Champamâlinî is no name of a place: the capital called Mâlinî was subsequently called Champâ. Chedi is defined as "the modern Chandail and Boglekhand"; a borrowed conjecture totally unsupported by any good foundation. And here is an article, on the analogy of which Sanskrit epithets without limit would require insertion: "Chirajîvin, 'Long-lived.' Gods or deified mortals, who live for long periods."

But the task would be unbearably tedious if we went through the book as we have begun. So we confine ourselves, in what follows, to one in say twenty of the remaining defects in it which have struck our eye. Seeing how little we possess of sober Hindu history, the Harsha-charita, whose details are so curiously confirmed by the Chinese pilgrim, Hiouenthsang, should by no means have been passed over as if it did not exist. Did the compiler, indeed, ever hear of it? The Kathâmrita-nidhi, also, lacks the niche which should have been assigned to it. Kubjâ (p. 166) is no proper name; just as, further on, Syâla is none, where it is heedlessly assumed to be such. It is not entirely a "fanciful title" that we have in Lîlâvatî, the name of Bhâskara's treatise on algebra, if, as tradition asserts, the mathematician called it after his daughter. That "there appears to have been a city Mekalâ" is an opinion which it would be difficult to substantiate. Manu, as the name of the author of the 'Laws of Manu,' has, it seems unawares to the compiler, been questioned, with much probability, as fabulous. Pushkara is no "tank," but a noble lake, if our own eyes have not deceived us. Sthânwîswara, now popularly known as Thanesur, should not have been ignored, as it is. In Sunahsephas we see one of the many samples of the compiler's ill-advised dependence on so frail a stay as Professor H. H. Wilson. Its final *s* is to be struck off; nor is that all, as the classical form of the name is Sunahsepa. "Manu" does not, as is asserted, speak of Sûrasena as the "capital" of the Sûrasenas. The Vîra-mitrodaya is not "in the form of a commentary on the Mitâksharâ."

But we must have done with these minutiæ. Whatever may be the forte of the compiler, it does not consist in accuracy, the want of which we trace in him everywhere. Professor Böhtlingk he metamorphoses into "Böhthlingk"; and the accomplished principal of the Benares College will hardly be gratified at finding himself figuring as "Griffiths," instead of Griffith. As for the rest, the typographical oversights in the book under notice are anything but few; and yet there is no table of errata.

What, then, are we to say to Mr. Dowson's volume, taken as a whole? In spite of its teeming with faults, it may be recommended as very helpful for purposes of superficial reference. However, if its author, should he think of a second edition, were to go over his sources of information with more care, and were to call to his aid some competent Sanskrit scholar, leaving to him all matters but those of collecting materials from English books, and, especially, entrusting to him all attempts at critical discrimination, the result would, undoubtedly, secure itself against the grave animadversions to which he has too confidently laid himself open by his unassisted efforts.

RECENT ARCTIC LITERATURE.*

'NORTHWARD HO!' is a work of the kind which the specialist reads on the strength of the author's reputation, and, after entering its title in the bibliography of his subject, permanently consigns to an upper shelf. Other readers will find here some of those tales of heroic endeavor which always stir the blood, associated with illusive woodcuts, both tales and cuts being familiar to those interested in the general subject. The new matter consists of the author's preface and a number of chapters of text devoted to the journal of a midshipman on the *Racehorse*, one of Phipps's vessels during the rather uneventful voyage of that navigator to the Spitzbergen seas. This journal, after having remained in manuscript for more than a century, is at length printed, and forms the twig around which the rest of the book has crystallized. It is much more interesting as an autobiographical sketch of a young British naval officer of those days than for any contribution to Arctic literature contained in it, and the errors and exaggerations, which even the editor is obliged to notice, forbid its being considered as authority in any matters of detail. The author, Thomas Floyd, died on board the *Conqueror*, of Howe and Byron's squadron, while stationed off Sandy Hook in October, 1778.

In the preface the author makes the misleading statement that the book is intended "simply as a monograph of *Polar* voyages," or those directed towards "the discovery of the North Pole," as distinguished from those seeking a Northwest or Northeast passage. As a matter of fact only *English* voyages are treated of, and the account is not strictly confined to Polar voyages. In discussing future exploration of the Arctic region he rules out the Smith Sound route as hopeless, and in justification of this decision paints in lively colors the dangers of a passage over or through the so-called "Paleocrystic Sea," which he further extends over almost the whole Polar region. In consideration of reports brought back by the Dutch expedition of last summer, he admits the existence near Franz Josef Land of "two descriptions of ice," one of a "paleocrystic nature" while "the other is the ordinary floe-ice," which are separated by "a distinct line of demarcation extending in a *north and south direction*" (!). The italics are ours. The inventors of this new and awe-inspiring term for the "old pack" of Arctic navigators of the last two centuries have, in truth, a good deal to answer for. We may take it as settled that no English Privy Council would advise her Majesty to spend public moneys in attempts to pierce the paleocrystic ice, now, as we have seen, spread over the whole Polar basin, even if penetrated by bands of "ordinary floe-ice" "in a north and south direction." In addition to the official paralysis thus induced, the labor of reconciling the facts of constant change in the character and condition of the ice, as reported by every Arctic navigator in any part of the Polar region yet explored, with the hypothetical character assigned to paleocrystic ice by its inventors, is too heavy a load even for the gallant author of this well-printed little volume.

Among the Polar expeditions of which no account is to be found in 'Northward Ho!' not the least interesting is that of Captain Hall in the *Polaris*. The sad fate of the leader, the vicissitudes through which the members of the party passed, and the unexpected northward progress achieved, all combine to make the story of the voyage one of the most noteworthy in the whole Arctic record. Hitherto, with the exception of the accounts which have appeared in the daily press, no complete report of this expedition from a person qualified by experience in Arctic matters has appeared. This deficiency is now supplied, at least for those familiar with the German language, by the hand of Dr. E. Bessels, surgeon and naturalist to the expedition. The outlines of the *Polaris* voyage and its results were made familiar to the American public by the newspapers, and it is impracticable within the limits of an ordinary review to summarize adequately a book of nearly seven hundred pages. Yet it will be sufficient for most purposes to call attention to some of its more notable features.

The author details in the preface (p. viii.) the reasons why the work did not appear earlier, though the text was nearly completed in 1874, and why he considered the ground not fully covered by the official 'Nar-

* 'Northward Ho! By Capt. A. H. Markham, R.N.' Small 8vo, 347 pp., 18 cuts. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.
'Die Amerikanische Nordpol-expedition. Von Emil Bessels.' 8vo, xx. 648 pp., woodcuts, plates, and map. Leipzig: Englemann; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1879.

rative' issued by the Navy Department. He also gives what will seem to American readers conclusive reasons for not adopting the name of "Paleocrystic Sea" for the waters northeast from Robeson Channel. These are, chiefly, that it was first named by the American discoverers "Lincoln Sea," and that it is due to their right of prior discovery and to the flag under which the explorations were made that the first-given name should be retained. Moreover, while we may well believe that at the time and under the circumstances Captain Markham and his brave comrades did all that man could do, without success, we are not therefore justified in asserting that those circumstances are of such indefinite duration as the name "paleocrystic" would imply. It may be added to this, that abundant reasons are to be found in the very records of the Nares expedition for doubting the permanence of the ice-conditions there described.

In the first four chapters we are informed of the circumstances under which the expedition was organized, and of its departure from the United States, touching at various ports until the most northerly settlement in Greenland was reached. The story is enriched with notes on a variety of cognate subjects, including the Newfoundland seal-fishery and the celebrated masses of so-called "meteoric" iron which have been found in Greenland. The fifth chapter is devoted to a review of the work of Bylot and Baffin, Ross, Inglefield, Kane, and Hayes; in a foot-note (p. 101) some explanation is attempted of the discrepancies between the positions given by Baffin and those due to more modern research. Later (pp. 188–195), the sledge journey performed by Hayes in 1861 is referred to, an analysis of the observations indicating that Hayes was in error in his estimation of the latitude reached by him on that journey. The sixth chapter takes the *Polaris* to her first winter quarters, the author being of the opinion that an even higher latitude might have been reached than the northernmost which was actually attained. Besides the usual account of the arrangements for observations of a scientific character, sledge-journeys, musk-ox hunting, the few items which redeem such an Arctic winter from absolute social stagnation, the melancholy death of the leader, and the subsequent progress of the expedition in general, an easily comprehensible account of the results of the scientific observations is given (pp. 203–7, 224–32) for the general reader. There is also a biography of the Eskimo dog and of the musk-ox, with many details obtained from "Eskimo Joe"; a résumé of the animal and vegetable life (pp. 301–314); geological particulars, including reasons why the author believes that Greenland was connected with the American continent at the north after it had become completely separated at its southern extremity; data as to changes of coast-level; descriptions of Eskimo remains and of their migrations; scientific observations kept during the second winter; an ethnographic sketch (pp. 350–373) of hyperborean people in general; notes on the rate of motion of the inland ice of Greenland; and many more matters of interest for which the reader must be referred to the book itself. The latter portion of the volume is devoted to an account of the experiences of the two parties after their separation and the loss of the *Polaris*, and their final return, without loss of life, to the United States.

Enough has been said to suggest the richness of the volume in details of everything relating to these regions as well as its completeness as a narrative. It is written in a lively and agreeable style, and in general appearance and mechanical detail is superior to most books which issue from a German press. Good paper, clear Roman type, and a profusion of illustrations (of which certain spirited little tail-pieces are not the least noteworthy) form a worthy setting for the record of this remarkable voyage. It is to be hoped that it may be made available for English readers by a suitable translation.

We may remark, in conclusion, that one of the most important scientific results of the expedition, namely, the demonstration of the insularity of Greenland by homologizing the tides of Polaris Bay with those of the northern Atlantic, published by Bessels in February, 1876 (with a map of co-tidal lines), has recently been claimed for the English expedition under Nares; though an inspection of Nares's report will show that the tidal wave of the northern part of Robeson Channel was taken by his party to be derived from the Pacific, and it is only of late that the English investigators have returned to the original view of Bessels, whose promulgation of it they appear to have wholly ignored.

Campaigns of the War of 1812–15 *against Great Britain*, Sketched and Criticised. With Brief Biographies of the American Engineers. By Brevet Major-General Geo. W. Cullum, Colonel Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army, retired. (New York: James Miller. 1879.)—Americans who have reached middle age have frequent occasion to remark the ignorance of the rising generation of the events of the great war of secession. Familiarity with this phenomenon prepares us to observe without surprise the fact that hardly any one knows anything about the War of 1812, so far as it was waged on land. The number of those now alive who had reached manhood when that war was finished is extremely limited, and of those who came after them very few have cared, or now care, to study its history. Therefore, it would seem that the book before us would attract but few readers, and there is little in the manner in which its author has done his work to allure the seeker for amusement. General Cullum is a most respectable and industrious man, but he is not an imaginative person nor an accomplished writer. The student of American history may well consult this volume and he will read some chapters with positive pleasure, but upon the whole it is rather hard reading. The land-battles of the War of 1812 were not generally of a character to make an account of them very gratifying to the powerful Americans of to-day, and so far as the book is a biography it is less entertaining than it is as a history. Rather dry details of the lives of useful but not very prominent or interesting persons are not enticing, but at the same time it is true that to collect and publish these details does credit to the collector's loyalty to his corps. While those who complain that the North American Republic is ungrateful to its defenders may here find abundant proof that the disposition to be so is not a plant of recent growth, they will also perceive in the very fact that this volume has been prepared evidence that the spirit of cordial recognition of duty well done is not altogether wanting.

One finds occasionally in a printed book such flowers of rhetoric that the temptation to gather them into a bouquet is almost irresistible. General Williams is spoken of on an early page as "to the Military Academy an Alma Pater," and the delightful anticipation excited by this utterance is not disappointed. General Cullum, however, is so worthy a man that the critic should deal gently with his work. Moreover, it is the business of West Point to prepare men for the *fortiter in re*, and it has acquitted itself of this duty in a way to command admiration and gratitude. So we limit ourselves to a few strictures, beginning with the expression of a doubt whether it be not too bold a figure which the author uses when he declares that "the British trident was trailed in the mire" by Admiral Cockburn in the Chesapeake. It is undoubtedly true, as the writer says, in describing the battle of New Orleans, that "a column of Spartans could not withstand that American rolling fire of musketry and artillery pouring forth its messengers of death," but the form of expression, and the assertion that Colonel Miller, when ordered to carry a British battery near Niagara Falls, "led forward his three hundred Spartans to achieve a new Thermopylæ," may seem to some persons an infelicitous use of classical knowledge. Nor can we commend to the imitation of such American officers as may hereafter write of battles such sentences as this: "For some time the British officers stimulated the courage of their troops to move obliquely on battery seven, opening wide gaps through the column, which were instantly filled with fresh troops to share in turn a like fate." It may be true that "Tecumseh was a potentate uniting the prowess of Achilles and the authority of Agamemnon," but it will require a new Homer and a (shall we say ?) Tecumsiad to cause the dictum to be generally accepted; and it is a shock to our received opinions to be told that "the surrender of Michigan and an army at Detroit was unparalleled by the capitulation of Ulm or Baylen." When we find that Colonel McKee was the Mentor of the Council and the Palinurus of the battle-field, it sets us wondering what were the scenes of carnage in which the pilot won his fame. The phrase, "a Providential miracle," reminds us of that saint or bishop mentioned by Gibbon who mistook a funeral procession for a pagan ceremony, and "imprudently committed a miracle." We will close our citations with one fine burst about Jackson: "In a few hours he vanquished a powerful foe on the field of Chalmette, washed by the mighty Mississippi, Monarch of Waters, and bordered by morasses where, in wild luxuriance, grew the laurel of the victor and the cypress of the vanquished."

But all this is only the pastime of the reviewer, who is much refreshed when a serious book proves to be amusing. Form and style are not everything, but they are something; and when the proof-reader has failed to correct the errors or subdue the fine writing of the author, the critic feels that he has some work to do, and it is well that he should do it with a smile and not with a sneer. The experience of the last thirty years does not seem to indicate that there is a growing disposition to beat swords into plough-shares. It needs much reading to acquire even a superficial acquaintance with the history of the wars which have been

waged since the middle of our century; but we live in an age of collecting, and no collector of military books should fail to procure a copy of this work of General Cullum's. It is not every collector of books who is a *heluo librorum*, but whoever is, and whoever is a student of American history, whether profound or superficial, may, as was intimated earlier, read this book with much profit and some pleasure. To such readers as like a finger-post we will say that the chapters on the siege and defence of Fort Erie, on the Chesapeake campaign of 1813–14, and on the Louisiana campaign of 1814–15, including the battle of New Orleans, are especially to be recommended. We believe them to contain much valuable matter which is not easily to be found elsewhere. The volume ends with a reprint of Colonel Wood's 'Journal of the Northwestern Campaign of 1812–13,' under General Harrison, which is brisk and delightful reading.

Lafontaine, seine Fabeln und ihre Gegner [Lafontaine, his Fables and their Critics]. By Wilhelm Kulpe. (Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich. 1879.)—This book is linked dulness long drawn out; one of the most amazing monuments of dogged industry, misdirected to the concoction and subsequent dilution of insipid commonplaces, which ever found a publisher.

"[In the fable of 'The Wolf and the Mastiff'] Lafontaine means to inculcate this truth: Liberty is the highest good. This idea is one of the most suggestive and delightful ones which can task a poet's pen. Liberty once lost, nothing can take its place—no, not even the sweetest joys of life. Birds have been known to dash their brains out against the wires of their cages; others have died of hunger and left untouched the daintiest tid-bits. There is a proverb which says: It is better to starve in liberty than grow fat in slavery."

Of course a book on Lafontaine must contain a chapter apiece on Lafontaine as Man, as Writer of Fables, as Moralist, and as Philosopher. Philosophizing, however, is our author's forte. Some of his discoveries will be strange to our readers. The descendants of the ancient Gauls, of whom Lafontaine was one, can, even to this day, be distinguished from those of the Franks. Fables certainly rank higher than mythology, one reason being that fables have morals and mythology has not. The bee cannot do otherwise than build its cell with six sides, "its organs, among which the eye, with its hexagonal facets, plays an important part, are incapable of generating other shapes"; and the beaver cannot help building dams, "for that is what his organs are made for." Finally, the author maintains, with great positiveness and an air of honest conviction, that the wolves in Poland never did—King Sobieski to the contrary notwithstanding—make use in war of picket-lines, reserves, and guerilla-corps. This story, he says, is only one more instance of our universal tendency to anthropomorphize brute beasts.

The Rosicrucians: Their Rites and Mysteries. By Hargrave Jennings. (New York: J. W. Bouton. 1879.)—*Ancient Pagan and Modern Christian Symbolism.* By Thomas Inman, M.D. With an essay on Baal Worship, on the Assyrian Sacred Grove, and other Allied Symbols. By John Newton, M.R.C.S.E. (New York: J. W. Bouton. 1880.)—These are revised and enlarged editions of two noteworthy English books, which will be useful to persons interested in the study of symbolism and comparative religion, to numismatists, and, in a less degree, to students of ancient architecture. Mr. Jennings has devoted twenty-eight years to study of the Rosicrucians, and in deprecating acceptance of the ordinary published accounts of the fraternity, either in English or foreign languages, which he has found to be ignorant and prejudiced, and generally drawn from a single source, he has the authority doubtless of an expert. His own work is chiefly a history of the alchemists, with a sympathetic and enthusiastic exposition of the Latin writings of the great English Rosicrucian, Robert Flood, who died in 1637, and is incidentally explanatory of pagan and Christian symbols. The chapters on fire and serpent worship are admirable and elevated, and the defence of the Rosicrucian assumption of power to produce gold and prolong life is curiously ingenious in its air of strictly scientific reasoning. The criticism of Hume seems fully as weak as it need have been, and one feels that Mr. Jennings has become uncritically enamored of his subject when he claims cabalistic expertness for Shakspere, and assumes Pope's "Rape of the Lock" to have been founded upon fanciful hermetic ideas—forgetting that the magic was an afterthought. The style of the book is labored and involved, and the inexperienced reader may find it, consequently, somewhat difficult of comprehension at times.

Dr. Inman's volume is condensed from his larger work, 'Ancient Faiths Embodied in Ancient Names,' and contains mainly explanations of ancient symbols, the great number of which and the limits he has imposed upon himself render the account of each necessarily brief. The book is intended principally as an introduction to the general subject treated; and the opening essay by the author, in which he says, by the way, that this knowledge has been long possessed by all but English scholars, is sufficient for an intelligent appreciation of the numerous plates and their explanations which follow. The closing essay by Mr. Newton is an excellent addition, and imparts to the whole the spiritual flavor which in such a work is so valuable, and which would otherwise have been lacking here. The two books, taken together, disclose the meaning of the numerous symbols with whose exoteric meaning we are so familiar that we do not so much as think of a possible esoteric significance, and the mystic, sacred, occult, or cabalistic doctrines of which these symbols have been the type. The reflective will also find them fruitful of suggestions and inferences concerning subjects whose importance by no means decreases as it comes to be seen that the ordinary view of them is superficial and perfunctory.

Random Shots. By Max Adeler. With many Illustrations, by Arthur B. Frost. (Philadelphia: J. M. Stoddart & Co. 1879.)—Max Adeler is a humorist whose previous books have, we believe, met with a good deal of success. 'Random Shots,' however, seems unlikely to find much popular favor, even with the "lovers of honest fun," to whom the author devotes it in his preface. Though humor never dies, and is always reappearing in some new form and unexpected place, we doubt very much whether that school of humor which Artemas Ward founded, and but for the existence of which Max Adeler would probably never have been heard of (though it must not be supposed from this that the connection between the two is at all close), has not exhausted itself. The work is still handed down from the "funny man" of one newspaper to the "funny man" of another, but it burns dimly, and at times threatens to go out altogether. They are a curious group of jesters altogether, the "funny men" of the United States of the last twenty-five years: A. Ward, Mark Twain, Josh Billings, the *Danbury News* Man, and their fellows. With the exception of the fact that they write instead of talking, and dispose of their stock in trade to the best commercial advantage like other producers, they resemble not a little the professional "fools" of the Middle Ages. Their fooling is done for the benefit of the public instead of an individual, but they answer about the same purpose in the comedy of life that the "funny men" who wore motley did in more primitive times. Sometimes, in those earlier times, they became too serious for their employers' taste, and in that case were often visited with summary chastisement. The only person who can, in the interest of the employing public, castigate the modern "funny man" when he ceases to be amusing, is the critic; and we must accordingly remind the author of 'Random Shots' that the public is a fickle master, and that he must be funny or seek some other employment.

Placita Anglo-Normannica. Law Cases from William I. to Richard I., preserved in historical records. By Melville Madison Bigelow, author of 'A Treatise on the Law of Estoppel,' 'Leading Cases on Torts, with Historical Notes,' etc. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 328.)—The historical study of law, which has received so strong an impetus of late, in this country no less than in England, has borne worthy fruit, as well as provided itself with a store of valuable material, in Mr. Bigelow's collection of law cases of the Anglo-Norman period. The collection is practically complete for temporal cases, containing also a few ecclesiastical ones; only some spurious or imperfect cases have been omitted, and the collection has been brought down through the first half of Richard's reign, "so as to make connection with the Rotuli Curiæ Regis." There is an Introduction of 37 pages, an Appendix of 34 pages, a Glossary, an Index, and an Index of Cases. The object of the collection is legal rather than historical, or rather, it is designed to assist in the study of the history of law rather than general history. How valuable it must be for its main object it is easy to see. The introduction sums up briefly its principal results, and the author hopes to publish within a year a history of the Anglo-Norman procedure, for which the present work is in the main a preparation. The points specially treated in the Introduction are, first, the relation of Anglo-Norman procedure to the primitive German law, and, in especial, the continuance, in this period, of the four "forms of proof in use among the Anglo-Saxons—by ordeal, oath, witnesses, and charters"; then the discussion of the

peculiarly Norman type of evidence, the *inquisition* and *recognition*, with which is joined a sketch of the history of writs at this period.

It will be seen that, although the interest of the book is principally legal, it has at the same time great value for the student of constitutional and general history. This is especially the case at the close of the Introduction, where the author takes up the subject of the various royal courts and their relation to one another, passing over, however, the *popular* courts of the county, hundred, etc., without discussion. It is to be hoped that the anticipated volume will help us to an understanding of the relation of the two sets of courts—the instrumentality and method by which the entire legal procedure of the country was woven into one harmonious system; a feature in which, as much as in any, we find English institutions of the middle ages contrasted with those of France. We also have incidentally (p. xli.) a highly important paragraph upon the existence of military tenures in the reign of the Conqueror. It will be remembered that Mr. Freeman, relying upon Domesday Book, denies that there is any clear evidence of these tenures at this period. Mr. Bigelow, however, proves their existence completely by citing several cases in which Domesday speaks of land as simply "held" by such a one, while the Abingdon Chronicle speaks of the very same estate as being held by knight's tenure. This volume forms, in one sense, a continuation to Mr. Adams's Essay on Anglo-Saxon Law; for the appendix of that volume contains a complete collection of Anglo-Saxon cases.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 6, 1879.

The Week.

THE Republicans have achieved triumphs of considerable importance in seven out of the eleven States in which elections took place yesterday. We except New York, which to all intents and purposes has gone Democratic. There is at this writing great difference of opinion among all the counters of the daily papers as to the exact figures of the majorities, but there is no reason to doubt that the Democrats have carried their whole State ticket except Governor Robinson, which means that if they had put some one else—Mr. Clarkson Potter, for instance—in the first place, he would have been elected. Robinson has been defeated by the Kelly bolt, which produced an unexpectedly large vote in this city, but the precise amount of which it is impossible to learn before going to press. The defeat of Robinson substantially puts Tilden out of the Presidential field, which for reasons we have given elsewhere is not a piece of good fortune for the Republican Stalwarts. On the other hand, it is a triumph for nobody (besides Kelly) except Senator Conkling, who may well feel gratified by it. Of course he could not have achieved it without the aid of the Democratic split, or, in other words, it is partly due to good luck; but in a career like his good luck is not distinguishable from skill.

He has, in fact, successfully availed himself of a good opportunity to put into the highest State office a personal adherent whom nobody but himself thought fit for it, and whom the Administration had insulted him by dismissing from a subordinate place in the Custom-house. This is much, but not all. He has brought to New York his two principal enemies in the Cabinet, for whom he has never concealed his contempt, Messrs. Evarts and Sherman, to speak for his nominee and their dismissed servant, and, in speaking, to throw overboard all the principles for which the Administration has hitherto stood, or has been supposed to stand, to repudiate civil-service reform, wave the "bloody shirt," and even call for "a strong man" in the Presidency. He has accomplished this, too, without taking any part in the canvass himself beyond making one speech to a select audience in Brooklyn, where he gave the finishing touch to his performance by producing Mr. Henry Ward Beecher to denounce "scratching" and receive from him a public embrace. He, however, leaves New York in the list of doubtful States for next year, so that he will not go to the convention with the easy assurance which he might have displayed if his entire ticket had been elected.

The Scratchers' Committee are about to place the results of their work before the public in a formal shape. They announce now, however, as what "they think they know," as the Organ says, that but for the Kelly vote Cornell would have been defeated by 20,000 majority; that he was behind his ticket by 4,000 in New York City, 2,500 in Brooklyn, and about 10,000 in the State, and that many Scratchers' votes have been covered up by votes cast for Cornell by the Tammany faction. We hope they will continue to stick to the Organ's "bark" during the winter and keep the Old Man awake and lively.

In Massachusetts, which comes next in importance after New York, Butler has been again defeated, but has on the whole held his own from last year better than his opponents. Last year, Talbot, the Governor on the Republican ticket, had 134,725, and Butler 110,000. This year Long gets 121,204, and Butler 108,237. Adams, the regular Democratic candidate, gets a trifle less than Abbott, his predecessor, or under 10,000. This is not a very brilliant victory considering what a "bad man" Butler has been discovered to be, and some Democrats are apparently trying to believe that if they had nominated some one else they would have carried the State. But there is no doubt that Massachusetts would in any national election prove a thoroughly Republican State, and just as little that Butler's "badness" gets him thousands of votes which a respectable man could not bring out. He owed a great deal of his strength to dissatisfaction with the set of men who have managed the Republican party in the State for some years, and whom many people have got into the way of hating because they give such glowing accounts of their own virtue. He owed more to the desire of a change of some sort, and not a little to the desire of the "boys" to have the fun of seeing "Ben" sitting cheek by jowl with the Harvard Professors and other stuck-up people who have been in the habit of looking down on him. He will now probably run for Congress again, and as likely as not, on the "bloody-shirt" issue, or he may come out as the champion of "State Rights" or a "Solid South."

Of the other States, Mississippi and Maryland gave Democratic majorities, the election in the former State having been a "quiet" one, as the Republican press sarcastically announces, and that in Maryland, according to the same authority, having been attended by Democratic slaughter of negroes at the polls, which would certainly be pushing this practice impudently near the Solid North. In Virginia the anti-Repudiationists appear to have met with their expected success. Minnesota gives a Republican majority of 10,000 in spite of reported vigorous scratching. Wisconsin, which the Democrats hoped at least to make "doubtful for 1880," gives the largest Republican majority since the last Grant campaign. Nebraska is, of course, Republican. The Republican majority in Pennsylvania is estimated at 50,000, which is unexpectedly large. The "doubtful States" of Connecticut and New Jersey went with the tide and increase the present Republican majorities in their legislatures. A number of the members of these hold over and will vote for United States Senators, so that the seats of Senators Eaton and Randolph will probably be lost to the Democrats. The Mississippi legislature just chosen will partly counterbalance this by electing a Democrat to Bruce's seat. It should be remembered that only in New York, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Maryland were governors voted for, and in several States much "apathy" is reported.

Kelly sacrificed the Robinson men and disappointed his followers by his vote in the city, which is apparently some fifteen or twenty thousand behind Robinson's and about the same as Cornell's. There was so much scratching done that the count proceeded with unexampled slowness, and at this writing it is not certain what local officers are elected. It appears tolerably clear, however, that Tammany has been thoroughly worsted, every effort having been made by Kelly to elect Gumbleton, who is probably very badly defeated. The Robinson county ticket is probably in the main successful, even Judge Miles Beach's election being at present conceded by the Republicans, who supported Mr. Root very vigorously. The Republican candidate for Sheriff is possibly elected, but this seems the only likely exception. So decided a success of the Anti-Tammany Democrats, who have of recent years been invariably obliged to depend upon a coalition with the Republicans, ought either to give Tammany its quietus or reduce it to subordination. It surrendered its regularity at Syracuse, and has now lost the voting strength upon which it then fell back.

Nobody has suffered so much in the contest as the Administration. No one, so far as we know, ventures to defend the performances of Messrs. Evarts and Sherman. Mr. Sherman went about the country stumping with Dutcher, the Appraiser, to whom he

had granted leave of absence for the purpose. The following is not pleasant reading:

Extract from President Hayes's Inaugural Address, March 5, 1877.

"I ask the attention of the public to the *paramount necessity of reform in our civil service*, a reform not merely as to certain abuses and practices of so-called official patronage, which have come to have the sanction of usage in the several departments of our Government, but a change in the system of appointment itself; a reform that shall be thorough, radical, and complete; a return to the principles and practices of the founders of the Government. They neither expected nor desired from public officers any partisan service."

President Hayes's Executive Circular, dated June 22, 1877.

"SIR: I desire to call your attention to the following paragraph in a letter addressed by me to the Secretary of the Treasury on the conduct to be observed by officers of the general Government in relation to the elections:

"'No officer should be required or permitted to take part in the management of political organizations, caucuses, conventions, or election campaigns. Their right to vote and to express their views on public questions, either orally or through the press, is not denied, provided it *does not interfere with the discharge of their official duties.* No assessment for political purposes on officers or subordinates should be allowed.'

"This rule is applicable to every department of the civil service. It should be understood by every officer of the general Government that he is expected to conform his conduct to its requirements.

"Very respectfully, R. B. HAYES."

Mr. Sherman to Appraiser Dutcher.

"SIR: Your application for leave of absence is hereby granted. I cordially approve of your taking part in the Cornell and Hoskins campaign, and will do all in my power to favor their election. I have no objections to the Government employees making contributions to the fund. Your suggestion that I should take part in the campaign by speaking in several of the prominent cities in your State I will answer at some future time.

"Yours respectfully, JOHN SHERMAN."

The local campaign in Brooklyn was enlivened by the appearance of several of Mr. Beecher's flock in the unexpected rôle of "youthful Scratchers." It is by no means clear that Mr. Beecher himself did not scratch. At all events, he was either unwilling or unable to prevent the Plymouth-Republican organ from openly hinting at the wisdom of scratching the Republican candidate for Mayor, and he permitted Mr. Shearman, whom a word from him could beyond question have calmed, to make animated speeches and write letters to the *Eagle* in favor of the same impertinent and youthful practice. He furthermore wrote to the *Eagle* himself, intimating that if he had to write over again a letter he wrote in 1873, expressing his "profound sense of the honor and integrity" of Mr. Woodruff, the candidate in question, he should write it very differently, and that even when he wrote that letter he "had no personal knowledge of the facts in the controversy." The controversy referred to was between the Treasury Department and the firm of Woodruff & Robinson, and Mr. Shearman made it one of the counts in his indictment of Woodruff upon the stump and in the press that the firm, being accused of defrauding the revenue in 1873, "paid $50,000 to hush up the charge." What he had most at heart, however, was evidently the fact that Woodruff was a witness for Tilton in the scandal trial, and was said to have threatened to "drive Mr. Beecher out of Brooklyn."

Brooklyn politics are peculiar, and no one need be surprised that a Brooklyn election should in a measure turn upon some private-public feud or other, but what we should like to know from Mr. Beecher is, on what ground he justifies the scratching of Woodruff by the young Plymouth Scratchers? The fact that he now doubts Woodruff's integrity is irrelevant; was not Woodruff regularly nominated by the indispensable Machine? and should not all opposition to regularity and all expression of personal preference cease after the primaries are held? Why should he have allowed Mr. Shearman to scratch the "slight efflorescence" on his skin produced by personal disregard for the regular nominee, instead of advising him to "accept, as that which is the best attainable, organization and body and candidates"? Are we to assume that only private reasons justify scratching, or that it is only when national issues are involved that we are to "stand in the line" and not "attempt to overrule those who have taken those pains and have done this work"?

The Organ appeared, just before the election, in a third and new character, that of a Sympathetic Friend, who loved reform as much as anybody, and saw its beauties, but had to give up fighting for it and tear himself away from its supporters from a stern sense of duty, being alarmed by "the Solid South." This, he says with tears in his eyes, is what keeps him to his lonely boating along the "shores of what he hopes he has learned." He intimates that some day he will be a reformer again, but declines to fix any date or to say in what particular year it will be safe to reform anything whatever. Just now he thinks that any countenance to civil-service reform in this State might produce the most horrid excesses in Mississippi and Louisiana, and he doesn't want to have innocent blood on his hands.

We said last week that in the beginning "Stalwartism made *all* voting at the South, and, in fact, the preservation of the peace at the South, matter of Federal concern." The *Press* of Philadelphia denies the correctness of this, with much vituperation, and challenges us to "name a single authoritative Republican declaration, or a single declaration of a prominent Republican, to the effect that the United States had a right to be present by its officers at a purely State election, either for the preservation of peace or the protection of the ballot-box." By employing a boy to run over the files of the last seven years we might fill a volume with such declarations. Two, issued only last year, occur to us at once. The Illinois Republican platform of June, 1878, called for the "permanent pacification" of the Southern States, and the "complete protection" of "*all* citizens in *all* their *civil, political,* and property rights" by the Federal Government. The Iowa Republican platform of the same month and year declared that the Republican party stands pledged, through the recent amendments of the Constitution of the United States, "to the complete protection of all citizens in *all* their *civil, political,* personal, and property rights." Moreover, the New York *Tribune*, differing from Mr. Sherman, declares (Nov. 5) "that the doctrine that it is none of our business what they (the Democrats) do inside of their own States, how they set up and overturn administrations, how they manage elections and count votes, *is a treasonable principle* not to be tolerated for a day." It would be well if the Stalwarts would come to some agreement about the meaning of "State Rights." We are not surprised that some Stalwarts should now wish to withdraw from this extreme position, as Mr. Sherman is doing, but they must not curse or call names and make a disturbance when any one draws attention to their retreat.

The Stalwarts have sustained a severe blow in the death of Senator Chandler of Michigan, which occurred very suddenly this week. If it had occurred a year ago the course of honest money among the Republicans would also have suffered considerably, for he was one of the very few prominent Republican politicians who never wavered or went astray about either paper money or silver. This some people have ascribed to the fact that he was a successful business man, but then some of the worst inflationists have been successful business men. It was due more probably to natural shrewdness. He entered the Senate just as the anti-slavery struggle was becoming hot, and was one of the first to meet Southern violence with violence. His politics, when the war was over, had become wholly combative and denunciatory. He was always hurling defiance at either England or the South, and apparently had no more taste for the conciliatory treatment of sedition and discontent than an Austrian archduke. Up to his appointment as Secretary of the Interior by General Grant he had little political reputation beyond that of a fierce partisan, but he took the Department in a corrupt and disorderly state from Mr. Delano, and performed in it a most praiseworthy work of purification. He was personally very

honest, and had little toleration for any gross form of corruption. The most notable part of his career was his Chairmanship of the Republican Committee during the last Presidential campaign, when he rendered the party a service, which none of the Republican papers now seem willing to acknowledge, in refusing to be cast down by "the face of the returns" on the morning after election. Everybody but he had apparently forgotten "the judicial functions" of the Returning Boards, and when he telegraphed to his agents to hold on to everything and wait for help, it was a stroke like that of Nelson at Copenhagen, when he put the glass to his blind eye and failed to see the signal of recall.

General Adams has telegraphed Secretary Schurz that he is confident of the success of his mission to the Utes, and will secure the unconditional surrender of the murderers of Agent Meeker and his associates and of those who were foremost in the attack upon Thornburgh's command. He had a long consultation on the 26th ult. with the White River Utes, who are willing that the guilty Indians be surrendered and punished. The main obstacle in the way of this is the possible inability of Ouray to compel the surrender, but General Adams has no fears on that score, and recommended the appointment of a commission of three, one to be a military officer, to make an investigation and determine the punishment to be imposed. Secretary Schurz had already telegraphed him instructions to this precise effect, and had designated General Hatch, Chief Ouray, and General Adams himself members of the commission. On receipt of these orders Ouray sent the White River Utes to Uncompahgre, where the murders will be investigated, and General Adams set out for Denver to take the testimony of the Meekers and of Mrs. Price. The commission will be ready to begin its work Saturday. If this plan should prove unsuccessful, General Sherman understands, as he telegraphed General Sheridan on the 24th ult., "that the civil authorities will stand aside and the military will take absolute control of this whole Ute question and settle it for good and all."

General Sherman discusses "this whole Ute question" very fully in his annual report to the Secretary of War, completed Monday. He gives a history of the Ute tribe and says it is composed of "the worst class" of Indians, who as long as game lasts will not work or attempt farming "except in the smallest and most ridiculous way, and that only by compulsion." He recounts the story of the recent troubles, and says that both Major Thornburgh and Agent Meeker "acted from beginning to end exactly right." Preparations are now made for every emergency, for, although the General "applauds the courage and energy thus far displayed by General Adams," he thinks extreme watchfulness demanded by prudence. The remainder of the report approves the recommendations of General Terry in the North and General Ord in the South for new posts, and General Schofield's suggestion that a number of cadets be educated at West Point each year for the militia of the United States.

Foreign specie continues to flow into the country, and the receipts during the week have raised the grand total since the resumption of specie payments to $61,479,907, of which $55,300,994 have arrived within the last three months. Notwithstanding this enormous accession to the currency, speculation has advanced prices of securities, shares, and merchandise, so that the New York money market has been for the week very stringent, as high as ⅜ of 1 per cent. per day having been paid for loans, in addition to 7 per cent. per annum. A short time before the first day of November the money market is always active, and sometimes stringent. This year, in addition to ordinary influences and to a rampant speculation, the Comptroller of the Currency selected the last week in October as a fit time to enforce a law which has been as dead as the usury law; and for a day or two his action bade fair to cause a panic, which would have affected speculators variously but would have had a bad effect on mercantile business. The law referred to is that which forbids check certification beyond the amount in bank on deposit at the moment to the credit of the drawer of the check. This law has stood on the books for many years, and it was known to every one having any acquaintance with banking affairs (including the Comptroller himself) that it was not obeyed. The sudden action of the Comptroller disturbed the money market and added to the stringency of loans for a few days, but it had but slight effect on the volume of business either at the Stock Exchange or the Clearing-house. The Secretary of the Treasury, on the other hand, surprised "the Street" by giving notice that he would receive proposals for the sale to the Government of $10,000,000 of United States 6 per cent. bonds for the Sinking Fund. This action was known on Saturday to a few, and to the public at large on Monday. If the bonds are bought $10,000,000 currency will be let loose from the Treasury, and this will more than repay the stock brokers for the bad treatment which they charge on the Comptroller of the Currency. The Stock Exchange markets were active, and as the result of the week's fluctuations prices advanced. The public debt was reduced $10,352,996 during the week. The price of silver advanced in London to 53¾*d.* per ounce, and closed at 53⅛*d.* The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close was $0.9010.

The signs that the Austro-German alliance is not to be purely defensive and peaceable seem to multiply. The London *Standard*, which is usually a well-informed paper, has a despatch from Berlin announcing that Prince Bismarck had asked to have 20,000 Russian cavalry now manœuvring in Poland withdrawn from the German border, which sounds like him. He began the quarrel with Austria just in this way, by asking what these military preparations meant, and refusing to accept a denial of their existence. The press on both sides keeps up the war of words vigorously, and Russia seems to be really uneasy. It is difficult to guess what he is aiming at, but the probabilities are that he aspires to settle the Eastern Question out of hand before he leaves the scene. He could hardly settle on anything worthier of his ambition, for it is four hundred years old, and has foiled many generations of statesmen.

His proposed tariff convention with Austria, which would bring 70,000,000 within the same Customs Union, has drawn out from a French economist, M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the proposal that the Latin nations—that is, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy—should enter into a similar one, which would include about the same amount of population. That things are tending rapidly in this direction all over Europe there is no doubt. The great truth that political lines do not affect the profitableness of trade makes its way, though slowly, in spite of all obstacles, and the recent consolidations and annexations have done much to help it. It cannot, people see, make any difference, as far as money-making is concerned, whether the people you buy of or sell to in Alsace live under the French Republic or the German Empire; or in Naples, under King Bomba or King Humbert. Money is money, goods are goods, and cost is cost, no matter what flag waves over them. The area covered by free-trade in America is now vast and growing, and it will probably cover at least half the European continent in our day.

It would seem as if a crisis of some sort, and a more serious one than any which have yet occurred, must be impending at Constantinople, owing to the want of money. The pay of the troops is so much in arrear, and the supply of food and clothing is so scanty that the approach of the cold weather promises to bring about either mutiny or disbandment with attendant robbery. The Government is just now existing on small call loans, raised from the Galata bankers, and the customs duties are largely pledged as security for previous advances. The British Minister, too, seems at last to be getting out of patience about the reforms in Asia Minor, and the fleet has been moved up towards the Dardanelles in a threatening manner, and Mr. Cross, also, has avowed, on behalf of the Ministry, his belief in the atrocious badness of the Turkish Government, and his unwillingness to raise a finger in its defence. The probabilities are that the more the Austro-German Alliance becomes confirmed the more imperious the tone of England towards her Turkish protégé will become.

SOME POST-ELECTION REFLECTIONS.

THE result of the State election is unknown at this writing, but there are certain remoter consequences of the struggle which can be discussed with profit even now. Whether it be true or not that Governor Robinson is Tilden's instrument or agent, it is quite certain that the Tilden machinery has worked for him zealously, and that his defeat would be taken, and justly taken, as an indication that in all probability Tilden could not carry his own State in the Presidential election, and would thus loosen, or greatly weaken, his hold on the convention. In fact, it would make it almost certain that somebody else would get the nomination, and the Ohio election seems to have made it certain that this somebody would be neither Thurman nor Hendricks nor anybody else who had been prominently associated with the Greenback movement. It might even drive the Democrats into the nomination of some hard-money man of high character, and this, it must be admitted, would be a somewhat unfortunate thing for the Republicans; for nothing has of late done so much to brighten their prospects in 1880 as the apparent strength of the Tilden Machine. He has been so much discredited in all sorts of ways during the last two years that it was of very great importance to the Republicans, and especially to the Stalwarts, that he should retain his strength as a Democratic candidate. It would enable the Republican managers to follow their own tastes and prejudices, to carry out their own bargains at the convention much more freely than they would venture to do if Bayard or Hancock, or some such person, were put into the field against them. So that if Robinson be defeated, and Cornell elected by a handsome majority—for this purpose the handsomer the better—the reform element in the Republican party will have something to be thankful for. It will probably give them a better choice of candidates next year than seemed at all likely, even very recently.

Should Cornell's election, on the other hand, threaten to send Senator Conkling to the convention with the air of having the votes of New York at his command, it will probably give greater strength and cohesiveness to the Independents than they have been able to boast since they elected Mr. Hayes to reform the civil service. This open demonstration of Mr. Conkling's power and unscrupulousness has probably opened the eyes of a great many who could not previously see why he was so grumbled against, but who have been too much taken by surprise, or have considered the national bearing of the election too important, to offer on the present occasion any resistance. But these persons, we take it for granted, would not relish seeing New York represented at the convention by Conkling and Cornell, and do not really believe in the methods of these statesmen, and will during the next six months do what they can to prevent the support they have been now compelled to give the Machine from working further mischief. To this class we beg to offer a few considerations which we think will bear turning over during the winter. They are these:

If you are greatly troubled by the "Solid South" and its power in Congress, the first step towards a remedy is an examination of the causes which have given the South its present majority in Congress. You will admit that the Brigadiers did not seize the majority of the seats by force, and that the South itself could not send a majority of the Representatives or Senators to Congress, and that if it now controls the legislative branch of the Government, it controls it through the alliance of members sent from the North. Now, these members, which have given it its majority, were sent from the North in 1874 and 1876, and for the most part fill places which had for ten or fifteen years previously been occupied by Republicans. How did these Republicans come to be displaced by Northern constituencies, and forced to make way for Democrats? This is a very important question, because in the answer to it is to be found our best guide in deciding what is to be done now to get back the control of the Government to Republican hands. Why was it that Republicans in 1874 and 1876 refused to vote for Republican candidates, and thus gave the Brigadiers the opportunity to commit their late excesses? It was not because there was no "strong man" in the White House, for General Grant was President. It was not because the advice of leading Stalwart statesmen was not taken, for the late Mr. Chandler was Secretary of the Interior, and he and Senators Conkling and Morton were the principal counsellors of the Administration, and an effective control was still exercised over the Southern States through the troops. Moreover, the State government of the cotton States was in the hands of the local Republicans, and murders and disorders were of much more frequent occurrence at the South than they are now. What was it, then, which lost to the Republicans the great States of New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Illinois, and others? A plain answer to this will furnish every man with a list of both the things which the Republican party ought now to avoid, and which it ought to do in order to regain power. The problem is almost like a medical one. When a robust man falls suddenly sick the very best aid in restoring his health is a knowledge of the kind of life he was leading when he broke down.

We do not propose to answer this question to-day ourselves. It would probably wear in our pages the appearance of a piece of invective, and make comparatively little impression. The enquiry will be a great deal more useful if every honest man makes it for himself. It will not be laborious. The facts are of recent occurrence and of great notoriety. The newspaper files from 1870 to 1876 are full of them. Every one who voted during those years remembers them or can readily recall them.

Secondly, you must bear in mind that you cannot with effect, or even with decency, go into the campaign of 1878 with the two murders and one assault on which you have largely conducted the canvass which has just closed. The Chisholm murder occurred in 1877, and you used it in the elections of last year. You have now used it again, and came very near having to use it alone. The Dixon murder—a poor one at best, in which one bulldozing ruffian and gambler killed another—came to you in the nick of time, and so did the assault on the postmaster at Blackville. You must remember that in the late canvass you threw overboard every Republican doctrine or argument except distrust of the South. You got rid completely of civil-service reform, and you said nothing, or next to nothing, about the enormous volume of notes which the Government has still outstanding, or about the pile of silver coin which is accumulating in the vaults of the Treasury, and which possesses so much explosive power. You were silent, too, about State affairs. You fell back, in fact, almost completely on Southern lawlessness, and the danger now is that you will have to go into the Presidential canvass with the weapons you have used in this one.

But you cannot go into a Presidential canvass, or even go to the convention, and draw up the platform on Stalwart principles, with nothing but two old, and indeed one might say second-hand, murders. You will, therefore, need fresh ones during the coming winter, and two murders collected over an area as wide as the South and from a perturbed and semi-barbarous community will not be enough, even when dressed up with the best rhetoric at your command. You must have at least a dozen to support the dreadful picture you now draw of Southern society. The danger of this state of things is that your dependence on murders for your campaign ammunition, and your dislike to taking up anything else, will during the winter lead you first to welcome them, and then, by a process with which human nature is only too familiar, to desire them as necessary to the salvation of the party. That this wretched condition of mind ought to be guarded against all or most of you will admit, and it can only be guarded against by such utterances between now and next June as will satisfy the party managers that the game which has just been so successful within the party in this State cannot be played over again in the larger field.

A NEW FIELD FOR LECTURES.

AN interesting question is opened for discussion by the letter of "A. S. I." in last week's *Nation*, suggesting systematic courses of lectures. Such courses have long existed in other large cities. Our correspondent mentions the Humboldt Academy in Berlin. Another case in point is the Royal Institution of London, where

Faraday delivered his celebrated lectures on chemistry, but which by no means restricts itself to the physical sciences. Mr. Matthew Arnold's charming essay on "Equality," published in his recent volume of 'Mixed Essays,' was a lecture delivered before the Royal Institution. Manchester (in England) has a similar institution, where, some years ago, a most excellent course of lectures was delivered by distinguished men of science. Many of our readers probably know the pretty series of volumes of the Dublin "Afternoon Lectures on Literature and Art," most of which are well worth perusal.

There is really no reason why something similar and just as good should not be established in New York. It is true that the ordinary American lecture of commerce has never been in demand in our city, which is greatly to our credit. The average New-Yorker generally knows what he wants, and knows where to get it. If he wants to be entertained and amused, he has the theatres; if he wants to be instructed, he is well aware that he will fail of his object and waste his time by listening to one of the regular lyceum orators. All he will get is a compilation from sources accessible to every even half-educated person, interspersed with attempts at pleasantry. But if he is offered anything that is really of substantial value he will not be slow to appreciate it. He will listen with respectful attention to any one who knows what he is talking about and who only talks about what he knows. Tyndall and Huxley did not lack for hearers, and a fair patronage was extended to the German literary course of Bayard Taylor. A striking and familiar example of what can be done by one who has the courage to educate the market up to his wares instead of bringing down his wares to the level of the market is afforded by the great advance in the musical culture of New York effected within a few years, and in great part due to the single-minded and persistent efforts of Mr. Theodore Thomas. What has been done in the matter of music ought to be worth trying in literature and science. Schlegel's celebrated lectures on literature and philosophy were delivered before fashionable audiences in Vienna between 1810 and 1830; is it too much to assume that the intellectual digestion of New York is at least as robust as was that of the Austrian capital half a century ago? We think there is a perceptibly growing distaste in the public mind for rant and clap-trap, and a correspondingly increased desire for what is solid and genuine and honest.

That a great field of usefulness is open for such a course of lectures as "A. S. I." proposes hardly admits of a doubt. One great defect of American life is the severance between the educational period and the practical period. A young man on leaving college has no incentive and no encouragement to continue his education. The pressure is all the other way. He plunges at once into a crowd where every man elbows his neighbor out of the way, and where a suspicion is often forced upon him that the time he spent in getting his education is a greater loss to him than the education itself is a benefit. If the educated classes exert so little influence on public affairs, it is partly because they have not maintained their own place. Just as it has been said that an English statesman would become an object of suspicion and forfeit the confidence of the people if it were supposed that he could speak French faultlessly, it seems to have become a tradition that an American politician who is so unfortunate as to be a college graduate must conceal that accident as carefully as possible. How successfully this can be done is shown in the case of the late Senator Chandler, whom nobody suspected to be an educated man; but, as soon as he was dead, his friends announced it. After all, this is not so strange as it seems. A man who ceases to study when he leaves college will in a very few years sink to the level of his surroundings, and perhaps even below it; for what little he has learned may be just enough to close his mind to those sources of knowledge that men who are wholly self-educated are so ready to make the most of. It is a truism that no one is entitled to be called a man of education who is not continually adding to his stores of knowledge and constantly exercising his powers of reflection and reasoning—in other words, that education must continue through life. It is the habit of doing this that makes the public and intellectual life of England so rich and imposing. Mr. Karl Hillebrand, in his article in the October *Nineteenth Century*, says: "England is the only country where people read—where they read instructive books, I mean, not only novels. . . . The English alone find the leisure and the humor to read works of a general but serious character. . . . The leisure, coexisting with hard work, and the noble use made of leisure, are perhaps the most remarkable results of the enormous wealth which first strikes the eye of the foreigner in England."

Is it quite hopeless to introduce such a fashion among ourselves? That the American people already buy a great many books, whether they read them or not, is a notorious fact. Perhaps what they most need in this matter is some organized stimulus to mental exertion, and a systematic course of lectures might well serve such a purpose. From time to time courses of lectures are delivered in New York, but the subject is generally a matter of accident. If a celebrated astronomer happens to be here, we have a course on astronomy; if the visitor is a chemist, we have chemistry, and so on. Of course this is better than nothing, but it is not just the right thing. There is also a very good series of lectures every winter at the Cooper Union, but they do not form a connected whole.

What we ought to have is a series of courses of lectures treating scientific, historical, and literary questions in a serious, systematic, and exhaustive manner, requiring and inciting to study on the part of the audience, and capable of affording intellectual nourishment. A beginning could be made with such subjects as at once possess the greatest interest for the greatest number, and are of the greatest practical importance. We refer more particularly to political economy, financial topics, tariff and currency legislation, the constitutional and political history of the United States. These are matters of which even many educated men know but little, but of which it is essential to our national well-being that as many people as possible should know as much as possible, and of which everybody is anxious to know something.

We have among us many men who have already achieved distinction as writers and speakers on such subjects as the revenue, and currency, and wages, and the proper sphere of government, and American and European history. Along with the treatment of these graver subjects there should be courses on English and other modern literatures and language—the new "humanities"—not mere journey-work, but something conceived in the spirit and executed after the fashion of Hettner's work on the 'Literature of the Eighteenth Century,' or Rosenkranz's Diderot, or Morley's Burke, or Leslie Stephen's 'Hours in a Library,' or Matthew Arnold's Wordsworth and Milton and Heine. It is a suggestive fact that one of the most successful courses of lectures of last season in London was delivered by Mr. John Fiske, of Cambridge, Mass., on American history.

There is probably no city in the world of its size and wealth in which so little is done to stimulate and foster intellectual life as New York, or in which the class which can be called intellectual in its training, tastes, and habits takes so little pains to make its existence known, or to stimulate or encourage intellectual workers. There are rich libraries and fine collections of pictures and many able and successful solitary students, but there is little or no co-operation or interchange of sympathy or help among educated men, nor do they offer the best they have to the public in a shape that makes it easily accessible or very attractive. Such a scheme as we have sketched out here, if put in operation, might do a great deal to stimulate intellectual tastes and interests, and redeem New York from the reproach so often cast upon it, of over-absorption in material pursuits and indifference to all standards of value but the money standard.

It will probably suggest itself to some that the colleges should start it, but there are various objections to this, which we have not space to enumerate here. Not the least is the public fear that a professional teacher is not likely to be fresh.

LORD DERBY AND THE LIBERAL PARTY.

LONDON, October 18, 1879.

THE most important, or at any rate the most interesting, event in the party politics of England is the passage of Lord Derby from the Conservative to the Liberal side. This secession from his old colleagues and their friends has long been foreshadowed. It was intimated by the position which Lord Derby took in the House of Lords on quitting the Government. It is usual with members of either House who leave a cabinet in which they have held a place, through disagreement on a particular question without rupture of their general political connection and convictions, to remain sitting on the ministerial side of the House. In the Commons they take their place on the fourth bench above and behind ministers, which is usually reserved for "right honorables" out of office, while the party to which they belong is in power. Here Sir James Graham sat when, with reference to his almost giant stature and his patronage of Lord John Russell, Mr. Bernal Osborne described him as "the sweet little cherub that sits up aloft to keep watch o'er the life of poor Jack." Hither Lord John Russell himself retired during his temporary alienation from Lord Palmerston and his Government, using the elevation as a post of vantage from which to rain down missiles on his old colleagues rather than as a point from which to throw his shield over them. Here, with varied feelings, sat the old Whigs omitted from Mr. Gladstone's government—Sir George Grey, who declined office and who gave his old friends cordial help; Mr. Charles Villiers and Mr. Edward Bouverie, who were not asked to take office and who avenged themselves in their several fashions—the former by the airy malice of his incessant talk and ubiquitous social disparagement, the latter by vexatious parliamentary criticism, of which he has paid the penalty in exclusion from Parliament.

In the House of Lords a statesman of the first rank, not choosing to take office with his party, on quitting it usually places himself on the same side of the House with them, but below the gangway, as the passage is called which leads from the floor of the House to the benches rising one above the other. Earl Russell sat here while Lord Granville led the House during Mr. Gladstone's administration. Here Lord Carnarvon took up his post when, in January last year, he resigned the Secretaryship of State for the Colonies. It was noticed that when, two months later, Lord Derby followed his example in quitting office he did not take up a similar parliamentary position. The fact that he had resigned was, it is true, indicated by the discovery, on a certain evening late in March, that, instead of being seated with his colleagues on the front Ministerial bench, he was side by side with Lord Carnarvon on the first bench below the gangway. The news "Lord Derby is out" spread into the Commons, and there was a rush of the members of that House from their own chamber into the places reserved for them in the Lords. From this position he made his explanatory statement. But in the course of a day or two he quitted his seat for what are known as the cross-benches. These are seats which run across the House of Lords at its lower end, fronting the throne, at right angles to the long rows of benches on which Ministers and Opposition front each other. Peers who stand aloof from party ties, either on grounds of social necessity and decorum, as in the case of members of the royal family who have been "raised" to the House of Lords (if that is the proper term in this connection), or from individual independence or eccentricity, sit here. The Prince of Wales, the Duke of Edinburgh, and the Duke of Cambridge occupy this part of the House, where also Earl Grey sits, to indicate his equal dislike and distrust of Liberals and Conservatives. The position indicates absolute political neutrality—permanent in some cases, temporary and transitional in others. Hither Lord Derby presently betook himself. But it soon began to be understood, with pleasure and hope among the Opposition, with anger and apprehension by Ministerialists, that the cross-benches were simply a stage in Lord Derby's journey from one side in politics to the other. It is simply a half-way house in which he has rested.

Lord Derby's delay in openly joining the Liberal party is a tribute to decorum and the appearance of deliberation. But the signs of his intention have been conspicuous, and have been carefully chosen. First came his resignation of the presidency of certain Lancashire Conservative associations, whose reports and resolutions expressing enthusiastic approbation of the foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury, from which Lord Derby had felt bound to separate himself, gave him a pretext for retiring from them. The social indications of his political inclining have been as marked. Eminent Liberals visiting Lancashire have been invited to make Knowsley their headquarters. Sir Charles Dilke, Sir William Harcourt, and Mr. Grant Duff have been among Lord Derby's guests. But the decisive indication has only just been given. Lord Hartington and Mr. Bright—a conjunction which would have been deemed strange a dozen years ago—are to attend a great Liberal demonstration in Manchester this day week. Though Knowsley is near Liverpool, and not near Manchester, Lord Derby has invited Lord Hartington to be his guest on this great party occasion. Lord Hartington would practically be as near Manchester at his father's own seat of Chatsworth as at Knowsley. But the Manchester meeting is a great Lancashire electioneering demonstration in the interests of the Liberal party; and while Chatsworth is in Derbyshire Knowsley is in Lancashire, and Lord Derby is a great Lancashire land-owner, whose influence on opinion and votes in his own county is immense. For this reason Lord Hartington is ostentatiously invited to Knowsley, which lies some thirty or forty miles out of his way, and goes there in a very conspicuous fashion. The thing is really as significant, as regards English politics, as the conference of Count Andrássy and Prince Bismarck at Vienna, and may have results as momentous within a more limited sphere.

The bitterness among Conservatives is, of course, very great, and it found expression yesterday at the Manchester dinner to Lord Salisbury through the lips of Lord Derby's brother and heir-presumptive, Colonel Stanley, now the Secretary of State for War. Colonel Stanley, whose political importance is entirely due to his relationship to Lord Derby, and the manner of whose accession to office is a curious incident in family and political history which it might not be proper to narrate, contrasted his father's presence at a Conservative dinner in the Free-Trade Hall shortly before his death with his brother's absence, speaking of the latter as "one whom we have lost." But the truth is that the present Lord Derby is as much a Liberal by temperament and habit of mind as his father was a Tory. The late Earl began life, it is well known, as a Whig, but his temper and habit of mind broke through the long traditions of his house and his personal associations, and made him the leader of the Conservative party. The present Lord Derby has always been a Liberal, though a Liberal detained in the Conservative ranks by filial feeling, and afterwards by his strange friendship for Lord Beaconsfield. It was the doctrine of an old philosophy that everything in nature tends to its own place, and Lord Derby, on the rupture of the ties which held him back, began to tend to his own place. He used to make radical speeches—or, at any rate, speeches of the purest political rationalism—while he was nominally the Conservative member for Lynn, and his enforced vindication of the measures of Conservative governments to which he belonged alarmed Tories far more than the attacks of Liberals. They implied principles and a mode of looking at things more dangerous to an unreasoning Conservatism than the most ultra-Radicalism. Very early in his career the present Lord Derby, then Lord Stanley, was offered high office by Lord Palmerston, which he declined in deference only to the feelings of his father. He cultivated the society of Mr. Bright, and was fond of long talks with him in the smoking-room of the House of Commons, in the days when respectability shrunk from Mr. Bright almost as it does now from Dr. Kenealy. He at one time sat at the feet of Mr. Mill, and even learned something from Mr. Holyoake. This rationalism, however, in politics which made Lord Derby a Liberal among Conservatives, will make him in a certain sense a Conservative among Liberals. Sceptical and cautious, unwearied in the ascertainment of facts and rigid in his deductions from them, his strong good sense will operate as a check upon the more impulsive and ardent feelings of some of his colleagues. The course of events and the general direction of the measures which the Liberal party contemplate will not be changed by Lord Derby's adhesion to it. But things will be considered safe which he assents to, which might raise foolish alarm if they were supposed to spring from the restless initiative of Mr. Gladstone. Timid men of Liberal inclinations but of conservative apprehensions will be reassured by Lord Derby's association with the Liberal party. A Government presided over by Lord Granville and led in the House of Commons by Lord Hartington would profit by the social tact and the graceful suavity of its head, and the strong good sense and uprightness of his lieutenant in the Commons; but these qualities will need the reinforcement of Lord Derby's large knowledge and defined habits of mind. If the next Liberal Government contains, as it probably will contain, Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Fawcett within the Cabinet, and Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Courtney in considerable offices just outside it, it will need to be strengthened by the confidence which timid Liberals feel in Lord Derby's rank and wealth. It is possible that his action may be imitated by Lord Carnarvon, who, like Lord Derby, is a Whig by descent and a Conservative by his father's secession from the Whigs. These family considerations may seem to an American reader

strange influences in politics; but they are real. Social and political demarcations still largely coincide in England. The resentment among the Conservatives at the secession of Lord Derby and Lord Carnarvon was not expressed merely in the open world of public life. When, shortly after leaving the Government, Lord Carnarvon went from his house in Hampshire to Edinburgh to deliver the opening address before the Philosophical Society there, his way lay through a series of great Whig houses. The doors of the Tory peers and notables were practically shut in his face; and this experience was not a solitary one. †††

GERMANY, AUSTRIA, AND RUSSIA.

PARIS, October 17, 1879.

IT was thought at first that the visit of Prince Bismarck to Vienna only furnished an opportunity for what the diplomats still call, in their own phraseology, an exchange of ideas. But it is now believed in the best informed circles that there has been something more; that the visit had been prepared by a long and formal negotiation, and that the last act of this negotiation has been a positive agreement, made in view of well-defined eventualities. The truth will leak out in our days. When Count Cavour went to Plombières and arranged with the Emperor Napoleon the Italian war of independence, the official papers in Italy as well as in France denied that there had been anything more at Plombières than an exchange of ideas. When Prince Bismarck went to Biarritz, and prepared with Napoleon III. the war against Austria, which ended at Sadowa and which gave Venetia to the Italians and the German hegemony to Prussia, the official papers in Prussia as well as in France repeated again that there had been nothing at Biarritz except an exchange of ideas. We are quite familar now with the ways of the German Chancellor; we know that he is economical of his time, that he does nothing in vain; and we can hardly believe that the visit to Vienna was merely a visit of courtesy. In fact, we suspect that the most important questions received their eventual solution during this visit, and our belief rests not only on the well-known character of the Chancellor, but also on what Napoleon once called "the irresistible logic of facts."

This irresistible logic has gradually brought Austria back towards Germany. There has never been in Austria anything like a national feeling, owing to the great variety of races in the Empire. What Metternich once contemptuously said of Italy, namely, that she was but a "geographical expression," was perhaps true a hundred years ago; but now Italy has, under the influence of a few statesmen and writers, become a nation. Austria, on the contrary, has become a "geographical expression"; her real centre has long been the Empire, the Emperor; even now the popularity of Francis Joseph is very great—he is equally well received in the old Germanic provinces, in Tyrol, in Austria proper, in Pesth, in Dalmatia and Illyria; but this very popularity is owing to the fact that the House of Austria has never crushed one nationality at the expense of another; the Emperor was and is still considered as the natural protector of a number of peoples—some civilized, some semi-civilized. The court and the army have been everything; all the life of the large empire was centred in them. Even Polish Galicia has always looked on the Emperor with more complacency than the Poles of Posen on the King of Prussia or the Poles of Warsaw on the Czar. The political strength of Austria was in the freedom of the various races, not in a political or parliamentary sense, but in an ethnographical sense.

Notwithstanding this variety of races, the emperors of Austria have always contended for the German hegemony; this political hegemony was finally taken from them by Prussia. The first shock was severe; Sadowa was a terrible blow; but after a while it seemed natural, even to the Germans of Austria, that Prussia should become the centre of gravity of all the Germanic populations. Prussia was a purely Germanic power; she was the centre of German culture; the war with France and the conquests made in France only increased the sentiment of admiration of all German-speaking peoples for the Hohenzollern. Austria had been excluded, after Sadowa, from the new German Confederation; it became the desire of all Germans to unite her again in some form or other to the great "Fatherland." The house of Hapsburg could probably have made such a *rapprochement* impossible; the descendant of the old emperors could have sulked and kept aloof. Francis Joseph did not choose to do so; he had been brought up in the school of adversity; he had lost the magnificent provinces which his ancestors possessed in Italy; he had lost the leadership of the small German potentates; he did not choose to war against the gods. He submitted to fate in the interest of his peoples, and it became evident that, while he preserved a dignified attitude, he became more and more disposed to enter into some sort of arrangements with the new Emperor of Germany. The *rapprochement* was not direct at once; it was first tried in the form of that triangular alliance which has been called the alliance of the three Emperors, and which was seemingly only made for the general interests of Europe. It would have been difficult at first to make a dualistic alliance; the Emperor of Russia became unconsciously the connecting link between the two empires which occupy the central part of Europe.

The complete development of Italian unity was accomplished by force; but it has never been the intention of Prince Bismarck to complete German unification by force. It was probably not the intention of Cavour to conquer the kingdom of the two Sicilies; but in Italy there was a force which even Cavour could not master, the revolutionary force. Garibaldi's expedition to Sicily, his march from Marsala to Naples, are well-known events; the siege of Gaëta by the Piedmontese army was only the crowning incident of the war begun by the revolutionary army. The House of Savoy had to choose between an alliance with the revolution and war against the revolution. Time will show if the revolutionary elements which play so great a part in the development of Italian unity will not oppose its future consolidation. Without being an alarmist, it is impossible not to see in the state of parties in Italy something which is not satisfactory. The Government of the country has fallen into hands which are not the hands of such men as Cavour, D'Azeglio, Mamiani, Ricasoli. Parliamentary government has somewhat fallen into contempt, from the splitting up of the old parties into a confusion of small groups, which have no centre except the ambition of one man. The Republican party is not yet very strong in Italy, but it keeps up a desultory agitation, and it has lately taken the dangerous form of what is called "Italia irredenta." It claims for Italy the city of Trieste and the Tyrolese district called the Trentino, which belong to Austria.

The movement for German unity has not in our time been tainted in the least by the revolutionary element; it has been altogether what I might call an Imperial movement. The people, the army, have followed the lead of the statesmen; they have not led. The present Emperor of Germany witnessed the revolution of 1848, was himself obliged in 1849 to combat the revolution in Baden; he has no sympathy for the revolution in any form. When he accepted the crown offered him by the King of Bavaria, in the name of all the sovereign princes of Germany, he did not usurp the rights of any other sovereign; he only did what the first emperors had done. The form of his election was a return to the past, not an insult to the past. The annexations made by Prussia have never been sanctioned in the modern fashion by the suffrage of the populations. Napoleon III., when he received Savoy from the hands of King Victor Emanuel, thought that his title was not good as long as the majority of the Savoyards had not voted for him. The Emperor of Germany has never tied himself by such rules; he believes in the old-fashioned rights—in the right of conquest, in the right of cession from prince to prince. The relations which are now established in the confederation of Germany are all implicitly or explicitly derived from these old rights. The relations with the old German provinces still belonging to Austria will, in all probability, not be of a different character.

A conquest, pure and simple, would be as simple a solution as possible of the difficulty; but nobody thinks of such a conquest. After Sadowa Prince Bismarck carefully avoided robbing Austria of a single province; all he wanted was the leadership in the German Bund. He had conquered it; he did not add a single Austrian potato-field to his conquest. Austria was to be in future the great handle of Germany in the East; why should he break the arm which one day or other was to be necessary to himself? The great foresight of the German Chancellor has now become visible. Austria has renounced, and she has renounced for ever, the leadership of Germany; but she has not renounced her *rôle* in the East. She has exactly arrived at that psychological moment when she can be of the greatest use to Germany without endangering the work of unification undertaken by Prussia. She has renounced her old provinces in Italy, which were a perpetual cause of disturbance to her general policy; she has assumed her natural character; she can help Germany, she can withstand the Panslavist influences in the East; she is ready to take her share in the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire.

This situation does not, in my opinion, create any positive danger with regard to Russia. It is clear that Austria in a certain sense becomes a German sentry against Russia; but there are many reasons why there should be no conflict between Germany and Russia. Vigilance does not necessarily mean war. A war with Russia will always be a very ominous, hazardous enterprise. Some young and enthusiastic officer of the

German staff will tell you that if Russia began any concentration of forces, Prussia would, with her system of railways and of mobilization, concentrate a large army in a much shorter time; that she would seize at once the Baltic provinces and protect them by sea and by land. Then she would wait. She would not plunge, like the first Napoleon, into the fastnesses of Russia. She would simply throw arms into Poland; and, between the Baltic provinces, occupied by a German army, and an insurgent Poland, Russia would be completely helpless. Poland could be, perhaps, attached as a kingdom to the Austrian Empire, in the same character as Hungary and Bohemia; and Austria, having thus become more and more an Eastern confederacy, the German provinces of the Empire could be attached by some stronger ties to the confederacy.

Such plans are daily discussed in certain military quarters, and it is rather curious to see that Poland is always considered in such plans as one of the necessary elements of a war. Poland is a double-edged instrument. If Germany can use it, Russia can use it too. The heart of Poland is really not in Posen, not in Lemberg, nor even in Cracow. It is always in Warsaw. If Russia only did in the old kingdom what Austria has done at times in Galicia, she would soon draw all Polish hearts to her side. Prince Bismarck must know better than anybody how dangerous it is to play with the Polish question. All the plans of wars between Prussia and Russia seem to me to be useless dreams for the present. Russia is determined not to go to war. One of her diplomats said, a few days ago: "We shall remain at home for *forty* years." But if a war was forced upon her, her enemies would probably find to their cost that a Russian war would not be a seven days', nor even a seven months', campaign. For the present the alliance which has been formed by Prussia and Austria, and which also has attracted England into its sphere, is not an alliance for action. It cannot be said to be defensive, as nobody attacks those Powers. It may for the present be considered as merely protective.

Correspondence.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE PENSION OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has just been called to the notice in your issue of the 16th of my address on "Pensions" before the Grand Army of the Republic at Philadelphia on the 11th instant. Several suggestions and statements of your criticism are so far from being correct, and, appearing in a journal of such high character, are so liable to harm a branch of the public service which good men desire to benefit and not injure, that I beg at this late hour to call your attention to the principal errors.

It is said that my "prejudice" against lawyers has worked in favor of "shysters"; that the reduction of the claim-agents' fees to $10 per case has driven out all the respectable lawyers.

Without comment upon my "prejudice" these are the *facts:* The reduction in the fee was not recommended by either myself or any other responsible officer of the Pension Bureau or of the Interior Department, but was the voluntary suggestion and act of Congress (see proceedings H. R., May 24, 1878). If any "respectable lawyers" have been driven out of the business of prosecuting pension claims on account of the reduction in the fee, no such case has been made known to me, and it is equally true that pension claimants have made no complaint of the kind.

When the act was passed fully three-fifths of the cases which were represented by attorneys were in the hands of a few persons or firms, not exceeding fifteen in number, and, as far as I know, these still continue to file and prosecute claims.

The process of concentrating the pension-claim business in a few hands and freezing out the local magistrates and attorneys has been in full operation from as far back as 1870, and that process has not ceased operation since the passage of the supposed obnoxious act of Congress.

That mistakes and delays occur in the business of the office is not denied, but affirmed. That they will continue to occur under the present system for settling claims constitutes one of the chief reasons for the change which I advocated at Philadelphia, but that in deciding two "precisely similar cases" one is allowed and the other rejected, and so the action of the office rendered "wholly uncertain," is not true; and if among the more than half a million of decisions made by the office since 1862 individual instances of such inconsistency can be pointed out, they are *exceptional* decisions, and can have occurred only through accident, and when shown to the office will be corrected.

As to the alleged disorderly treatment of the arrears settlements, "late applications being paid before earlier ones," a word of explanation.

The earliest applications, to the number of several thousand, came from Washington and from other great cities having the advantage of the earliest news and shortest mail-routes. To have settled these in the order of their receipt would not only have prevented for many weeks the settlement of any cases from the agricultural districts and more distant places, but settled first the claims of the more intelligent and generally least destitute class, to the exclusion of the poor and ignorant.

Inasmuch as the right to arrears was in no way dependent upon the filing of an application, that having been required for the convenience of the office in selecting the cases from the files, it was determined to take up the applications in blocks of one thousand and upwards, taking at the same time a block of the earliest and a block of the latest filed, with one or more blocks from the middle ground. This resulted in a nearly equitable distribution of the settlements throughout the entire country, and included the ignorant and poorer classes as well as the wealthy and more intelligent.

I am very truly yours,

Jas. Bentley.

Pension Office, Washington, D. C., Oct. 25, 1879.

[It is certainly our object, as Mr. Bentley supposes, to benefit and not injure the Pension Office, but we do not think that this is to be accomplished by covering up its shortcomings. As to the responsibility for the law of June, 1878, reducing the fee to agents and directing that their fees should no longer be reserved for them, Mr. Bentley expressly stated in his address (referring especially to the latter point) that the law was recommended by him. The debate to which he refers shows that the bill of the Committee on Invalid Pensions fixed the fee at $25, and that on an amendment from Mr. Fuller this was reduced to $10. It was understood at the time that the final bill, and also the provision in the Arrears Law forbidding any fee to agents in arrears applications, met Mr. Bentley's approval; and this is strengthened by the opinion, openly expressed in his address, that claim agents are altogether unnecessary. This notion is, we are sure, a very mistaken one. Not one in ten of these applicants can even write an intelligible letter about his case; there is no class that needs the assistance of counsel more. As to whether respectable lawyers are prevented from appearing before the Pension Office by the inadequacy of the compensation, we think that Mr. Bentley can easily satisfy himself by enquiry amongst lawyers, and that the reply will be unanimous. In the arrears applications, in which no agent's fee was allowed, a large part of the work was done by "shysters," who took it because they had no reputation to imperil and charged twice as much as the work was worth. The idea that these applications, each of which involved nearly as much work as an ordinary deed, could be drawn by the illiterate applicants themselves, or by lawyers who would not wish to be paid, was surely ill-considered, and only resulted in throwing the applications into improper hands. The worst feature of the law of June was, however, the abandonment of the old system of securing attorney's fees. The innovation did and could do no good to honest pensioners; it only operated to enable the dishonest ones to cheat their agents. To make the claim-agent's business insecure, by encouraging fraud at his expense, is its sole object; and this law Mr. Bentley acknowledges as especially his own device.

We are glad to hear that any system was used in taking up the arrears cases, even one as imperfect as that described. In several of the cases that passed through most rapidly the applicants openly attributed their success to illicit outside influence, and the plan adopted seems especially open to that danger, and with little or no excuse in the fancied difference in the intelligence of applicants. Still, it was certainly better than no method at all. The blunders and delays of the Pension Office are far more numerous and serious than Mr. Bentley admits. Careless requirements of impossible evidence, and delays of many months in examining the evidence submitted, seem altogether indefensible, yet both are extremely frequent; and the difficulty seems to lie deeper. There is an actual hostility to the applicant, shown in refusing to furnish him with copies of papers filed and official records necessary to complete

his case; and frequently his case is rejected on the secret report of a special agent, which is not communicated to him, so that he is forced to fight in the dark against unknown charges. We have good reason to believe that the number of deserving claims improperly rejected by the Office is many times greater than the fraudulent ones that have gone through, which last, we think, have been greatly exaggerated. The talk about ten per cent. of the pensions being improperly obtained is the wildest guess-work.

With regard to Mr. Bentley's plan of travelling commissions of enquiry, it has been repeatedly before Congress and always rejected, and we do not think Mr. Bentley has any reason for charging in his address that the opposition to it has been "based upon a misunderstanding of its features, or consisted in the baldest misrepresentation." The plan was offered in the Senate last March, for example, and Senators Edmunds, Thurman, Voorhees, and others took part in the discussion, with scarcely a syllable in its favor, Mr. Shields styling it a sham that deserved a leather-medal. It was there pointed out that this new commission (whose only duty is to make up a case for examination by the Government, a labor which should be done by the applicant's attorney) would not help the soldiers at all, but, on the contrary, would delay them greatly in waiting for semi-annual visits of the commission, and cause them great hardship in bringing their witnesses before distant courts, most of them being very poor, besides serious minor difficulties. And on the Government side it would double the expenses of the Pension Office without any adequate corresponding benefit; for the two great difficulties in the office are the delays in taking up the cases and the inability to deal with them judicially when reached, and both of these evils would be aggravated. The time spent in accumulating evidence would manifestly be increased; and as the depositions would be filed not in their present condensed and pointed form but in the shape of long and confused verbatim reports of oral examinations, it would be idle to expect the office to unravel them, while nearly all the advantages of oral examination would be lost by not bestowing on the examining board any power of decision. It seems plain, therefore, that the present evils would be increased.

The Secretary of the Interior has reported that these evils do not arise from the want of additional clerical force, but from the incompetence of that employed; and Mr. Bentley seems to admit as much in his address. The remedy for them need not be sought, then, in anomalous and expensive commissions: it is right at Mr. Bentley's elbow. He has only to replace the incompetents under him by men of legal training and acumen, to lengthen his office hours, and, in short, to do what ordinary business men do when their business is not kept properly in hand, and he will find that the present evils will vanish. In cases where affidavits of importance seem suspicious, he can send one of the special agents now employed to examine the affiant before a magistrate after notice to the applicant's attorney, and thus without any of the cumbrous machinery of the new bill or the underhand, irresponsible spying now adopted reach the desired end. First of all, however, the Commissioner should understand that he is the almoner of the Government, not the enemy of the pensioners; and that the poverty-stricken suitor at his office is ill-treated if he does not have every advantage of counsel, of knowing the evidence against him, and of a competent judicial decision of his case.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. BERGH AS A COMMENTATOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of October 16 I called attention to Mr. Bergh's misapplication of a passage in Professor Colin's 'Physiologie Comparée des Animaux Domestiques.' This citation is one of many which have been given to the public for the purpose of throwing discredit upon experiments on animals in physiology. The passage in question had been quoted as showing that its author distrusted experiments of this nature and disapproved of them. But a reference to Colin's original language made it evident, on the contrary, that he fully approved of them and regarded them as valuable means of scientific research. Does not such a discrepancy need explanation? Mr. Bergh should not underrate the importance of this point. The quotations, as offered by him, are in the nature of evidence. They are used to show what have been the experience and opinions of certain eminent men in regard to vivisection. If this evidence is false it makes a difference in the conclusions to be drawn from it. May we not hope that Mr. Bergh will explain in some way his misstatement with regard to Colin?

Besides Colin, there is another eminent physiologist, still better known to American readers, who is arrayed by Mr. Bergh as opposed to physiological experimentation on animals. This is Dr. William B. Carpenter, late Registrar to the University of London, whose books have long been familiar standards in physiology and natural history, in England and the United States. In the New York *Evening Post* of September 12, 1874, Mr. Bergh refers to him as follows:

"Dr. Carpenter, than whom there is scarcely a higher authority, says: 'Take away an important and essential part of a living being, and it ceases to exist as such; it no longer exhibits even a trace of those properties which it is our object to examine, and its elements remain subject only to the common laws of matter.'"

This passage seems to have been taken, not from Dr. Carpenter's original work, but from Fleming's Prize Essay on Vivisection (London, 1866), which has been already shown, in the *Nation* of October 16, to be the source from which Mr. Bergh has borrowed much of his controversial ammunition. The quotation appears in Fleming's Essay, on page 50, accompanied by the introductory phrase: "Dr. Carpenter, than whom we could scarcely have a higher authority on this subject," etc., etc. Now, Dr. Carpenter's connection with the famous Prize Essay is a curious one. He was one of those who served upon the Committee of Adjudication for the competing essays; and, on examining Mr. Fleming's production among the rest, he found it so full of misrepresentations that, as a member of the committee, he felt bound to declare his disapproval. Accordingly, the printed document, as published by the Society, contains an Appendix, in which Dr. Carpenter corrects the false statements and inferences of the author, and repudiates the opinions attributed to himself. In the body of the essay references are made to the comments by Dr. Carpenter in the appendix; so that whoever reads the first is at once referred to the second. Thus, the passage quoted above by Mr. Bergh, on page 50 of the essay, refers by a foot-note to Dr. Carpenter's correction in the appendix, which is (page 75) as follows:

"I must entirely disclaim the general inference which the author bases on a limited proposition. I go as far as any one in the importance I attach to anatomical investigation, and in faith as to the value of the 'experiments prepared for us by Nature.' But the author ought not to ignore the explicit testimony I have borne to experiments in my chapter on the determination of the functions of the nerves."

Again, on page 23 of the essay there is the following passage by Fleming:

"The results achieved, however, looking at them from the most favorable point of view, be they valuable or otherwise, have cost an amount of suffering to sentient beings far beyond considerations of value or necessity, and which, when compared one with the other, fixes a perfectly just verdict of 'needless and cruel' against nine-tenths of the almost endless number of experiments performed by physiologists."

To this Dr. Carpenter replies in the Appendix, page 73, as follows:

"I entirely dissent from this statement. If we knock out of the existing system of universally accepted physiological knowledge all that has been learned from experiment, and what experiment alone can reveal, we should go back to a depth of ignorance which must cause a most lamentable increase in human suffering, through the maltreatment of disease and injury which would be the result."

So Dr. Carpenter's opinion, like Colin's, is in reality favorable to experimentation. No one could have the slightest doubt about it who should read his original work; and the above extracts show that the same knowledge is easily accessible to any one possessing a copy of Fleming's 'Essay.' But both Carpenter and Colin are paraded by Mr. Bergh as giving their testimony in its condemnation.

What shall we call this manipulation of the facts, used to convey an impression at variance with the reality? If we did not know that it came from a professional philanthropist we should be inclined to give it a very awkward name. It is plain that Mr. Bergh, in his eagerness to establish a particular point, has made use of means which are universally regarded as illegitimate. He has misapplied quotations, and even changed their phraseology, to represent opinions which are expressly repudiated by the authors themselves. Fortunately, a little expenditure of time and trouble will always be sufficient to detect a spurious issue of this kind and trace it back to its starting-point. Besides, it is somewhat of a relief to find

that these scientific luminaries, occupying "the loftiest pedestals in the Temple of Fame," have not, after all, been stultifying themselves so much as we feared. J. C. D.

NEW YORK, October 31, 1879.

Notes.

THE prospectus of the *Atlantic Monthly* for the coming year includes a new story by Mr. Howells, and reminiscences, dating back to the second Adams's administration, of political and social life at Washington.——On Nov. 11–13 the autograph letters and manuscripts of the late Col. Brantz Mayer, of Baltimore, will be sold at auction in Boston by Sullivan Bros. & Libbie.——Ginn & Heath announce for December a new edition of Goodwin's 'Greek Grammar,' considerably enlarged in the etymological portion; and for January a 'Brief History of Roman Literature,' from the German of Bender.——The chief interest of the last number of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society centres in the paper by Mr. Ph. J. J. Valentini, on "Copper and Copper Tools of the Ancient Mexicans." The recent literature of Spanish American archæology contains but few contributions of equal importance. In it the learned "Américaniste" has made use of the paintings of Mexican origin to an extent and in a manner showing not only uncommon sagacity, but a thorough acquaintance with the principle and system of these contrivances. He illustrates forcibly the legitimate way to use them.——Among the contents of the *Oriental Church Magazine* for October we select for mention the first paper, a spirited account of Russia's great poet, Alexander Pushkin; an article on the influence of Hellenism, by Mr. Botassi, the Greek consul in this city; and the review of Russia's contributions to Arctic research, by Mrs. E. Vale Blake, the well-known editor of Capt. Tyson's 'Arctic Experiences.'——From the October number of the New York *Medical Journal* Prof. Burt G. Wilder has reprinted a very instructive article on "The Anatomical Uses of the Cat" (D. Appleton & Co). The author, following the late Jeffries Wyman, advocates dissection of this prolific, cheap, and easily obtainable animal, as the best possible introduction to the study of human anatomy, with which its own is peculiarly allied.——From the Bulletin, vol. v., No. 2, of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey, Dr. Elliott Coues reprints the second instalment of his unrivalled American Ornithological Bibliography, which has attracted so much attention abroad. This continues the previous list of formal publications relating to North American ornithology by adding those relating to the ornithology of the rest of America. Thus, the first title is a work on the natural history of Brazil, 1648. There are about 700 titles in all. Dr. Coues also contributes to the Bulletin an essay towards a bibliography of the *Passer domesticus alias* English sparrow, against which he warns the West as a pest comparable to the grasshopper, unless, indeed, having failed with the Colorado beetle, it finds the grasshopper palatable. Upwards of 150 titles, we should guess, have been here collected.——Charles Scribner's Sons have brought out in a neat pamphlet Dr. S. Wells Williams's paper on Chinese Immigration read before the Social Science Association at Saratoga in September. It is a valuable contribution to this vexed question, and noticeably free from sentimental considerations.——From the office of the Secretary of State at Albany we have received a solid volume entitled 'The Centennial Celebrations of the State of New York,' which speaks for itself. A good deal of local historical information is to be found in the collected reports amid matter not of lasting importance, and the illustrations include portraits of George Clinton, General Herkimer, and Philip Schuyler, as well as views of battle-fields, the old and new capitols, etc.——The death is announced of the Rev. Jacob Abbott, long to be remembered, and gratefully, as the author of the Rollo books, and of other juvenile literature which occupies the first page of almost every popular library catalogue in America. He had nearly completed his seventy-sixth year.——Dr. Busch, Bismarck's familiar, is publishing a new book of gossip, and Dr. Falk is said to be engaged on a work which also recalls the Chancellor by its title: 'Wir gehen nicht nach Canossa.'

—The Cincinnati Public Library has a large collection of the transactions of foreign learned societies—the memoirs of the St. Petersburg Academy, for instance, complete from 1728 to 1863 (according to the Bulletin for September, 1878; perhaps at present it has later volumes); also, with the *Abhandlungen* of the well-known Berlin and Vienna Academies, the publications by the Academies of Turin, Brussels, Modena, Lisbon, and others. Title-slips for the contents of these volumes have been written, and it is intended, we suppose, to publish them in the Bulletins as occasion may offer. The March Bulletin prints, in ten pages or twenty columns, the titles, alphabetically by authors, in the *Abhandlungen* of the Berlin Academy relating to "Philology and allied Subjects," including classical history, antiquities, etc., and the April number gives the titles relating to astronomy, meteorology, etc., and also those concerning philosophy in the same volumes, in three and a half pages or seven columns.

—The second week of Italian opera has shown a slight improvement, but it cannot be denied that the season is unusually devoid of interest and spirit. "Linda di Chamounix" was performed for the first time this season, and not having been given here for several years it attracted a numerous audience. Mlle. Valeria was acceptable in the leading part, and Campanini and Galassi were very good, as they always are. The first appearance in Mr. Mapleson's company of Miss Cary added to the interest of the occasion. Miss Cary is a great favorite with New York opera-goers, and she was very warmly received. She is nevertheless not exactly qualified for the part of *Pierotto*, which requires a genuine contralto voice, and her charming mezzo-soprano was not always equal to the demands of her part. Friday night "Lucia" was given for the first time. This opera, with Madame Gerster, Campanini, and Galassi in the cast, was Mr. Mapleson's great success last season, but of these three artists only Galassi took part in Friday's representation, and the difference was immense. We have spoken of Mlle. Valeria heretofore, and need only repeat what we have already said: she is an interesting young artist, but is distinctly not a prima donna, and "Lucia" demands a prima donna of the highest rank. As for Signor Aramburo, he has no title to the part of a leading tenor. He has some very fine notes, particularly the highest register from F sharp to C. He gave the B flat at the end of the first act with admirable effect, but this is nearly all that can be said for him. His school is bad; he has no idea of passing from a *piano* to a *forte*; his middle notes are unpleasant; and his enunciation, though painfully clear, is inartistic and wanting in polish. "Carmen" was presented Saturday afternoon, and "Faust," with Del Puente, a great improvement on M. David, as *Mephistopheles*, Monday night.

—It is probable that the personal popularity of General Hooker, who died at Garden City, Long Island, last Friday, has been greater and more enduring in the eastern portion of the United States than that of any other soldier of the late war. He was "Fighting Joe," and newspapers praised him and chronicled his doings, and soldiers when assembled shouted themselves hoarse in his honor. In our judgment this has been a remarkable instance of the worship of false gods, but it is not difficult to discover the reasons for it. In the first place, Hooker was a remarkably handsome, large, "well set-up" man. When he left West Point he is said to have dressed in black, to have presented a very modest exterior and to have been called "the chaplain," but soon after he was not only to be seen always in his uniform, but wearing it with great splendor, with his cap on one side, and evidently seeking success in other fields than those of war; to the end of his life he preserved a complexion of singular freshness. He was, moreover, very hearty and cordial in manner at all times, and when he was going into action or in contact with the enemy there was a serene and cheerful composure about him which it did one good to see. He liked fighting, and he was one of the first men in the East (where there was at first so much poor old timber among our generals, from brigade commanders up to corps commanders) who convinced our people, in the army and at home, that he "meant business" when he encountered the enemy. He had a most exaggerated idea of his own merits and importance, and in proclaiming them and in decrying the claims of other soldiers his voice was ready, sonorous, and voluble. His troops were so good, he was himself so much of a fighter, and his corps commander was so much of an old woman that he found it easy to persuade many people—indeed most people—not only that he was a gallant soldier, which was true, but that he was a great soldier, which was not true. Whether he was particularly civil to newspaper correspondents we have forgotten, if we ever knew, but we may hazard the conjecture that if he entertained those angels he did not entertain them unawares. He was about as insubordinate as a man could be who did not directly disobey orders. In the summer of 1862, for instance, he used to speak of McClellan, the commander of the army in which he had a division, as "a baby," and this before a mixed company of junior officers. He was most positive in his assertions, and his manner was so manly and attractive that his positive assertions were believed oftener than the facts warranted. He certainly did not always tell the truth, but his egotism was so intense that his errors in this respect may have been unintentional. At

any rate he was so likable that we prefer to believe this. There is ground for supposing that he owed his promotion to the command of the Army of the Potomac to his assertion that if he had not been wounded at the Battle of the Antietam he would have driven Lee into the Potomac. His testimony before the Committee on the Conduct of the War was to the like effect, and yet nothing can be more untrue. When the first troops of the Second Corps arrived on Hooker's battle-field, his corps had, for all offensive purposes at least, ceased to exist. Of his failure at Chancellorsville we have heretofore spoken at length (*Nation*, May 23, 1867). It is impossible not to conclude that Hooker's fame has been out of proportion to his merits. He failed utterly in his single great battle, and he never accomplished much as a corps commander. He was a brave man with a hearty love of fighting, and he was a good organizer. He was useful as a division commander in the early days of the war, but he was too selfish, too insubordinate, and too vain to continue useful to the end in that or similar positions. And he was, of course, not competent to hold supreme command.

—Mr. Charles S. Sargent, for the past seven years, and since its formation, director of the arboretum of Harvard University, has been appointed to the newly-created chair of arboriculture, which, as well as its aboretum, the University owes to the public spirit of the late James Arnold, of New Bedford. The arboretum, which is situated in the college property in West Roxbury, will comprise a living collection of every tree and shrub which the climate permits to grow in Massachusetts, museums illustrative of dendrology and forestry, and a library of these and kindred subjects. Such an institution, managed with energy and ability, may be expected to contribute not a little to the prosperity of the country through its influence, more or less direct, on the development and standing of American forestry. More immediate benefits will be a better and more genuine knowledge of our trees, both botanically and culturally; the introduction of new plants; increased and more correct taste in ornamental planting; and the facilities which the arboretum will afford botanists, landscape architects, and horticulturists for studying a large and comprehensively arranged collection of trees.

—A very important case is soon to come before the Supreme Court of Illinois. Walter L. Newberry left an estate, appraised at four million dollars, which in case of the death of his children was to be divided into two equal shares—one to be distributed among the surviving descendants of the testator's brothers and sisters, and the other to be applied by his trustees to the founding of a free public library in the North Division of Chicago. His last surviving child died sixteen months ago, but at that time the Supreme Court decided that the estate could not be distributed before the death of his widow, although she has renounced the provisions of the will on her behalf, taken her rights of dower, and has no further interest in the estate. If this decision is to be maintained, the city of Chicago may wait for its great public library for twenty years. But the court has recently granted a rehearing, and as it has been for some time known that three of the judges were in favor of delay, three in favor of distribution, and one undecided, this concession is supposed to indicate that the seventh judge has decided in favor of distribution, and that Chicago may shortly be the possessor of the best endowed library in the country.

—Southern vital and social statistics will form the most interesting feature of the census of 1880 and, it may be safe to predict, of 1890 also. We have derived some instruction even from the census of Wilmington, North Carolina, for the present year, which we find in the N. C. *Medical Journal*. This city is the seventh cotton port in the Union, and out of the 5,074,155 bales produced in this country in 1878–9 it received 135,270 bales as against 35,908 bales in 1868–9. It has a total population of 17,004 souls, against 13,440 in 1870, an increase of nearly 27 per cent., which may be called normal, as it corresponds with that between 1850 and 1860 (31 per cent.), whereas the result of the war was to cause a flocking of the unsettled population to Wilmington, giving it a temporary increase (1860–70) of almost 40 per cent. On the eve of the rebellion the colored population, from being very slightly in excess of the white in 1850, had fallen 16 per cent. below it; it now forms 60 per cent. of the total. Colored females are greatly in excess of the males—22 per cent. between the ages of 6 and 21; 26 per cent. between 21 and 45, at which period the white females fall just short of equalling the number of the males. Among white babies under eighteen months the females are 18 per cent. in excess; the colored, only 7; during the next period, from 6 to 21, the excess is for the whites turned into a deficit of 13 per cent., but for the blacks remains constant (6 per cent.) The infants' chances are evidently much better among the whites, and in the general death-rate for all ages the inequality is markedly in their favor—14.37 per cent. against 23.54 for the blacks. As for longevity, one white woman is recorded at 97, and one old "aunty" at over 100. The educational statistics are curious. One-quarter of the children of school age do not attend school, and one-half attend schools other than the public. Naturally, proportionately more colored children than white frequent the latter, but the numbers in attendance on private schools are nearly equal (1,203 whites, 1,280 colored), and in the public the two races are equally exemplary in attendance (whites 80 per cent., colored 78), and fairly divide the teaching force (white teachers 9, colored 11). The ratio of voters to the population in Wilmington is 4 7-16 per cent., in the State at large 5. Foreign vessels enter at the rate of one for every secular day (315 for the year).

—At a time when in this country some doubt has been cast upon the advantage of scholarships the French Liberals are hoping much for a recent establishment in the University of "bourses" of 1,200 frs. each, to be held for two years. The recipients gain their scholarship by a competitive examination, and lose it if they cannot pass certain other examinations. The *bourses* have been established only two years, and the number of applicants is not as yet large, but each provincial faculty has five or six of the new students, and it is believed that they will exert a most happy influence on their teachers. The professors, who have been accustomed to see no more auditors at their lectures than our professors of Arabic or of Chinese, and had fallen into the habit of filling up their hour with empty rhetoric or an unprepared and barren commentary, have already found that their new audience cannot be put off in this way, that a slip of memory, an inaccurate date, a poverty of thought and of real instruction, is quickly perceived. They have begun to re-write their lectures, and—a hitherto rare thing with French provincial professors—actually to publish. Probably it is not solely the scholarships and their holders that have produced this result. France was effectually awakened by the German invasion, and the interest in all matters of instruction has been a very different thing under the Republic from what it was under the Second Empire. Very sharp eyes even fancy they see a change since the cessation of the reign of "Moral Order," which may be doubted. The provincial professors are not the only persons who are to be benefited by the new system. The communal "colleges," corresponding in a way to our high-schools, or to schools like Exeter, and highly prized by the Liberals as a counterpoise to the clerical "seminaries," are in great need of good teachers. They pay wretchedly small salaries, but it is thought that if teachers were to be had who deserved better pay they would get it, and that in turn would increase the supply of applicants.

—Of the first number of *La Nouvelle Revue*, the new rival of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, it can be said more truthfully than it is usually said of the beginnings of similar enterprises, that it promises well. It is also to be said that, as is probably almost invariably the case, its promise surpasses its performance. It has a kind of prospectus written by Juliette Lamber (Mme. Adam), articles by M. de Lesseps on the Geographical Congress, by M. Amédée Le Faure on "Les Grands Manœuvres," by General Turr on "Question d'Orient," by M. Henri de Bornier on "La Politique dans Corneille," by M. Demombynes on judiciary reform, and by M. Demitriadès on "Le Protocol XIII. du Traité de Berlin"; Mme. Henry Gréville begins a story, M. G. Duprez contributes the first part of some "Souvenirs d'un Chanteur"; M. Guillaumet, some "Tableaux Algériens"; and M. André Theuriet, some idyllic verses called "Les Paysans." The editorial departments discuss foreign and domestic politics, and there are a "journal de la quinzaine" and a bibliographical bulletin. It will be seen from this summary that we may expect good editing in the *Revue;* the range, variety, and selection of topics for treatment could hardly be better. There is a perceptible unity of tendency and essential agreement in not only the political articles, but in those which in any degree relate to national questions, that indicate that the Republic and Mme. Adam's *salon* have definite and settled views of public policy. Gambetta's hand may perhaps be traced in "It is the contest between the spirit of the Revolution and that of the Syllabus which is the culminating fact of the politics of the moment; it can almost be said that it is the whole of it, indeed." Whether or no there is enough in this idea to secure a success proportioned to that of the *Deux Mondes* remains to be seen; but the articles of the initial number have each a considerable specific interest and merit, independent of course of the main end of the *Revue*, which render this probable. We should say it might come to bear the same relation to the *Deux Mondes* that *L'Art* has to the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*. At all events, we judge from Mme. Adam's somewhat ecstatic and ambitious

prospectus that its editor thinks it has a mission to perform, and common report credits her with ample means to pursue an experiment of the kind, and greater liberality than that of Buloz, who, according to Edmond About, "never paid for a first article and never accepted a second." Every well-wisher to the French Republic will desire its permanent establishment as something designed to endue the present régime with some of that dignity which its foes fear it lacks.

—As provided in the acts establishing the imperial supreme courts, the supreme court of the kingdom of Prussia passed out of existence on the 16th of September. Simultaneously with its dissolution appears a 'Geschichte des königlichen Obertribunals in Berlin' by one of its judges, Dr. Sonnenschmidt. Though the court lived two hundred years few of its decisions attracted much attention, but of these, one, being constantly referred to by German political writers, deserves mention here—namely, that of January 29, 1866, which struck at the root of parliamentary liberty. In February, 1853, a member of the House of Representatives made an offensive allusion to one of the ministers, on account of which the Government applied unsuccessfully for permission to prosecute him. It then, on its own authority, brought a suit in the court at Düsseldorf, which the court, citing the appropriate provision of the constitution, declared itself incompetent to try, as did also the court of appeals at Cologne, and, eventually (December, 1853), the supreme court at Berlin. In 1866, however, a change having meantime taken place in the procedure of the supreme court, the Government determined to try it again. By the new legislation the Minister of Justice could remove a case from the special decision of the court appointed to try it to a body composed of all the judges who habitually treated similar cases, and thus actions brought in East Prussia and in Berlin against the members Frenzel and Twesten, on appeal from the lower courts, were decided in favor of the Government January 29, 1866; the court now holding that the provision of the Constitution had reference only to "insulting remarks not of a libellous character." The decision is frequently referred to as that of the whole court, which then numbered some fifty members; but this statement is incorrect. The judges who sat in the case were but fifteen in number, and it was decided by a majority of one.

CLIFFORD'S LECTURES AND ESSAYS.*

IT is impossible to read these volumes without taking an even greater interest in the human character they reveal than in the matters of which they treat. The author was cut down last March at the age of thirty-three. Many who have read hastily and at long intervals the essays here gathered together may have caught the impression of a genius too iconoclastic to be sympathetic, too fond of paradoxical statement to be wise, too eager for battle to be fair; but the massive effect of all the essays taken together and combined with the personal account of Clifford in the introduction strongly modifies this feeling. We see a man profuse of gifts of body and mind, of "boundless human interests and sympathies," so intensely social that "personal enmity was to him a thing impossible"; of a genius in mathematics so original that we have heard an authority than whom none could be more competent say that he might have rivalled the fame of Newton had he lived; but, on the other hand, endowed with that sense for the color and human expression of things which poets have and mathematicians too often lack, and which irradiates every page he writes with humor and fancy; of insatiable curiosity, but as eager to give all he gained as to receive it; possessed of such reckless animal spirits that we find him now hanging by his toes on the crossbars of a church-steeple weather-cock, now performing the almost incredible feat of writing his articles on the 'Unseen Universe' and on Virchow's address each in a single night—we see all this, and we feel that, as Mr. Pollock says, his printed work must be a very slender representative of all he was to those who knew him, and that the incommunicable and indescribable thing called genius, *das Dämonische*, when it exists in a man as it did in him, transcends all his specific performances, and, "lightening the air his friends breathe," may very well justify them in making claims which to the distant reader sound exorbitant.

But even the distant reader must allow that Clifford's mental personality belonged to the highest possible *type*, to say no more. The union of the mathematician with the poet, fervor with measure, passion with correctness, this surely is the ideal. And if in these modern days we are to look for any prophet or saviour who shall influence our feelings towards the universe as the founders and renewers of past religions have influenced the minds of our fathers, that prophet, if he ever come, must, like Clifford, be no mere sentimental worshipper of science, but an expert in her ways. And he must have what Clifford had in so extraordinary a degree—that lavishly generous confidence in the worthiness of average human nature to be told all truth, the lack of which in Goethe made him an inspiration to the few but a cold riddle to the many.

But why, with all of Clifford's powers, does the result appear so small? Why do these lectures seem to the reader almost funny in the inadequacy with which they shadow forth anything fit to form a "creed" for modern life? Why, indeed, to put the case more broadly, would an almost impossible cumulation of faculties in a single man—Clifford's scientific faith and skill, a poetic craft equal to his poetic feeling, a faculty for public affairs which he never possessed, a genius for familiar oratory, an expansive communicativeness, and a humanity greater than his—why would all these aptitudes together certainly fail *now* to give their possessor that altogether incalculable sort of power over the mind of his generation which the prophets of the past have held? The answer to these questions is short enough. Our modern mind is nothing if not critical—the craving for consistency has entered into its soul, and nothing will deeply move it but a synthesis of things which is radically reasoned out. No array of separate gifts, with this synthesis still unachieved, will make a prophet now. Ever some vital factor of our mental life will rebel and refuse to be dragged the same way with the rest. The miraculous achievement, the achievement upon which we are all waiting for our faculties to burst into movement like mill-wheels at the touch of a torrent, must be a metaphysical achievement, the greatest of all time—the demonstration, namely, that all our different motives, rightly interpreted, pull one way. Now our Science tells our Faith that she is shameful, and our Hopes that they are dupes; our Reverence for truth leads to conclusions that make all reverence a falsehood; our new Good, survival of our tribe, is the one thing certain to perish with our planet; our Freedom annuls our opportunities for lofty deeds; our Equality with our brethren quenches all tendency to be proud of their brotherhood; our Art, instead of intimating divine secrets, becomes an intellectual sensuality, revealing no secrets but those of our nervous systems; our craving for personal recognition at the heart of things is flatly contradicted by our persuasion that we none of us possess any independent personality at all; in short, if we wish to keep in action, we have no resource but to clutch some one thing out of the chaos to serve as our hobby, and trust to our native blindness and mere animal spirits to make us indifferent to the loss of all the rest. Can the synthesis and reconciliation come? It would be as rash to despair of it as to swear to it in advance. But when it does come, whatever its specific character may be, it will necessarily have to be of the theoretic order, a result of deeper philosophic analysis and discrimination than has yet been made. He who makes it will indeed be a leader of his time; for then, in our author's words, will there be a "universe fresh born, a new heaven, a new earth, a new elysium open to our eager feet." Then, indeed, will *la vérité* be *toute pour tous*, in the phrase which the editors have placed as an epigraph on the title-page of these lectures. Then we can all re-echo with Clifford:

> "If a thing is true, let us all believe it, rich and poor, men, women, and children. If a thing is untrue, let us all disbelieve it, rich and poor, men, women, and children. Truth is a thing to be shouted from the house-tops, not to be whispered over rose-water after dinner, when the ladies are gone away. . . ."

But what sort of a figure does Clifford's own philosophy make when treated in this fashion? Surely there never was an intenser illustration than is spread out in these pages of the chaotic state of our contemporary thinking, or a creed on the whole less fit to be proclaimed to the people as the matured and clarified result of scientific thought. There are, of course, exquisitely simple and vivid statements of particular physical theories. It is hard to imagine better reading to inflame a boy with thirst for physics than the lecture on "Atoms," and the articles entitled "The Unseen Universe" and "The First and Last Catastrophe." The one on "Boundaries" in the smaller volume is marvellously clear; and the chapters on the "Philosophy of the Pure Sciences" in the larger form as luminous an introduction to mathematical philosophy as was ever written. Image after image of perfect felicity pursue each other through a style of which the only fault is too great ease and too many Saxon words for our degenerate ears. But in the fundamental ideas what mere subjective capriciousness! A scepticism which fears to call the axioms of geometry true, but which takes no umbrage at the self-contradictions of continuity and infinite division in space and time; a scrupulousness which

* 'Lectures and Essays. By the late William Kingdon Clifford, F R.S. With an Introduction by F. Pollock.' 2 vols. 8vo. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.

'Seeing and Thinking. By the same.' *Ibid.* (Nature Series.) 12mo.

speaks with all the unction of the theological vocabulary of the "guilt" and "sin" of believing even the truth before it has been scientifically demonstrated, but which fears not to lay down as dogmas, to be believed by all, such pure conceptions of the possible as the existence of primordial atoms of "mind-stuff" which are the true things *in se*, the impotence of feeling to influence action, and the rigorous fatality of human acts. Then as to Ethics: Clifford's great discovery is that what is objectively *good*, as distinguished from what is merely subjectively pleasant, is what conduces to the survival of the tribe. Loyalty to truth and all other virtues draw their nobility from being means to this effect. And the symbolic figure of the tribe is invoked as a substitute for superhuman deities, "a grander and nobler figure" than theirs, the figure of "Him who made all gods and shall unmake them":

"A presence in which one's own poor personality is shrivelled into nothingness, . . . which in moments of utter sincerity, when a man has bared his own soul before the immensities and the eternities, arises within him and says, as plainly as words can say, 'I am with thee, and I am greater than thou.' Many names of gods, of many shapes, have men given to this presence; seeking by names and pictures to know more clearly and to remember more continually the guide and the helper of men. No such comradeship with the great Companion shall have anything but reverence from me. . . . From the dim dawn of history, and from the inmost depth of every soul, the face of our father Man looks out upon us with the fire of eternal youth in his eyes, and says: 'Before Jehovah was, I am!'"

Surely splendid rhetoric; but observe the circle in the logic: "We must show piety to our race because our race is worthy" means, simply stated, that we must help it to survive because it *can* survive. But if it can survive, it will any how, and needs none of our help. Whilst, if it needs our help, it can't survive *per se*, and lacking, therefore, those attributes which we learn to call objectively good, can have no claim on our sympathy. In any case we may turn our backs upon it. It is beside the mark to say, "As a matter of fact we can't turn our backs; instinct forbids." Other instincts *bid;* and the whole use of open-eyed philosophy is to teach us how we ought to decide when our blind instincts clash. Prof. Clifford's fine organ-music, like the bands and torches of our political campaigns, must be meant for our nerves rather than for our reason. The entire modern deification of survival *per se*, survival returning into itself, survival naked and abstract, with the denial of any substantive excellence in *what* survives, except the capacity for more survival still, is surely the strangest intellectual stopping-place ever proposed by one man to another.

Take, again, Clifford's notion that high action means *free* action. Seating himself firmly on this high horse, he immediately proceeds with the utmost fury to chop off its legs. For he first defines free action as action from within, and then describes action from within as that whose immediate antecedents are molecular, and not the massive motions of distant bodies. Think of firing the popular heart for virtue by promulgating, as the only true and scientifically warranted moral law, the formula: "So act that all thy deeds have molecular, not massive, antecedents"!

Clifford's great metaphysical theory of units of mind-stuff forming things in themselves, and appearing to each other as molecules of matter, so far from clearing up our ideas makes confusion worse confounded for the present. It would really require a fourth or a fifth dimension of space to make an intelligible diagram of the relations between the thing, the thought of the thing, and the brain process subserving the thought, which this theory necessitates. But, as the author himself says, "the question is one in which it is peculiarly difficult to make out precisely what another man means, and even what one means one's self." Only we think a clearer grasp of this theory might have dispossessed from Clifford's mind that other theory, that our feelings are powerless to influence our deeds. The theory says that the atoms of mind-stuff, when they fortuitously coalesce in certain ways, form a consciousness, and in other ways do not. Now, noting that the conscious combinations tend the more to survive as their consciousness is more developed, what is more natural than to conclude that the consciousness as such aids them by its presence, and has a real utility, making self-preservation the end for which it actively *works*, by reinforcing all actions and feelings which lead thereto, and checking all the rest? But this conclusion would oblige us to ascribe to it just that causal efficacy which Clifford denies.

Far be it from our thought to cast a stigma on any of these beliefs. The beliefs which have moved the world have always been directed upon some material content, and have been quite indifferent to logic. When the true prophet arises the right will be sifted from the wrong in Clifford's doctrines, and in those of all of us. Till then we should all be left free to mix our mental porridge as we please. What we complain of is that Clifford should have been willing, with his ideas still in their *Halbheit* and unshapeliness, to use the conjuring spell of the name of Science, and to harp on Reverence for Truth as means whereby to force them on the minds of simple public listeners, and so still more unsettle what is already too perplexed. Splintered ends, broken threads, broken lights, and, at last, broken hearts and broken life! So ends this bright romance! But louder and more joyously than any of us would its generous hero have sung:

"Wo immer müde Fechter
Sinken im muthigen Strauss,
Es kommen neue Geschlechter
Und kämpfen es ehrlich aus."

SEARGENT SMITH PRENTISS.*

EITHER in the man, or in the memoir which is called for after the lapse of a quarter of a century since its first publication, there should be something to account for a compliment not often paid to biographies. Mr. Prentiss, however, though a man of precocious intellect, an indefatigable and enthusiastically admired stump-speaker, an able advocate, a prominent Whig, and for a short time a striking figure in the lower house of Congress, was not, even as portrayed by fraternal partiality—or we will do the writer the justice to say impartiality—a great character. Had he been ambitious, he might possibly have impressed himself on the destinies of his country as did his contemporaries Clay, Webster, Calhoun, and the rest. But the disgust of politics which his first experience inspired in him caused him to withdraw at the earliest moment from office-seeking or office-holding; and his disinterested political services as a party orator heightened his fame but were not essential to the success of the party. Of his numerous speeches very few were reported or have been preserved, and most of those which appear in this memoir are apologetically reproduced, as not justifying his reputation. There are, in fact, but one or two which can be read with any satisfaction or much profit; and perhaps the argument by which he maintained his right to a seat in the House of Representatives is the only discourse which fairly suggests his intellectual capacity. His style was fluent, and florid beyond present endurance, and would nowhere now be taken as a model for youthful orators, unless in certain parts of the South and West. More than one instance is given of a fatal readiness to speak without preparation at any time and on any theme, which certainly brought him under Carlyle's definition of the "commonplace eloquent speaker" who, "in any occurrent set of circumstances, can start forth, mount upon his stump, his rostrum, his tribune—his place in parliament, or any other ready elevation—and pour forth from there his appropriate, 'excellent speech,'" a windy marvel to the "poor, windy mortals round him," who cry bravo. His biographer deprecates such a description of him, as if to be windy was always to be insincere. Mr. Prentiss was, we may allow, sincere; and if we find him too willing to speak for the sake of speaking, as on the fine arts at New Orleans, or on the aborigines from the top of an Indian mound, all that can be said for him is that it was the failing of the times and especially of his section.

There is, to digress a moment, a pertinent example of this in the case of Webster, as narrated by Henry A. Wise on pp. 54, 55 of volume ii. At a dinner given to Prentiss by his Whig colleagues in Congress, all the great lights of oratory, Mr. Prentiss included, had burned miserably dim: Clay was flat, Webster resorted to bad punning, and the occasion had become positively stupid, when toasts were abandoned, and Gen. Waddy Thompson, smartly upbraiding Webster for his failure, appealed to him, as a Southern to a Northern man, to "touch the theme of the Union." Webster at one o'clock took the floor, and soon "brought forty men to their feet" in breathless attention. At the climax—"Shall *my* children be aliens to *your* children?"—

"The great tears rolled down many a manly cheek, and —— ——, of Georgia, exclaimed: 'There, now! didn't I know it? But my people wouldn't believe this! I'll tell them as soon as I go home!' In the midst of the excitement, —— ——, of Kentucky, in a perfect frenzy, seized an empty champagne bottle, and crying out 'Reform or Revolution! Liberty or Death!' threw it at Webster's head, which he would doubtless have hit but for my jarring his arm by catching at it as he threw."

Such were the rewards of "pumping" in 1838.

Mr. Prentiss's career as Congressman was in every way honorable to him. Still more so was his instant and steadfast opposition to Repudiation, when his adopted State took the lead in an infamy which has since almost become national. It is this chapter in his history which invests the memoir with a real freshness, and makes its widespread circulation especial-

* 'A Memoir of S. S. Prentiss. Edited by his Brother.' 2 vols. 12mo. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. First edition, 1855; second edition, 1879.

ly desirable. Of his part in resisting the general demoralization in Mississippi only a fragmentary account could be given; but the editor has supplemented the record on this subject with liberal quotations from Jefferson—whose doctrine that one generation cannot bind another was eagerly taken up by a mixed and imported population—and from Calhoun, who earnestly combated such destructive notions. There is also an interesting correspondence with Wordsworth, whose wife's relatives were dependent on the dishonored bonds, in which Mr. Prentiss expressed his belief that repudiation could not succeed in Mississippi or in any other State; whereas, even as these volumes were passing through the press, the Trustees of the Peabody Educational Fund were reminding the world that the bonds (although dedicated to the restoration of the South) are still worthless It furnishes an instructive gloss on the modern notion of "honor" to learn that Mr. Prentiss, whose moral standard was so much sounder than that of the majority of his fellow-citizens on this subject, was addicted to the peculiarly Southern vice of gambling.

He had also been naturalized to the duello. As Col. Baillie Peyton relates:

"His chivalric spirit adapted itself to the times and country in which his lot was cast, not as a matter of choice, but from necessity. Public opinion had established the wager of battle as the only mode of settling points of honor, which no man could decline and maintain his position and usefulness in society. . . . He found himself among a people who, from education and other causes, looked upon the '*Yankee*,' as every New-Englander was called in the South, as almost of necessity deficient in this chief excellence of man—personal courage as proven upon the body of some knight of the pistol in the duello. . . . All things considered, it is not to be wondered at that a man of his temperament, of his proud spirit and lofty aspirations, should have resolved to accommodate himself to the spirit of the times; for, as to remodelling society and changing the tone of public sentiment on this subject, it would have been a vain attempt for any one—much more for him"

The moral courage which withstood Repudiation was here wanting, and considerations like the above led Prentiss to fight two duels with General Foote, and nearly involved him in another in New Orleans. Life, as he says, would have been "valueless to him, both in his own eyes and those of the community," had he declined to meet the challenge. But he had deliberately chosen his community, and the word "valueless" reminds the reader that Mr. Prentiss resisted the temptation to settle in Cincinnati because he was bent on making a fortune. On his first arrival in Natchez he thought he should "dislike to live in a slaveholding State," and the only advantage held out by it was the greater facilities for the accumulation of wealth. "The land of wealth, slaves, fevers, and mosquitoes," he afterwards calls the South, and the slaves are "a strong objection." Still later, "slavery is a great evil, there can be no doubt, and it is an unfortunate circumstance that it was ever introduced into this or any country, At present, however, it is a necessary evil, and I do not think admits of a remedy. But the situation of slaves—at least, in this State—is not half as bad as it is represented and believed to be in the North," etc. So the process of adaptation goes on till Mr. Prentiss becomes a full-blown "Northern man with Southern principles"; defends a Mississippi judge held for murder in Kentucky with a levity which, spite of his disclaimer, indicates that he really did regard the case as one between gentlemen and mechanics, the murdered men having been friends of a tailor with whom his client had quarrelled; lauds the "philanthropy" of Clay, the self-seeking owner of fifty human beings; denounces Polk for having signed the Oregon bill with the Wilmot proviso; and praises Webster's 4th of March bid for the Presidency. He was, perhaps, not a fanatic on the subject of slavery, but it never made him, like Jefferson, tremble for his country; and, with all his strong Union feeling, it is not certain that he would have sided with the Government in the rebellion.

In 1838, "a more upright, intelligent, and moral community cannot be found in the Republic" than Mississippi, was her representative's retort in Congress to a Treasury agent's libellous assertion of "a certain looseness in the code of morality" there. Two years later, Repudiation sprang up, certainly not without roots in the near past; seven years later Prentiss removed from Vicksburg to New Orleans, exclaiming bitterly of Mississippi, "I consider this State as disgraced and degraded, and I have sworn that I will not bring up my children within reach of its infamous doctrine." Partly, no doubt, the change of residence was dictated by the financial ruin which had overtaken him, in consequence of a land speculation based on a claim to property defended by the town of Vicksburg as commons. As early as March, 1834, he was employed as counsel by the claimants, and allowed to purchase an interest. Success in the first trials made him apparently very wealthy, as he desired to be—little, as he says, on his own account, but much on account of others. He was, in truth, a generous and even reckless giver, and was never weary of aiding his family and friends or responding to the demands of the needy. This side of his character is very attractive, and so is the affectionateness which distinguishes his not otherwise remarkable correspondence with his relatives. As a speaker he was singularly "magnetic"; no audience daunted him, and he seldom disappointed the expectations of those who knew him. To illustrate this we may quote an almost Homeric passage from Mr. Wise's reminiscences of Prentiss's arrival in Washington to contest his seat. "A party caucus was held to arrange matters, and it was proposed to take him and his colleague "somewhat in pupilage"; and "that some able and experienced members should be selected to procure for them the precedents, prepare arguments, and aid them before the Committee and the House." Mr. Wise continues:

"At this suggestion, Wm. C. Dawson, now Senator from Georgia, rose and said: 'Oh! gentlemen, you need be at no such pains; you will have no babes to nurse. One of those men is a host in himself, who can take care of Mississippi and rather help us to boot, than require our pap-spoons. He is not only full-grown, though low in stature and very lame in gait, but a giant, who is a head and shoulders taller than any man I know, here or elsewhere, for the task of prompting and defending himself. We need not say *Up-a-diddy* to him.'"

Such was the man whose biography is now revived. As for the book itself, it lacks all pretensions to literary excellence. Its chief merit is that in spite of its numerous reserves, which make its presentation inadequate, it raises no doubt of the editor's candor and conscientiousness. He has, with professional fidelity, improved every opportunity to point a useful moral to his brother's shortcomings or to the iniquity of the times. He fully shares Mr. Prentiss's detestation of the spoils system, and reinforces him in foot-notes and elsewhere. In this particular, as well as in the matter of repudiation, the book is still timely and has lost nothing of its interest by having suffered a temporary eclipse. Parts of it are worthy to be used as tracts or general ammunition by Honest-Money Leagues, Civil-Service Reformers, and Scratchers. Take, for example, the following extract from the speech on defalcations (Dec. 27, 1838), as bearing on Secretary Sherman and Appraiser Dutcher:

"Accordingly, he neglected his most important duties for many days, that he might use in the election that political influence of which the honorable Mr. H—— speaks with so much unction. The Secretary receives this excuse; recognizes its sufficiency, by not recommending his removal from office, as he had promised to do in case the reason should not be satisfactory; and has thus convicted himself of entertaining and practising the profligate doctrine that *interference in elections by an officeholder is not only justifiable, but involves a higher degree of obligation than the mere performance of official duty.*"

As a contribution, too, to the history of the country during the first half of the present century, this memoir has a decided value; and the interval between its former and its present publication (considering what has happened since Pierce's presidency) only renders it the more instructive to readers who have lost for ever some of the illusions of 1855. Its anecdotes of the public men of the last generation, or contributed recollections, and its occasional glimpses of the early state of society in the Southwest, make the want of an index keenly felt. Six pages of publishers' advertisements at the end of the work by no means atone for the omission, which even yet, however, may be repaired.

RECENT POETRY.*

MR. ARNOLD'S poem is in many ways the most "important" that has been published in English for some time. In both theme and treatment it is as ambitious as it is possible to be without pretentiousness; it is interesting enough to secure the popular favor which will miss its finer points, and as an intellectual performance its merit is unmistakable enough to secure the instant recognition of reflective criticism. It has, it may be said, a prodigious advantage in its theme. It might be called the Gospel of Buddha in verse according to Edwin Arnold, and the Gospel of Buddha is, as every one now knows, a very attractive thing. As Mr. Arnold says in his preface: "Forests of flowers are daily laid upon his stainless shrines, and countless millions of lips daily repeat the formula, 'I take refuge in Buddha.'" This is a little in the impressive vein of the London *Daily Telegraph*, of which Mr. Arnold is the editor, but it is scarcely misleading, and perhaps, all things considered, too much cannot be said in favor of the power and beauty of the story of Siddârtha as we know it. It not only has charm for all students and men of letters, and it is not only the gospel of "countless millions," as Mr. Arnold says, but to certain Occidental transcendentalists it has long

* 'The Light of Asia. By Edwin Arnold.' London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1879.

afforded a comfort and assuagement, so to speak, that bear the highest testimony to its potency, though by a strange perversity its superiority is often attributed to its essential spiritual identity with the religion of monks and nuns. At all events, any one who selects it for a theme, and who can feel as much at home in it as Mr. Arnold—"Companion of the Star of India; Third Class of the Imperial Order of the Medjidie; Honorary Member of the Société de Géographie, Marseilles; formerly Principal of the Deccan College, Poona; Fellow of the University of Bombay"; author of Indian translations and various other literary works, besides being editor of the *Daily Telegraph*—is relieved of an important part of the poet's labor, and need concern himself only with construction and presentation. The general conception furnished, his imagination may expend its force upon details.

But the disadvantages of the theme are not perhaps less real, although they may be less obvious. Mr. Arnold has sought, he says, to depict the life and character and indicate the philosophy of the founder of Buddhism. He has "taken the imperfect Buddhistic citations much as they stand in Spence Hardy's work," and though he has "modified more than one passage in the received narratives," he has probably invented little with deliberateness. Nevertheless, his poem is certainly not lacking in the license which it is the invariable practice, as it is the privilege, of the poet to indulge. All that one need ask is that the color of the story be faithfully preserved. "I have put my poem into a Buddhist's mouth because, to appreciate the spirit of Asiatic thoughts, they should be regarded from the Oriental point of view," he says, "and neither the miracles which consecrate this record nor the philosophy which it embodies could have been otherwise so naturally reproduced." This proceeds upon the supposition that it is possible for an Occidental, himself the product of twenty ages of Christian culture, to "naturally reproduce" these things at all. In order to reproduce them artistically Mr. Arnold's selection of a Buddhist mouthpiece is undoubtedly wise, but we fear not only that this simple expedient does not of necessity secure a "natural" reproduction, but that neither it nor any other can adequately avail for the difficult task Mr. Arnold set himself. We do not say that he is not in as absolute sympathy with his subject as it is possible for any western man to be, though the qualification in his remark that the personality he writes of is the "highest, gentlest, holiest, and most beneficent, with one exception, in the history of Thought" indicates that he is not prepared to go to the length which has been arrived at in some instances as far west as this country. But in a matter of such dignity the presumption is against his successfully putting himself in the place of a religionist of another civilization; and the presumption is borne out by the poem. The editor of the *Daily Telegraph* is unmistakably devout, and to the fact that his devotion is traceable in kind and quality to Christian rather than Buddhist springs, is to be attributed the general air of the Gospel according to St. John which his poem has. It is not, perhaps, equal to that work in certain human and divine qualities, but, except for the doctrine of the Atonement, its views are similar, and its picture of "our Lord" copies with exactness the lineaments which St. John traced. There is a good deal of Orientalism in the accessories; there are elephants and tigers, and an Aladdin's palace, and a tournament with a princess for the prize, and scenes, harem and other, that might have been taken from 'The Arabian Nights' *passim*. But there are also many Gospel incidents interwoven with these—the miraculous conception, the gifts to the infant, the confusion of the elders, the temptation, and so on. Even the language now and then curiously recalls our later Scriptures—"throughly purge" (page 220), for example. And the note of the poem, pervading every page of it, is self-abnegation. In fine, we question if this poem would ever have been written if Mr. Arnold and his ancestors had never read the New Testament, by which we by no means intend to deny the parallelisms so often drawn between Buddha and Jesus, of course, but only to intimate the sense of its untrustworthiness as a natural reproduction of the life, character, and philosophy of Buddha with which this poem leaves one. On the one hand, therefore, Mr. Arnold stimulates small confidence as a synoptic evangelist, and on the other it is not wholly due to him that we have in his 'Light of Asia' a noble and touching story, which can only be compared with that of the New Testament, as it is so often observed, and any passable presentation of which would have attractions that few narratives possess.

Mr. Arnold's presentation of it is much more than passable, but we shall not venture to call it poetic. Parts of it appear poetic, such as the lyric in the third book, and some of the sermon of Buddha before the king in book eight, though this is sorely weighted with its philosophy, which last is far too simple in essence to be paraded with pomp as a discovery. All the rest of the poem is the "majestic English iambic"—some five thousand substantially consecutive lines of it. This certainly necessitates a poetic force properly to be described as prodigious. But Mr. Arnold does not seem to us to have poetic force, though at times he displays something very like it. He has poetic appreciation in abundance. The second line of the following, perhaps the most poetic in the volume, does not quite attain what it so evidently aims at:

> "The nautch-girls in their spangled skirts and bells,
> That chime light laughter round their restless feet."

Recondite and exact as that is, it is nevertheless unimpeachable, and there is nothing to say in reply to any one who maintains it to be a spontaneous imagery. But there is nothing else of the kind, that we have noted, which equals it. This, rather, is what one meets:

> "Came forth in painted car, which two steers drew,
> Snow-white, with swinging dew-laps and huge humps
> Wrinkled against the carved and lacquered yoke."

That is precise, even vivid; but one thinks of

> "—yon heifer lowing at the skies,
> And all her silken flanks in garlands dressed."

And though a comparison of Keats with a poet who composes his works in the intervals of writing able "leaders" for the *Daily Telegraph* is unfair, it emphasizes the distinction between Mr. Arnold's verse and poetry—why should we not say poetic poetry as well as *vérité vraie?* His ear is in general admirably accurate, and such a line as

> "The fish-tiger of that which it had seized"

is very rare. His literary faculty, too, is so excellent that the slightest offence against taste, such as the needless abbreviations of

> "—in the brake how fierce
> The war of weak and strong! i' th' air what plots!"

is a surprise. Of course, in a poem of five thousand lines, with the metrical conditions of this, nothing is more natural than that the writer should simply translate prose into metre in many instances, and speak of a gate

> "With brazen folding doors, which but to roll
> Back on their hinges asked a hundred arms";

but the amount of this in 'The Light of Asia' would be fatal to its poetic value, even if there were more than there is of something with a very different and far higher quality. We should, however, do much less than justice to it if we did not make it clear that in spite of having its conception furnished it, in spite of its untrustworthiness as a "natural reproduction," and in spite of the rarity with which anything like distinct poetry is reached in it, it not only has passages of power and passages of beauty, but it is altogether an intellectual performance of marked ability. Many a better poem indeed has been the product of a less gifted mind.

'Blanid' is the very secret of rhyming prose. Persons who have read the previous work of the author, 'Deirdré,' will not need to read it except for the story. It reflects the merits and defects of 'Deirdré' with an almost curious but, as we have found, somewhat wearying exactness. There are differences; for example, the rhymed ten-syllable couplet, in which, if we remember aright, 'Deirdré' was written undergoes the slight change into eight-line stanzas, the last two lines of which make a couplet and the other six rhyme alternately, and these are varied by interspersed lyrics, which are well done and have the genuine Celtic cadence and spirit. This is an improvement, and relieves the monotony which cannot fail to characterize a few thousand ten-syllable couplets carrying no more poetic message than that of 'Deirdré.' Still, what would best afford this relief is an occasional variation, not so much in metre as in quality of thought, and an occasional change from essentially prosaic narrative to poetic significance. This we have not observed in 'Blanid.' It is, like its predecessor, fluent, occasionally vivid, entirely intelligible, and just beyond the confines of that kind of easy writing which proverbially makes such hard reading. Dr. Joyce's vocabulary is, if not large, at least adequate so far as he is aware, we judge, and his ear for rhyme and rhythm is generally excellent. He is never pretentious and he never descends to mere doggerel. Qualities like these, enduing an intrinsically interesting story of the golden age of Erin, create an eminently respectable, not to say interesting, work, though they are not of a sort that prevent one from being reconciled to the sacrifice of them which would be involved in a prose version of the legend such as Dr. Joyce could undoubtedly make. The argument is concisely this: Blanid, daughter of the king of the Isle of Man, refuses all her suitors, but at length falls in love with the son of

'Blanid. By Robert D. Joyce, author of "Deirdré."' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1879.

her father's most powerful enemy, Cuhullin. Cuhullin and the other princes sack the stronghold of Mana, but at the distribution of the spoils Blanid is won by a stratagem and taken away by Curoi, who subsequently defeats Cuhullin in a contest for her. The lovers, however, meet again and arrange for the slaying of Curoi, after which Cuhullin takes Blanid to Eman. Thither Curoi's minstrel follows them, and at a hunting-feast seizes Blanid and leaps with her from a precipice into the sea.

Mr. Strong's title should not prejudice any one against his volume, which is a collection that was worth making of what we take to be desultory verses written at odd moments. Their unpretentiousness is pleasant, although it is of a quality which intimates that neither the muse nor the needs of the author compelled him to the composition of them, which is saying that they have a noticeable amateurish air. Notwithstanding this and a kind of echo of much modern lyrical verse, which indicate that Mr. Strong has read and been very fond of the songs of the present generation of English poets, they have a stamp of their own. Their most prominent quality is their melodiousness, which is not only sweet, but has within its range considerable variety. The mere rhythmic cadence of many of them is delightful. Mr. Strong may, however, be said to sing as he goes for want of thought, and we find nothing of the sonnet nature in his volume so far as the elaborate polishing of an idea or a sentiment is concerned. He is very fond of out-of-doors and fairies and elves, and cobwebs glistening in the sun, "shadow and sunshine on the wall," "the green sea-waters in a glow," "the park with its satin sheen," and so on. The old romance is near his heart also, and one infers that he would be a good hand to turn 'The Three Spaniards,' say, into melodious verse. Not the least meritorious of the "midsummer dreams" are the *vers de société* at the end, several of which are not only smooth and musical but distinctly clever.

If every one who writes verses of the order to which the poems of Mrs. Beers and Mrs. Dorr belong should make a practice of collecting them, there would be a great many more pretty volumes which there is as little objection to as there is excuse for. Mrs. Beers is the author of the ballad "All Quiet Along the Potomac," and similar pieces of verse, more popular, perhaps, in the days when "Banty Tim" and its like were favorites than at present, and in their nature ephemeral, since they depend upon the reader's interest in the subject rather than upon the treatment. The "other poems" of the volume are collected from *Harper's Magazine* and *Weekly* and the *Ledger*, the preface says—the greater part from the last we surmise. "Friar Anselmo" is a gracefully-told incident of a monk's spiritual experience, conveying an excellent moral in an unobtrusive way. Its companions are various sonnets and short poems contributed to the magazines at various times, and having, many of them, a pensive tendency, not to say a deliberately pathetic intention. For such pieces as "Peradventure" (page 17) we predict popularity; it evinces just that refinement of feeling and literary facility which captivate the average household. Mrs. J. Luella Dowd also dwells much upon bereavement and such analogous matters as "Blighted Buds," "A Little Grave," "A Dirge," "In Grief," and so on, in her 'Wayside Leaves,' but we get few sensations from her exposition of them. On page 70 occurs a didactic poem entitled "Two Brothers," of which we give the opening stanza as an example of Mrs. Dowd's faculty:

> "There was a man who taught the creed,
> All orthodox was he;
> 'Jesus is Son of God,' he said,
> 'His death atones for me.'"

Of only slightly different quality are the poems of Mr. Ticknor, of whom Mr. Paul H. Hayne, in his introductory notice, says: "Technically speaking, his style is dynamic."

> "A summer Sunday morning,
> July the twenty-first,
> In eighteen hundred sixty-one,
> The storm of battle burst" (page 23);

and

> "Life's tapestry's woven so that it
> Shines just as you choose to look at it" (page 123),

may or may not illustrate what Mr. Hayne means. Mr. Ticknor was a minstrel of the Lost Cause, and of one of his ballads which celebrate it Mr. Hayne, doubtless knowing the excitability of his own people, exclaims: "Ah! how many thousands must still be living to whom this ballad, rounded and limpid as a tear, though simple almost to baldness in expression, must appeal with a pathos not to be resisted."

The anonymous author of "Fantasma," etc., is also of the warm South, as the abundant testimony of his verse witnesses. The best thing in his volume is a dozen lines on "Indian Summer," "written," says a note, "at a very early age; so early, indeed, as often to elicit *doubts* of so young a child's ability to think in rhyme, notwithstanding many well-known cases of more extreme precocity." "Fantasma" itself is an allegory in which figure a magician named Beauclerc, a victim, Lucia, her brother Florian, a poet who saves her from the magician's spell, his negro servant, Dan, very much attached to "po' Mas' Flo'," and a host of fairies, wizards, gnomes, witches, all of which the author casts into his caldron, and, after stewing them for a time to the music of his verse, lifts the cover and discovers a beautiful moral lesson about science, religion, etc. Two other long poems are equally exciting, but one's feeling is that the author should be forgiven if he will promise never to do so again.

The 'Cross' is a little volume of thirty-three short devotional poems, about which there is nothing bad at all; and though none of them probably will be incorporated in any hymnal there are many worse hymns in most collections.

'Midsummer Dreams. By Latham C. Strong' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.
'All Quiet Along the Potomac, and Other Poems. By Ethel Lynn Beers.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1879.
'Friar Anselmo, and Other Poems. By Julia C. R. Dorr.' New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1879.

'Wayside Leaves. By J. Luella Dowd.' New York: G. P Putnam's Sons. 1879.
'The Poems of Frank O. Ticknor, M.D. Edited by K. M. R. With an Introductory Notice of the author by Paul H. Hayne.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.
'Fantasma, and Other Poems.' Kansas City, Mo.: Ramsey, Millett & Hudson. 1879
'The Cross. By Charles F. Richardson.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 13, 1879.

The Week.

THE election returns in this State are unusually slow in coming in. Even at this writing, a week after the election, the result as to most of the State officers is still in some doubt, and the official canvass will be required to determine absolutely who the successful candidates are. The Democrats, perfectly assured on the morning of the 5th of the election of their entire State ticket, save Governor Robinson, are naturally surprised and perplexed at the changes in their prospects worked by subsequent returns. Naturally, too, perhaps, they view with alarm the constant attention to business which the Republican State Committee still shows, notwithstanding the fact that the election is over. General Arthur has sent out a circular letter to prominent Republicans in every county of the State warning them to watch the supervisors' count closely, "and generally to look after the interests of the Republicans in the important work of the official canvass," whatever that may mean. It now appears probable that the Republicans have elected their whole ticket except Soule, the candidate for State Engineer. The latest revision of the figures, involving estimates of only a few scattered election districts, gives the following majorities: Hoskins for Lieutenant-Governor, 622—a very narrow margin which may yet be reversed; Carr for Secretary of State, 2,068; Wendell for Treasurer, 3,040; Wadsworth for Comptroller, 6,053; Ward for Attorney-General, 7,220; Seymour for State Engineer—the returns for which office are extremely backward—from 6,000 to 10,000 conceded by the Republicans. The result may therefore be set down as a substantial Republican victory with little to spare and nothing to boast of.

Any thorough analysis of the vote is rendered difficult by the various complications of the canvass. The effect of the young Scratchers' movement was undoubtedly considerable. The defeat of Mr. Soule is unquestionably due to it, though there is an inclination manifested in Machine circles to attribute this to the personal popularity of Soule's opponent, Mr. Seymour, and—now that his uncle has permanently retired from politics—to the "magnetism of his name." Its direct strength may be gathered by subtracting the vote of Soule, for whom none of the young Scratchers voted, from that of the next lowest on the ticket for whom they did vote—Hoskins, namely. Soule's majorities in the different counties foot up to 68,278, and Hoskins's to 71,683, so far as reported hitherto, which makes the number of votes cast by the professed Scratchers themselves something like 3,500. But their indirect strength amounts to much more than this, and their estimate of 20,000 votes lost to Cornell through their influence is probably not exaggerated. It is admitted that many Democrats voted for Cornell as the surest way of "smashing Tilden," and for Soule for obvious interested reasons, in the canal districts; so that it is evident that Cornell's actual minority of some 35,000, assisted as he was both directly and indirectly by Kelly and the Canal Ring, is due to vigorous scratching, which would undoubtedly have been less vigorous had it not been for the organized activity of the new movement.

The exact amount of this influence it is, of course, impossible to determine, but it is manifestly sufficient to encourage the Scratchers to preserve their organization, and is a significant warning to the Machine. The Kelly vote, which reached some 72,000, was a surprise to every one, and explains in a measure, it is charged, the heavy Republican gains in the Legislature. But though the Democrats are not precisely agreed as to whether this is due to the "infamous" Republican apportionment or to Kelly's trading, there can hardly have been enough of the latter to account for the great Republican gains in both houses and for the comparative smallness of Cornell's vote. We take it that few trading Republicans scratched Cornell even in favor of Kelly, and that the latter's thirty thousand votes outside of the city were cast by such foes of Tilden's household as did not vote for Cornell. Doubtless, also, many Republican farmers voted for Robinson and economic State government. That the Cornell-Kelly alliance amounted to something in this city, however, is sufficiently indicated by the success of the Tammany candidates for the important but generally overlooked positions of aldermen.

An open letter sent, since the election, by Mr. George Bliss to General Arthur considers a hitherto greatly neglected side of the Republican campaign, namely, reform within the Machine. Upon that subject Mr. Bliss has some rather sharp things to say, and though they savor of insubordination, and though it seems the height of presumption to offer engineering advice to so expert a Machinist as General Arthur, we are bound to say that if any one is qualified to do this it is Mr. Bliss. He appears in the light of a wronged and aggrieved follower of the Machine, and bases his complaint on true Machine grounds. Two Republican politicians of unsavory record—out of purely revengeful motives, it seems—"sold out" the Republican candidates for aldermen in one of the districts—evidently Mr. Bliss's own—in a particularly underhanded and nefarious way. Mr. Bliss rehearses their treachery at great length, but strangely omits to make the definite recommendation naturally to be expected, that these traitors be "disciplined" by expulsion from the Republican associations to which they now belong. He does not even suggest depriving one of them of the office he holds, "through the gift of the Republican party," as Mr. Bliss bitterly observes. He says he has "personally no complaint to make," and if General Arthur can stand it, and can afford to pass it by in silence, without himself "initiating affirmative action," he is sure he can. He adds significantly: "If you allow your tools thus to act unrebuked, should you not retract some of your denunciations of the 'Scratchers'"? This seems sound on its face, but we suggest that General Arthur is entirely competent to determine unassisted the proper kind of Scratchers to denounce. Mr. Bliss is evidently a little confused on this point, as he further betrays by the perplexing admission that he believes "in the right and duty of bolting," which is apparently equivalent to throwing up his case entirely.

Further news from Virginia indicates that the Repudiators, or Readjusters, as they call themselves, have elected a majority of the General Assembly, and though some of the backwoods districts will not be heard from for some time, the result can hardly be said to be still in doubt, as it is unlikely that the regular Conservatives will gain anything from later returns. The campaign was a very excited one, and the situation at present is considerably complicated. The people of the State appear now to be divided into two main parties by the McCulloch Bill, which the Repudiators desire repealed, and which is in reality, even as it stands, a compromise between the State and its creditors. The old Conservative party being thus at war with itself, and its different factions carrying their enmity into all questions, the Republicans will hold the balance of power on general political matters, and may possibly gain the seat of United States Senator Withers by trading the lucrative State offices for it. The Virginia election becomes at once, therefore, "of national importance." It is, however, of national importance in another sense, and must be a source of shame to all debt-paying communities of the country. The Repudiators seem to have been composed of the worst elements of the Conservative party and the negroes, led by General Mahone, who is a shrewd and active politician. The Richmond *Dispatch* says the property-holders voted largely in favor of the McCulloch bill, and that "if it had not been for the negro vote

there would have been scarcely a dozen Agitators elected." This may be exaggeration, but there is no doubt that the negroes voted solidly for repudiation. There is, however, an important general inference to be drawn from this which goes far to atone for the evident specific error of the negroes—the inference, namely, that they vote as they please and do not blindly follow any white Republican bellwether, on local questions at least. The white Republicans are all Debt-payers, and had no influence over the blacks, who, for some local reason of an intricate nature, conceived, we believe, that in voting for the McCulloch bill they would be voting against public schools. It is worth remembering, perhaps, that in Tennessee a month or two ago the virtual repudiation of the debt was not charged to the negroes and had not even as good an excuse as this.

The Philadelphia *Press* accuses us of "conspicuously garbling" the Illinois and Iowa Republican resolutions of 1878, to which we referred last week, because, after quoting what they proposed to do, by way of protection for all citizens, we said they proposed to do it by "the Federal Government." As the *Press* places the resolutions before its readers in full, we are forced to admit that it is probably stupidity and not dishonesty which has betrayed it into its behavior on this subject. The resolutions declare that "*the complete protection of all its citizens* [those of the 'Southern section of the Union'], *in all their civil, political, personal, and property rights*, is a duty to which the Republican party stands solemnly pledged"; and "in order to redeem these pledges it placed recent amendments in the Constitution of the United States." We need hardly say to most of our readers that neither the Constitution nor the amendments can afford any man any protection, complete or incomplete, for civil, or political, or personal, or property rights, except through Federal officers and tribunals. The Constitution gives a man no remedy in State courts for being defrauded at an election or for being assaulted or robbed. Anybody who says he is going to protect all the citizens' rights by means of "amendments to the United States Constitution" means that he will protect them through the Federal Government, if he knows of what he is talking. The *Press's* explanation that the Iowa Republicans meant that they were going to protect the people of the Southern States in *all* their rights by State authority, under "the inspiration of the principle laid down in the new Constitutional amendments," is too silly for discussion. Its impudent suggestion that our quotation from the New York *Tribune* of November 5 was not to be found in the paper of that date we perhaps ought not to notice; nevertheless, we shall repeat that it is to be found in its original purity and absurdity in the fourth column of the editorial page, in an article under the taking and appropriate title of "More Fun at the Fair."

We did, however, fall into an inaccuracy in our quotation last week, but it was one by which the Stalwarts benefited. The Iowa platform announces, in fact, not that the Republicans were going to protect "all citizens," as we incorrectly said, in all their rights, through the amendments to the Constitution; but they were going to protect all citizens "of the Southern section of this Union," which makes their position still more untenable, and reveals the idea which is always vaguely floating in the Stalwart mind, that "the Southern section" is conquered territory, and that the amendments were intended for it alone. The little invention of the *Press*, that they mean to use Constitutional Amendments only as a fountain of "inspiration," is very droll; but one does not argue over hermeneutics of this kind.

The English of Presidential proclamations is apt, like that of Queen's speeches, to be somewhat defective, and President Hayes's Thanksgiving proclamation has been justly criticised on this score. But the matter of it is so gratifying as well as surprising that the manner will attract but little attention. He announces as reason for thanksgiving that "the material prosperity enjoyed by *our whole country* has never before at this season been more manifold or more universal (*sic*), and that our hearts have been made glad by the *general prevalence of domestic tranquillity*, and the supremacy and security of the great institutions of civil and religious freedom." Now, it is not to be supposed for a moment that the President would make, in anything so solemn as an invitation to give thanks to Almighty God, statements which were exaggerated or incorrect, yet how are we to reconcile this account of the condition of the whole country with the stories told by his Secretary, Mr. Sherman, on the stump during the late canvass regarding the condition of the Southern half of it? One thing is certain—one or other of these gentlemen has been saying things which are highly offensive to God, and are well calculated to draw down a curse instead of continued favor.

The strangest events of the week have been the accidents to the steamers *Champion* and *Arizona*. The former ran into a sailing vessel on a clear night and sunk in five minutes, with the loss of thirty lives. The captain accounts for it, according to the newspapers, by saying that the sailing vessel ran into him, which is a pretty bold statement considering that it was his legal duty to keep out of the way of the sailing vessel. The case of the *Arizona* was more extraordinary but less tragic. She is one of the largest vessels afloat, and had three hundred passengers, including one of the owners, on board, and was making fifteen knots an hour in a smooth sea and a starlight night, when she hit an iceberg of the largest size, without a word of warning from any one aboard. Of all this there is no doubt, but the story that the boats could only be lowered after long delay, when it was feared the ship would go down, has perhaps another side to it. In both accidents there appears to have been either no lookout or no lookout that was of any value whatever, and in the latter no thermometrical observations. Both show how frightful the risks are which people run at sea through want of discipline and vigilance. The lookout men are sailors of a low grade, and looking out is an unpleasant duty, which they are no more likely to discharge faithfully without being watched by their officers than they would be in the army to advance under fire. It would appear, however, that they enjoyed on the *Arizona* at least abundant opportunity for shirking. She was saved by her water-tight compartments, and we believe, although the compartments are regularly advertised as a means of safety, she is the first damaged passenger steamer for which they have done anything whatever. It ought, by the way, to be possible nowadays to construct some kind of glass shelter on the bows for the lookout men, which would protect them from the weather and remove one great temptation to neglect of duty.

The feud between the Catholic clergy and the state on the subject of the public schools, which is raging in France and Belgium, has broken out in Massachusetts in a very malignant form. A certain Father Scully, at Cambridgeport, has begun to refuse the sacraments, as his Belgian brethren are doing, to parents who send their children to the public schools, or fail to send them to the parochial schools. An appeal of his parishioners to Archbishop Williams has been met with cordial approval of his course. The objections to the parochial schools are that the teaching is bad and a tuition fee has to be paid for it, but the priest puts against this the danger of eternal damnation. We do not know that it is to be regretted that the Catholic clergy are taking this bold stand. It is not to our minds nearly so objectionable as the practice of giving ecclesiastical toleration to things in one country for which the church in another consigns people to hell or purgatory, which in a teacher of such pretensions is very repulsive. It is in all ways desirable that the church should show itself everywhere and always under the same colors. Another priest in Massachusetts has been cast in heavy damages for keeping people, by threats of ecclesiastical censure, from employing a livery-stable keeper who had offended him. In Belgium the state schools are carrying the day, very few teach-

ers giving way under the threats of the clergy, and very few parents withdrawing their children. Nevertheless, the fight is one which the priests cannot be blamed for making.

Specie imports continue, and the total since the resumption of specie payments is now in round figures about $66,500,000, of which about $60,500,000 have arrived since the beginning of August. The larger part of the specie received has come out of the Bank of France, which lost about $30,000,000 between the beginning of September and the close of October; during the same time the Bank of England lost about $12,000,000 and the bank of Germany about $13,000,000. This heavy drain of specie from Europe to the United States, though natural enough in view of the short crops throughout Europe and our abundant supply of food products, has at last become so serious a matter that a movement has been made to check the flow of gold this way by advancing the rates for money at the European financial centres; the last to move was the Bank of England, which has put its discount rate up to 3 per cent. But foreign exchange still rules at figures which warrant gold imports, and there is little reason for doubting that fully $20,000,000 more foreign specie will arrive here between now and the first of January. So large have been the currency demands of the South and West on New York, and the demand for bank facilities to support the speculation at the Stock and other Exchanges, that even the enormous receipts of foreign specie have been insufficient to keep up the reserves of the New York banks, so that the loan market could not be easily manipulated by speculators. Accordingly money was locked up during the week, and rates for demand-loans early in the week advanced to as high as ⅝ of 1 per cent. per day in addition to 7 per cent. per annum. Relief, however, was given by reason of a purchase by the Treasury of $10,000,000 of United States bonds for the Sinking Fund. These bonds were 6s of 1881, and were bought at 106. The Secretary first invited proposals, and, as these were at too high a price, declined them all and gave notice that he would not pay more than 106, at which price the whole $10,000,000 were supplied. This purchase transferred $10,000,000 money from the Treasury to the banks, and made the money market easy at 6 to 7 per cent. Speculation in all departments continues wild, and the monetary stringency only temporarily repressed it. Silver advanced in London to 53⅝*d.* per oz. Here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced to $0.9049.

What about the conference for the adoption of the universal bimetallic standard? When is it to be? What adhesions have come into it? Has Bismarck given anybody an account of his interview with Mr. W. D. Kelley? We have been in hopes Busch would have something about it, for, as Bismarck tells it, it is probably a good story.

There seems to be little doubt that the British Parliament will not meet before the usual date in February, and that it will probably not be dissolved before the close of the session in August. Things are by no means in a condition to enable the Ministry to face the country, and such signs as occur, like the result of the municipal elections, have of late been very unfavorable. Nevertheless the Premier seems to have been in his jauntiest mood at the Lord Mayor's dinner, and described all his undertakings as prospering. He dwelt with much emphasis on the partial revival of business, which is certainly likely to do something for him. The iron trade has sprung up remarkably under orders from this country, and many of the cotton-mills have begun to work on full time. Silver, too, is advancing, which is going to afford considerable relief to the Indian exchequer. Sir Stafford Northcote was able under these favoring influences to put on a bolder front about the finances than he has ventured on of late; but it is none the less true that he will be most savagely and destructively assailed on this point when Parliament meets.

The stern attitude towards Turkey assumed by the British ambassador seems to have been due to the appointment of Mahmoud Nedim Pasha, who is a mere tool of Russia, to the Grand-Vizirship, and the introduction into the Ministry of two other pashas who have been dismissed from provincial governorships for cruelty and rascality. Mahmoud Nedim has given the most solemn assurances, however, that his accession means no change in the foreign policy of the Porte. There is no agreement yet with the Greeks, and the Palace is at its wits' ends for money, as it is still living on small loans. The Sultan's personal expenditure is now estimated at $25,000,000 per annum, and the total revenue of the Empire does not exceed $70,000,000. There has probably been no more singular episode in modern history than the persistence of England in the outward show of belief in his turning out a reformer.

General Roberts has acted with great energy at Kabul, having hanged five men in the first week, some of them high personages, both civil and ecclesiastical, for complicity in the massacre of the embassy, and ordered all the inhabitants to surrender their arms on pain of death. The country around seems for the moment to be tolerably quiet; but the Amir has not only abdicated but is now accused of connivance at the revolt, and is himself a prisoner in close custody, which is hard on an ally who so lately signed the important Treaty of Gundamuck.

There is much dispute in France and Germany as to whether the treaty between Austria and Germany has been committed to writing. The Cologne *Gazette* asserts positively that it has, and attempts have been made to fortify this by stories of the enormous difficulty experienced by Bismarck in inducing the Emperor William to sign a treaty which seemed an offensive demonstration against his friend the Czar. Other papers, however, deny it just as stoutly, and affirm that there is nothing in writing but a protocol of the conversation between Prince Bismarck and Count Andrássy. The point is of no great consequence, however, as long as the agreement is admitted. On the Continent of Europe it excites interest not so much for its possible bearing on the fate of Turkey as for its possible bearing on the relations of France with Germany. While Lord Salisbury is filled with a childlike glee over it as a protection for him against the Czar, European politicians ask whether it is not meant by Bismarck as a defence for Germany against a Franco-Russian Alliance.

Lord Salisbury, in his Manchester speech, described the news of the Austro-German alliance as "glad tidings of great joy," and explained further that he looked on it as a guaranty against further Russian aggression against Turkey. These remarks naturally have given great offence at St. Petersburg, and the Russian press has commented on them with much severity for their unseemliness, when directed against a Power with which England is, outwardly at all events, on friendly terms. The way in which they have been received in Germany, however, is more important, and cannot be considered pleasant for the Marquis. The semi-official *Correspondance Politique*, of Vienna, contains a letter from Berlin correcting his statements. It says the understanding between Austria and Germany is not "the triumph of English policy; that its object is not to protect European interests, but the interests of Germany and Austria, which must hereafter be respected by everybody, and not simply by Russia or by the Slavs." This is a very severe snub, considering how jubilant Lord Salisbury's language was. It gave the Marquis of Hartington, in his speech of a few days later in the same place, the materials for the rather telling retort that if the alliance is such an important event and so complete a guaranty for the peace of the East, it only confirms what the Liberals have always said—that Germany and Austria were just as much interested as England, and even more interested than England, in checking Russian ambition, and were much better able to do it, and that there was, therefore, no occasion for Lord Beaconsfield's warlike attitude in 1877, or for his threats to fight Russia with 20,000 men.

NATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NEW YORK ELECTION.

THE Republican papers have generally admitted, with a frankness which is very encouraging, that the late election in New York was from their point of view grossly mismanaged. They admit—with the exception of the *Tribune*, which as an Organ cannot admit anything—that it was not wise to pick out an exceptionally obnoxious person as a candidate for Governor and a convicted canal peculator as a candidate for State Engineer, and force them on the party, not even modestly or deprecatingly, but with insolence, jeers, and abuse. They acknowledge that scratching is not "voting in the air," and that managers need something more than "age and experience" to qualify them to make up tickets for a party which contains a fair proportion of the intelligence and morality of the community. Nothing, in fact, could well be more humiliating, from the manager's point of view, than the result. If it had not been for the Democratic bolt the Republican candidate would have been defeated by a majority of between 30,000 and 40,000; and he ran behind his ticket in nearly every district in the State. Mr. Soule, his companion in misfortune, ran so much behind his ticket, in spite of complete proof of his innocence furnished by the Organ immediately before the election, that even the Democratic bolt could not save him.

The rest of the State ticket, if saved, has been saved, after an unfortunately long count in the Republican districts, by majorities of a few hundreds. If the Republicans had entered into the struggle on State questions this would have perhaps been sufficient for their purpose, as it would give them possession of the State offices; but they entered upon it avowedly on national issues, for the exclusive purpose of producing a moral influence which would affect the Presidential election next year. They wanted a majority which would show beyond doubt that the State might next year be counted on for the Republican candidate for the Presidency. They have, however, obtained no such result. In so far as they have shed any light whatever on the condition of State politics, they have made it appear that the Democrats have only to re-establish "harmony" in order to carry the State for anybody but Tilden. Far from discouraging the Brigadiers, they have encouraged them. Far from inspiring confidence in the sagacity and foresight of the party management, as at present constituted, they have spread fatal distrust of it. In saying all this we are not using language nearly as strong as has appeared in some of the most faithful party newspapers. The original offence of the State politicians, too, has been aggravated, and its consequences made to flow over the State borders, by the unfortunate appearance of the Administration on the scene in the persons of Mr. Evarts and Mr. Sherman to defend and apologize for the local tricksters, and persuade the honest voters of the State that they would be foolish not to make Governor of New York a man who was declared by themselves incapable of filling a subordinate custom-house office, and not to make State Engineer a man convicted of canal frauds.

There is, however, another way of looking at the matter than the manager's way, and this undoubtedly makes everything, except the share of the Administration in the affair, both hopeful and encouraging. The Conkling mode of party management—or, as it is now called, "Conklingism"—is ten years old. It began with Mr. Conkling's success, about 1869, in securing General Grant's confidence and obtaining from him, as soon as he began to throw civil-service reform overboard, the full control of the Government patronage in this State. A machine of unusual vigor and efficiency was then rapidly built up, of which Mr. Conkling had complete command, at the cost—to use the New York *Tribune's* language—of "consistently aiding the least decent and praiseworthy element" in the party, and "covering up its rottenness." In this sort of work he has been trained from his boyhood. For politics in the larger and better sense of the term—that is, for the study and solution of questions of legislation or administration—he has never shown any taste or capacity. He, as a general rule, has always avoided such topics in Congress, and has evaded them continuously and successfully on the stump at home. His speeches in the local canvasses ever since he became prominent in public life have consisted almost exclusively of denunciation of the Democrats, and of appeals to the passions and prejudices left behind by the war. The circumstances of the time made this policy successful. As long as General Grant was in power it was eminently successful. But Mr. Conkling would have been more or less than human if prolonged command of a party majority through machinery on which public opinion acted feebly, if at all, and which worked in absolute separation from the social and economic problems of the day, did not breed in him arrogance and contempt for all forms of dissent or criticism. It would have done so even in a modest man, who had no taste for intrigue and no love of power. The change it was working in him was visible when he made Murphy collector of this port, and it has grown steadily ever since. One did not need much experience of either human nature or politics to foresee that it must culminate in some such outburst of insolence as the Saratoga nomination. No man of the Conkling type, even in its higher grades, has ever run very long a course of unbridled indulgence of personal ambition, caprice, and prejudice, surrounded by petty flatterers, without losing his head and doing something too outrageous for endurance. The ease with which he stepped into the Senatorship last year, after his quarrel with the Administration, was probably what led him to fancy that he need put no further check on himself, and might even put his horse in the State governorship without giving any better reason for it than that the state of things in Louisiana and Mississippi was not satisfactory to him.

The friends of good government have much reason to be thankful that he took his boldest step this year, and thus prepared them for the Presidential convention. Had he been modest and forbearing at Saratoga, and even feigned acquiescence in the more liberal tendencies of the party, he might easily have carried off the honor of the majority which a better ticket would probably have secured, and used it to aid in the nomination of somebody for the Presidency who would give him back the place in the Government he occupied from 1869 to 1876. As matters stand, he has roused an opposition which has revealed the fact that he does not control the State, and that it probably cannot be counted on for his favorite candidate, and that the power of the "Solid South" as a bugbear has probably been exhausted, or greatly diminished. He has, too, placed New York distinctly in the list of doubtful States—a fact which will probably have a most important bearing on the action of the Presidential conventions of both parties. What makes it doubtful is not that the main body of each party cannot be counted on to vote almost any ticket that will be presented to it, but that there exists a body of voters, large enough to turn the scale, who are not satisfied with the ordinary party considerations in the selection of candidates, and who demand of parties some sort of effort, be it never so small, to put the politics of the country on a higher level in their nominations and platforms. Next year, owing to the great weight of New York in the Presidential scale, if the Independents keep alive their organization and activity, each party will be warned by Conkling's fate into doing something to conciliate the body which can probably give it the victory. In other words, each party, instead of producing what ordinary men consider its most worthless and objectionable materials, will probably produce its best.

But no matter what efforts may be made by fragments of the party, no radical and permanent improvement, no real reform, can be looked for within the Republican party until the Southern question is relegated to its true position. It is now essentially a question of foreign politics. It relates to the moral and social condition of a community for which we legislate in only a small degree, which we cannot be said to administer at all, and which it is not in human power to improve suddenly by any law-making. To make it the one subject of our political thought, the great issue at all our elections; to cultivate a heated and even furious and credulous state of mind about it, and make a boast of implacability towards Southern men,

as the Republican regulars now do, is to foster one of the most odious and calamitous of human weaknesses. The Stalwart is inflamed against people whose burdens he does not propose to share, whose good qualities he has little opportunity of witnessing, whose prejudices and antipathies seem ridiculous because they are not his own, from whom he is widely separated by tradition and social, if not political, history, and whom in most cases he carefully avoids visiting. No healthy or rational politics is possible to any party which is greatly ravaged by this disease. No party in this or any other country can long produce great men or great measures that makes its chief motive a frantic preoccupation with the concerns of a community with which it has no sympathy. To bring the Southern question, therefore, into its proper position in Northern politics, and to establish a due proportion between the attention we give it and the action we can take with regard to it, is now the first work of reformers. It is almost as necessary to the right discharge by the Republican party of its duty to the whole country as silence is to rational discussion at a public meeting.

THE PACIFIC RAILROADS AND THE GOVERNMENT.

IN the *Nation*, No. 747, we referred to the decision of the Supreme Court affirming the constitutionality of the so-called Thurman Act, which requires the Union and Central Pacific Railroad Companies to provide a sinking fund for the payment of their subsidy debts to the Government. In our next succeeding number we published a letter of considerable length from Mr. C. P. Huntington, Vice-President of the Central Pacific Railroad Company, criticising with considerable severity both the act and the decision, and holding up the companies in the light of victims of the nation's injustice. We have since received the full text of the decision and of the dissenting opinions of Justices Strong, Bradley, and Field. The principles involved in the case, and the magnitude of the interests affected by it, warrant a more extended notice than they have yet received at our hands, and more impartial treatment than Mr. Huntington has accorded to them.

The Court at the outset lay down certain fundamental principles which we are glad to see again affirmed by the tribunal of highest authority. They say that the United States cannot, any more than a State, interfere with private rights, except for legitimate governmental purposes; that the United States are as much bound by their contracts as individuals; and that they cannot be permitted to violate them, or to legislate back to themselves rights which they have once granted for a valuable consideration. They say further that, although the right to alter, amend, or repeal the charters of these companies was reserved in the acts of incorporation (to which the companies themselves assented in writing), this right cannot be exercised to take away property already acquired under the operation of the charter, or to deprive the corporation of the fruits, actually reduced to possession, of contracts lawfully made. Yet "this reserved power may be exercised, and to almost any extent, to carry into effect the original purposes of the grant, or to secure the due administration of its affairs, so as to protect the rights of stockholders and of creditors, and for the proper distribution of its assets." The words quoted are from a former decision of the Court (Miller *vs.* the State, 15 Wallace, 498). Consequently—and here lies the gravamen of the present decision—whatever rules Congress might have prescribed in the original charter for the government of the corporation in the administration of its affairs, it retained the power to establish by amendment.

Is the requirement of the Thurman Act that a sinking fund be created for the extinction of the subsidy debt a regulation to carry into effect one of the original purposes of the charter? It was distinctly provided in the charter that this debt should be paid. All the grants, of every kind and description, hinged upon that. The Court hold that the Act of Congress in question was clearly within the rule laid down in Miller *vs.* the State, already cited, and that, so long as payment of the subsidy debt before its maturity was not required, but only the setting apart of funds to secure payment at maturity, Congress was the rightful judge of the means by which that end should be attained. If the State may lawfully require an insurance company, after its incorporation, to set apart funds to meet its losses by fire, instead of dividing all its premium receipts among its shareholders, so may Congress, under its reserved power, in this case make a similar requirement. They say further:

"The property of a corporation constitutes a fund from which its debts are to be paid, and if the officers improperly attempt to divert this fund from its legitimate uses, justice requires that they should in some way be restrained. A court of equity would do this if called upon in an appropriate manner, and it needs no argument to show that a legislative regulation which requires no more of a corporation than a court would compel it to do without legislation, is not unreasonable. . . . A legislative regulation which does no more than require them [the stockholders] to submit to their just contribution towards the payment of a bonded debt, cannot in any sense be said to deprive them of their property without due process of law."

The case of the Central Pacific Company is somewhat different from that of the Union Pacific, in that the former is a State and the latter a national corporation. But inasmuch as that company derived no powers from the State to build a road beyond the limits of California, and since it voluntarily submitted itself to the Pacific Railroad Acts of Congress by filing its acceptance of the same and receiving the lands and bonds of the United States, it must be held subject to the same requirements as the Union Pacific. That no substantial injustice results from this construction may be inferred from an examination of the fundamental law of California at the time the Central Pacific Company received its charter. By the constitution of the State no railroad company could borrow money to an amount exceeding its own capital stock, and for all money borrowed it was required to provide a sinking fund. The capital stock of the Central Pacific Company was only eight and a half millions of dollars. It borrowed money to the amount of more than six times its capital stock, and the power to do so must have been derived from Congress, which extended to it all the rights, privileges, and franchises given to the Union Pacific except the mere right to be a corporation.

Of the three dissenting opinions filed that of Justice Field is much the ablest. He addresses himself mainly to the case of the Central Pacific Company and its status as a State corporation. The opinion of the majority of the Court, according to Justice Field, goes to the length of holding that "the United States have only to make a contract with a State corporation, and a loan to it, to oust the jurisdiction of the State and place the corporation under their direction." He discusses also, at less length but with more clearness than Justices Bradley and Strong, the general principles underlying contracts between the Government and its citizens, but he fails, we think, to meet or explain away the doctrine laid down in Miller *vs.* the State. Justice Bradley attempts to do so by holding that the contract with the Pacific Railroad Companies is an executed and not a running contract, but he passes too easily over the fact that it was a part of the contract that the subsidy debt should be paid—a part which certainly remains as yet unexecuted. Justice Bradley's opinion is extremely acrimonious. The Thurman Act, in his view, "sets the example of repudiation of Government obligations. It strikes a blow at the public credit. It asserts the principle that might makes right. It saps the foundations of public morality." Such language from a judge who joined in reversing the legal-tender decision, and in laying down the doctrine that Congress may legislate backward indefinitely upon contracts between private citizens, is not calculated to promote harmony between the legislative and judicial branches of the Government, or to make an agreeable impression on the public mind. The main point in Justice Strong's opinion is, that the contracts between the Government and the Pacific Railroad Companies were not made by the acts of Congress of 1862 and 1864, but were subsequent to and independent of those acts; because, he says, the companies might have refused all Government aid and have built the roads with their own means exclusively. The contracts were made when

the subsidy bonds were issued and accepted, at various times after the passage of the acts, and hence are to be interpreted as contracts at common law. This appears to us the last extremity of hair-splitting.

Not much needs to be said in reply to Mr. Huntington. If the Pacific Railroad Companies have been anxious, as he alleges, to make adequate provision for payment of their debts to the Government, and have been making fair and just proposals to that end for several years back, the public have been singularly ill-informed. The only proposals which have been much discussed were proposals to extend the loan and allow it to pay itself, to a large extent, by the operation of compound interest running in favor of the companies against simple interest running in favor of the Government. It is an open question whether the companies, by their haste in pushing forward an inadmissible plan of settlement, did not stir up Congress to take action upon a subject which might otherwise have slumbered many years or indefinitely. "It is a matter of small moment," says Mr. Huntington, "whether the United States Government gets this subsidy repaid a few years sooner or later." As a matter of dollars and cents it is indeed of little consequence, but in all other respects it is of great moment whether the Government collects its dues from solvent debtors at maturity or not. A Government which does not allow a passenger's trunk to leave the dock till its claims for duties are paid, or a barrel of whiskey or a box of matches to depart from warehouse till the taxes are settled; which does not lose a moment in bringing suit on a defaulting beef-contractor's bond; which, in short, has no discretion but to pursue its property and its remedies with remorseless vigilance as against the poor and the rich alike, cannot forego or postpone its claims upon these great companies for any reason but inability to collect them.

THE THEATRES.

THE interiors of the theatres furnish a gratifying indication that their managers have regained that confidence in the commercial future of the country which, as economists know, is one of the essential conditions of progress in the dramatic art. The very close connection in New York between the prices of "active" securities and the success of the theatrical season has often been noticed, and the managers this year seem to have been gifted with a prophetic vision of the returning prosperity which has already had such a marked effect in Wall Street; for they have spent the summer in redecorating and refurnishing, in anticipation of a season of just the sort that the coming winter is now certain to be—a winter marked not by the painful if healthy process of "liquidation," but by a largely-increased expenditure on all forms of luxury and amusement. At Wallack's and Booth's no pains have been spared to make the interiors as gay and attractive as possible, and both have been quite transformed by the alterations; while Daly's, formerly the Broadway, is really a new theatre, the pretty arrangement of which helps to obliterate from the mind the painful memory of the collection of stuffed birds and beasts of an earlier period. Mr. Daly is, above all other things, an enterprising manager; and if he has often failed in hitting the taste of the public, he has also often succeeded. His first venture this winter, "Newport," was certainly not successful, but he has now hit upon a new dramatic vein which might, we should think, be worked to great profit. "Wives" does not profess to be anything more than an adaptation from Molière. It has rather a confusing effect at first to see on a New York stage a number of Molière's best-known characters and types, acting in English, and decidedly modern English at that. The old guardian with the young ward whom he has brought up in ignorance of the world and its ways to be his wife, and who knows quite enough of them to make an egregious fool of her preceptor, and to select her husband for herself; the delightfully unscrupulous valet who manages his master's love-affairs for him; the gallant but not over-brilliant lover whose brains have to be supplied by the valet—all these are types of French comedy of the seventeenth century, and it required a good deal of boldness to attempt their reproduction in English at the present day. But the result proves their remarkable vitality and inherent truth to nature; for "Wives" certainly makes a very amusing comedy. It is very broad comedy, as all the comedy, whether English or French, of two centuries ago necessarily seems now to us. It even becomes farcical at times, and from the point of view of the purist much might be said in criticism of the very clever actress who plays "*Agnes*—with a song." But we confess having laughed too heartily at "Wives" and at Miss Lewis's *Agnes* to be critical about them. We trust that this new kind of French adaptation may be persisted in; for though it may tend to vulgarize Molière it will give us plays quite as amusing and more wholesome than modern French dramatic literature is likely to afford.

At the Union Square "French Flats" (*Les locataires de M. Blondeau*) is having a run. This is essentially a farce, not less so, except that it is longer and has more plot, than "Slasher and Crasher" or "Poor Pillicoddy." It is a French farce, however, and therefore more amusing than English farces are apt to be. "French Flats" is the story of a retired *bourgeois* who determines to spend the latter part of his life in peace and quiet with his young and pretty wife in a house of his own—or rather a "flat" of his own, for he means to derive a rent from that part of the house which his family does not occupy. He has every prospect of peace and happiness before him; he has engaged his daughter to an old bachelor whom he considers a good match; the house pleases him, the other flats are well rented, and everything promises repose and happiness. Unfortunately, the hair-dresser who has one of them turns out to be a man who knows the fatal secret of *M. Blondeau's* career—that he too has once been a barber; the tenor who inhabits another has been the successful rival of *M. Blondeau* in the affections of a lady, has in retaliation been hissed by *M. Blondeau*, and has vowed a deadly vengeance if they ever meet; the young and poetical clerk of another of *M. Blondeau's* lodgers, a lawyer, is madly in love with *M. Blondeau's* daughter, and she returns his passion. This merely gives a faint hint of the complications which ensue. All the acting in "French Flats" is very good. It seems rather a degradation to give such a good comedian as Mr. Parselle a part like that of *M. Blondeau*, but it would be difficult to imagine it better done. Mr. Stoddart, as *M. Bonay*, is an excellent attorney—and it does not make much difference in an adaptation of this kind whether an attorney was precisely the kind of lawyer the French author had in mind or not; Mr. Lemoyne, who in farcical parts has an abundance of *vis comica*, makes the elderly but apparently unreclaimed bachelor, the intended son-in-law of *M. Blondeau*, very funny; while Mr. Polk's *Riffardini* is a masterpiece of burlesque acting. It is also something better than mere burlesque, for there is a distinct conception of the character burlesqued behind it. Mr. H. Courtaine as the *Marquis de Barrameda*, and Mr. Walden Ramsay as *Billardo*, the poetical and unscrupulous clerk, are both good enough to make the success of an ordinary play. The great secret of the remarkable success of the Union Square has lain in the thorough training of the actors, and an excellent illustration of this occurs in the course of "French Flats." One of the minor characters is *Pluchard*, an old clerk of Bonay's, who is discovered in one of the scenes seated on a high stool writing at his desk. He is stone deaf, and his whole part consists in getting down from his stool, when his cue is given, putting on his hat and coat, and leaving the room. This little piece of acting was done by Mr. T. E. Morris in such a way as to show that he had really considered how a deaf old clerk would be likely to get down from his stool and leave a room. It is an indication, too, of the profitableness of careful acting that this minute bit of "business" brings down the house.

At Wallack's, "Contempt of Court," after a fairly successful run, has been replaced by Byron's "Our Girls." The first play was immediately on its production denounced by the press as "immoral," and certainly it is not the sort of play to instil a love of virtue into the minds of the young. But it belongs to a class of plays which we supposed had, like opéra bouffe, established their right to a place on the English stage. The central idea on which this sort of drama turns is that a public masked ball is an entertainment to which married men of established social position, slightly disguised by means of false noses, occasionally resort for the purpose of "making a night of it," and that their wives are apt to follow them in dominoes; wives and husbands once there, there is, of course, every opportunity for complications which a playwright could desire. Such a situation may be made as immoral as you please, but in "Contempt of Court" it is not so much made bad as made amusing. As a play it can hardly be said to deserve serious attention. It is, like its congener, "Forbidden Fruit," simply a succession of absurd situations. The acting of Mr. Beckett as *Clicquot* did much to make a success of the play.

"Our Girls" is the first modern English comedy with a serious purpose which has been produced this autumn, and as such is entitled to more consideration than such trifles as "Contempt of Court." Mr. Byron is one of a very small but deserving body of men who are doing what they

can to elevate the English drama from the slough into which it has sunk, by writing real modern comedies. "Our Boys" was so successful a comedy that it may fairly be said to create a presumption in favor of "Our Girls." The play is very well put on the stage. The acting of Mr. Beckett as *Plantagenet G. Potter*, of Mr. Edwards as *Mr. Clench*, of Madame Ponisi as *Mrs. Clench*, was all that could be desired; indeed, Mr. Beckett shows in his part talent of a very uncommon order. Miss Rose Wood and Miss Stella Boniface acted the parts of the two girls fairly well, and Mr. Barrymore came off very creditably as the sculptor. On the whole it is safe to say that if "Our Girls" does not run very long at Wallack's, it will be due to the play, not the acting. The plot is of the simplest. *Mr.* and *Mrs. Clench* are an elderly couple who have both been married before and have each a child, for whom, of course, they respectively desire all the happiness in life. *Mrs. Clench* brings up her child on the romantic theory of life, that real happiness is to be found not in money, or in what money can give, but in true love and affection. *Mr. Clench's* theories of life are quite different. He has struggled with adversity and learned the value of money, and knows that without money life is a dreary treadmill. He accordingly determines that his daughter shall make a rich match. The first defect in the play which reveals itself is in the part of *Mr. Clench*, whose sordid views do not comport at all with his real character, which is, as almost at once appears, entirely unselfish. That a fond father with a good heart should marry his daughter to a hopelessly vulgar and selfish brute like *Potter* is absolutely out of the question. But, however that may be, *Potter* does marry *Mabel Clench*, and takes her off to help him spend his money, while *Clara Merton*, the daughter of *Mrs. Clench*, marries the young and poor sculptor, *Tony Judson*.

The first act ends with the ratification of the two engagements by the parents, and is very good. The machinery is a little old-fashioned, perhaps, the characters representing the good and bad tendencies of the plot being matched in evenly-balanced pairs, but the idea is very well carried out and the interest well sustained to the end. Of the second and third acts, however, this cannot be said. As somebody once very justly observed of another dramatist, if Mr. Byron could write a play, it would be a very good play. The difficulty with him as a dramatist is that he is clearly unaware that a play without action is a contradiction in terms. His theory seems to be that a play ought to be all dialogue, the action taking place between the acts or behind the scenes. Undoubtedly Mr. Byron understands dialogue very well. If he did not, it would be impossible to act "Our Girls" at all. The second act is almost all dialogue. *Potter* has married *Mabel*, and *Tony* has married *Clara*, and *Potter* and *Mr. Clench* have been speculating unluckily (behind the scenes), and *Old Jonas Somerville*, the uncle, whose heir *Tony* considers himself to be, has been marrying again (between the acts), and *Tony* and his wife are going to give an afternoon tea-party, which never comes off, and there is a long series of family altercations, disputes, threatenings, insults, which come to nothing except a grotesque climax, in which the ruined *Potter* discovers that his rich uncle has married again, and sinks in a heap into a chair. In the third act we have the whole family reduced to great destitution, all living together, *Potter* having disappeared from the scene, as has also *Lord Aspland*, who was a firm friend of *Tony's*, but who, in a fit of absence of mind, has gone to the centre of Africa to shoot buffaloes. Meantime *Potter's* wife, who, during the period of his prosperity was an unhappy woman, has become in his absence devotedly attached to him. *Mr. Clench* has turned out to be a man of the greatest delicacy of feeling and generosity of character, sitting up the greater part of the night to work, so as to get together a little sum of money for his son-in-law's rent. At this stage of the play it is difficult to imagine how Mr. Byron's good-nature will induce him to end it. The way which he selects is most extraordinary. He introduces *Potter*, sunk to the last stage of poverty and degradation (the work of ruin has been accomplished behind the scenes)—neither more nor less than a tramp, thoroughly repulsive in appearance, and evidently a hopeless wreck as to character and habits, and effects a reconciliation between this brute in the form of a man and his wife. Then of course *Lord Aspland* returns from the centre of Africa, the news is brought from behind the scenes that *Jonas Somerville's* wife is dead, and all ends happily. There is no well-defined and sustained character in the play except *Potter*, who, whether as a prosperous "cad" or a maudlin tramp offering himself as a model for Diogenes, is true and thoroughly good. As a whole, the play has no coherence or meaning, and can hardly be expected to have a long run.

SOUTHERN REGENERATION AND THE ENGLISH LAND QUESTION.

Kansas City, Mo., November 5, 1879.

AMONG the many rising towns of this country it is tolerably safe to say that there is not one which just at present affords so much food for reflection to an observant tarrier as Kansas City. Situated on the extreme western border of Missouri, at the junction of the river of that name with the "Kaw," as the inhabitants pronounce the Kansas—built upon a high bluff, scarred and seamed with deep ravines which seem designed to make civilized streets impossible—a sudden outgrowth in the very hot-bed of the old border-ruffian stamping-ground—Kansas City is interesting from many points of view. Two only of these, however, do I now wish to refer to, but these deserve attention. Kansas City is a species of meeting-point at which the active, commercial enterprise of the North has come in contact with, and is struggling for ascendency over, the traditional Southern element. But, while the representatives of the two opposing social systems which have divided this continent are thus quietly, and indeed unconsciously, measuring strength, they unite their efforts in actively developing certain interests which seem likely to produce results for others scarcely less momentous than those brought about for themselves through the slaveholders' rebellion. There is a cloud, ominous for some one, gathering over the Plains west of this city; and here, more completely, perhaps, than anywhere else, one realizes the character of the danger which is threatening the landed interests of Great Britain. It seems strange that it should be so—and the fact affords proof striking enough of the always growing solidarity of modern interests—but apparently the English question of land-tenures is being most rapidly solved, or rather forced on to a solution, by the course of events west of the Missouri.

As respects the first of the two matters which have been referred to—the struggle between the two social systems which have here met—it is curious to see the extent to which an original leaven makes itself felt. Before the war Kansas City did not exist. It was simply Westport-Landing—a forbidding spot on the southern bank of the Missouri, consisting of a few warehouses, planters' dwellings, and negro shanties, scattered loosely along the river levee, with a tavern for its most prominent feature. A mere steamboat stopping-place, it was no more important than a dozen others up or down the stream, and immeasurably less important than several. Insignificant as it was, too, the place shone but with a borrowed light. Here persons and merchandise were landed to toil, or be painfully hauled, up through the steep ravines to the summit of the bluff before striking the old Santa Fé trail, which began six miles farther on at Westport. All this is changed. Westport, then a thriving town, and more lately the head-centre of much that was worst in the last days of slavery, is now a picture of desolation. Its business is gone; its warehouses are closed; its inhabitants have departed or are idle. Meanwhile the volume of exchanges effected at Kansas City is simply marvellous. Unmistakable signs of business activity are everywhere seen. Whole streets are being built up at once, as in Chicago or Boston after the great fires. All this is Northern. Underlying it, however, and everywhere cropping out on the surface, is Missouri unthrift. Of private enterprise there is abundance; nowhere are there any indications of public spirit. The streets are unpaved and inexpressibly filthy; they are cut up by railway tracks, upon which are run the dirtiest of street-cars in the utmost disregard of public convenience; they swarm with hogs, and the sidewalks are suggestive of the gravest peril to limb, if not to life. There are few public buildings; no public squares; no attempts at beautifying. The citizens seem to be absolutely devoid of pride, except in regard to the business their city does. All this is obviously due to the presence of the old Southern element; and yet its results will be apparent just so long as the place exists. They cannot hereafter be eradicated. In every respect, except commercially, the city is starting on a wrong plan; and what is now being done cannot presently be undone.

Yet here, if anywhere at the South, it might have been supposed that at the close of the war outside industry and enterprise could have flowed in and found an unoccupied field open and free for its own development. It was nothing of the kind. The outside enterprise did come in, and has worked wonders; but none the less, socially and traditionally, the place remained what its surrounding population was. Such it is to-day. A little leaven has leavened the whole loaf. From its negroes, its mules, and its hogs to its streets, its market-place, and its public buildings, the city is a Southern city; and a Southern city it will for years continue to be. All this is very suggestive in connection with the Southern problem,

now awaiting solution; for here certainly the conditions existed in their simplest form, and yet what an overwhelming preponderance of sheer force was necessary to regeneration is even yet apparent to the most careless observer. This, too, in a perfectly peaceful struggle, into which the negro element entered in a comparatively small degree. If such a preponderance has proved necessary in the case of Kansas City, leaving little to spare, what will suffice in that of the entire South ?—and where will it be found ? The complete absence of any approach to violence and coercion has made possible what has been accomplished here. Looking at the results, however, the prospect elsewhere is not encouraging. That, further South, the soldier and the sheriff could do anything more than make bad worse, I do not believe any sane man not a politician would ever suggest. But, measured by Kansas City results, the length of time which must be required for the gradual influx of the well-nigh incalculable mass of outside influences necessary to even a partial regeneration of the slave-holding States as a whole, is well calculated to tax faith as well as patience.

Turning now from this struggle for social ascendency, the material movement going on beneath it all will be found, while not less interesting, far more pregnant with future consequences. Indeed, as I have already said, it bids fair to result in something very like a revolution, the principal sufferer from which will be what is known as the foreign landed interest. I see it stated in the papers, how correctly I do not know, that the Duke of Beaufort was so impressed during a recent visit to this country with its grain-producing capacity, and the crushing nature of its competition with the English farmer, that he has advised the latter to give up the struggle and to devote himself wholly to raising cattle and sheep. If the Duke of Beaufort is indeed giving the English farmer any advice of this nature, the latter would do well, perhaps, before following it to bear in mind the ancient adage as to the relative discomforts of the frying-pan and the fire.

For several years I have had occasion to watch pretty closely the progress of cattle-raising on the Western Plains, and it now seems to me to be rapidly approaching what must prove to be a culminating point. Beyond the Missouri River, stretching to the Rocky Mountains on the west and from the Dominion to Texas on the north and south, is a vast region over which, until within the last few years, grazed almost countless herds of buffaloes. This region has at length been penetrated in almost every direction by railroads, and the buffalo has practically disappeared. Herds are no longer met with, and the few survivors from them have to be sought for to be hunted down. The original occupants of the region having thus been exterminated, domestic cattle have gradually taken their place. These have been brought up in vast droves from Texas, and the breed then improved by the importation of blooded stock from the East. The grasses natural to the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountain range, though very nutritious, afford but little pasturage, so that each head of stock requires a large space to graze over. The increase of the herds has, however, been very rapid, and now the country is full of cattle. The buffalo are gone and their place is occupied.

How is this change destined to affect the price of animal food? Hitherto its influence has been but little felt, owing to facts which at Kansas City become quite apparent. During the last ten years scarcely any business in the country has, it is safe to say, made such regular and enormous returns to those engaged in it as the cattle-raising of the Plains. The herds had an ample, unoccupied region for pasturage ; they increased as fast as the cows could bring forth calves ; they required no care in summer, and, without shelter or attendance, lived on the dried herd's-grass in winter. No rent had to be paid for land which no one owned, and no outlay in barns and expensive out-houses or tools was called for. All the ranch-owner needed in the conduct of his business was a shanty and a few horses upon which to mount his herders; and his possessions increased of themselves. Each year he selected from his flock the mature cattle to be forwarded to the markets at Chicago, Kansas City, or St. Louis; and if the prices there obtained were satisfactory to him, or he required ready money, he sold ; otherwise he discontinued his shipments, held his cattle on the Plains, and allowed their number to increase. There was room for all, and none were old. The profits on the business under these conditions, and so long as they continued, were simply enormous. They were estimated at fifty, seventy-five, and even one hundred per cent. per annum. The market never was glutted.

These conditions, however, cannot always continue. The country must at last become filled with cattle, through their natural increase, to the full limit of its capacity to pasture them. Once that point is reached any further increase must annually be disposed of at some price, or they must die for want of food. If the market will not absorb this supply at the present prices, the price must fall until additional demand shall be created which will absorb it. In any event, the increase can no longer be held on the Plains. As soon as this limit of subsistence is reached, therefore, a crisis in the cattle market is inevitable. The too prosperous ranchmen must lose their control over it. They have got to forward their stock whether they like the price they are getting for it or not. This changed condition of affairs has got to come. The only questions are, How soon will it come ?—and, when it does come, what is going to happen ?

Though inevitable in the not remote future, it would be premature, perhaps, to assert that this change of conditions is now at hand. The overflow of stock is being forced up into the valleys and parks among the mountains, and is finding yet unoccupied pastures in the extreme northern sections of the country. From Wyoming to Texas, however, the country is practically full. By whatever line of railway you cross the plains—whether the Union Pacific, the Kansas Pacific, or the Santa Fé—you never lose sight of the herds. For long distances the simple cause for wonder is where such numbers of cattle are able to find water and forage. The pressure, also, is beginning to make itself felt on the markets. It would seem as if it could not fail to become greater and far more seriously felt with every recurring season.

In what will this result ? The appliances for moving fresh meat, both upon the hoof and dressed, have been immensely improved during recent years. The growth of the traffic every one is familiar with, and it is yet in its infancy. Both the refrigerator-car system and the ocean carriage of live stock have but just begun. As the grazing region of the West becomes overcrowded, the live-stock markets at Kansas City, St. Louis, and Chicago will become glutted; as they become glutted the price of meat must fall ; new markets, both at home and abroad, must then be reached, and the appliances for reaching and controlling those markets must be perfected. The result is obvious. By means of improved appliances and low rates we have, during the last few years, secured for America the control of the bread-markets of the world. Other wheat-producing regions have been bankrupted, and what has been going on in Iowa and Chicago has been, perhaps, more severely felt in southern Russia and Odessa than anywhere else. It is the turn of the grazier and landholder of Great Britain next. How he is to escape the danger so plainly threatening him from the Plains west of here I do not see. There is the cloud, and it has been gathering for years. Any one may see it. No one starting from here and ascending the slope to the mountains can help seeing it. Its culmination is a mere question of time. It is the Malthusian law of population applied to cattle—that and nothing more.

It is not, therefore, easy for one looking out from this standpoint to resist the conviction that a revolution is now not remotely distant in the supply of animal food which will produce results impossible at present to forecast. Meat will, in the first place, be brought into much wider and more frequent consumption than has heretofore been known. This will undoubtedly result from that decrease in its price which will bring it into successful competition with other forms of food. Such a result, however, cannot be brought about without hurting some one. Those who can produce meat at the lowest rate and in the largest quantities will drive those who try to produce under other and less favorable conditions out of the market. They will bankrupt them, just as others have been bankrupted before. How can it be but that the ranchman, who has no rent to pay and who does not have to winter his stock, can and will undersell the foreign grazier, burdened with the rent of costly lands and compelled to provide fodder during half the year ? Strange and improbable as it at first sounds, therefore, it is not easy for one familiar with the aspect of affairs to the westward, as seen from here, to resist the conviction that, the Duke of Beaufort to the contrary notwithstanding, the English grazier has quite as much ground for uneasiness in regard to the future as the English wheat-grower. Nor are the old landed gentry of England themselves any too secure. On the contrary, they are in imminent danger of receiving at the hands of the ranchmen of Colorado the most deadly blow that has yet fallen upon them. Great Britain will yet be given up to cities, parks, dairy-farms, and kitchen-gardens.

SOUTH-GERMAN VILLAGE LIFE.

STUTTGART, October, 1879.

AMONG the new railway lines opened this year in Germany none so much deserves the attention of the tourist in search of the picturesque as that which now leads from Stuttgart to Freudenstadt, and

which, when completed, will form the most direct line to Switzerland, and the shortest route to Strassburg and the west. Although Stuttgart has long had the reputation of being the most beautifully located of German capitals, its claim to this title was never shown in so strong a light as when this new line was opened. The train, after leaving the magnificent depot, the finest in Germany, with the assistance of two locomotives slowly creeps along the vine-clad hills that shut in the city on all sides. As it gradually describes a wide curve the tourist gets ample time to view the city below him from a dozen different points of view, the scene being rendered still more piquant by the fact that the city repeatedly disappears for a moment as the train passes behind an embankment or through a tunnel, and when it comes into sight again it appears to have been rearranged as in a kaleidoscope.

A newly-opened line like this affords a good opportunity for visiting some of the old-fashioned villages that are scattered along or near its course. The civilizing influence of the locomotive has not yet had time to rub the paint off the quaint old customs of the place; while on the other hand you are not obliged to subject your skeleton to the slow torture of being tossed about for three or four hours in a stiff old coach. In going to a place not touched by the railroad it is a good plan, though somewhat more expensive, to take "extra-post," a vehicle which is rather more comfortable and respectable in appearance than the coach. You will then have the advantage of being taken for a man of wealth and distinction, and the peasants will stop from their work in the fields and politely take off their caps as you pass—a thing which they no longer do to ordinary passers-by. What first strikes the attention of the American tourist is the absence of fences around the fields, and of houses and stables for the peasants and their animals. The peasant goes to his home in the village every evening and in the morning returns to his field, which for the rest of the time is practically left without supervision. A sort of country-policeman, called Landjäger, is indeed supposed to take care of the fields and the orchards, but I have never been able to set my eyes on one of them, although I have more than once "borrowed" some of the apples and prunes that grow along the road. But as most of the natives are honest, and no water-melons are raised hereabouts, no special detective is needed for each field. The best orchards are in the immediate vicinity of the village, adjoining the flower-gardens of the well-to-do burghers; and the centre of such a garden is usually adorned with a simple but neat little garden-house, consisting of a roof and five or six windows chiefly, in which the family on a summer afternoon are apt to take their coffee or lunch, even though it be five minutes' walk from the house.

These suburban garden-houses are always the neatest and pleasantest part of a Suabian village. The interior of the village, though quaint enough, is anything but attractive. The time may come when, at least in smaller towns where space is not so valuable, the American habit will be adopted of reserving a plot in front of each house for flowers and shrubbery; but the locomotive will have to whistle a good many more times before it will have scattered these ugly congregations of houses, which the exigencies and dangers of mediæval feudal times seem to have piled together into one close heap, like a flock of sheep seeking protection from wolves. The streets are accordingly all narrow, and a window well exposed to the sun is a rarity. Besides being narrow, the streets are crooked enough to delight the heart of a Bostonian; but there is no excuse for this crookedness, as in the case of Boston, for over here the cows are kept in the stable all the year round, and cow-paths, therefore, are non-existent. This habit of always keeping the cows in the stable and never letting them out except when they are driven to the fountain for a drink, or hitched to a wagon, does more than anything else to give the South-German village a nasty appearance. For the stable is either part of the dwelling-house or adjoining it, and even in the main street the manure is without ceremony thrown out by the front door, where it accumulates in large, spreading heaps, and compels everybody to abandon the sidewalk and seek refuge in the street amidst the cow-drawn wagons, the scantily-dressed children, and the flocks of geese and ducks, which are everywhere raised in large numbers, less for their meat than to supply the demands of the feather-beds. One would infer from this state of affairs that the interior of the houses and the personal habits of the people must be rather filthy and uncanny, but such is not the case. The rooms are kept neat and clean, and are frequently adorned with flowers, or even pictures. I once saw this want of consistency in æsthetic taste neatly illustrated by a pot of beautiful flowers standing on a window-sill directly over a huge dung-hill. What makes it so difficult to make the villager realize the full hideousness of the nuisance in question is not so much custom, which blunts the edge of the olfactory nerve, as the absurd superstition, quite prevalent here, that the effluvia of the stable is conducive to health! As the contrary is true, a Suabian village cannot, in its present condition, be recommended as a resort to those who in summer seek relief from the close and mixed atmosphere of a large city. This is to be regretted, for many of these villages are not only healthily but very picturesquely located amidst wooded hills and brooks, and are otherwise rendered attractive; as, for instance, by a well-preserved mediæval chapel, or proximity to the remains of Roman roads and other structures.

Living also is fairly good and very cheap in any one of the taverns which usually line the main street of a German village. They are easily recognized by the sign of a stag, a lion, a star, a sun, or a tree, cut out in metal or wood and suspended into the street. Latterly, however, the custom has come into vogue of printing the name of the tavern on the house, so that the guests are no longer in danger of mistaking a lion for an ox, or of imagining they are in the tavern "Zur Linde" when they are in the "Sun." The room you receive is clean and comfortable, but if you go to bed with the intention of sleeping late you will certainly find yourself deceived. After three o'clock in the morning the streets begin to get noisy in a decidedly unpleasant manner. In larger cities coachmen and ox-drivers are forbidden to crack their whips without occasion, and it seems as if in the villages they wished to make up for lost time. Drivers of all sorts vie with each other to see who can crack oftenest in half a minute; and while some appear to imitate the rifles on a battle-field, set off by the occasional boom of a cannon, others, more peacefully inclined, show their skill in cracking little tunes—that is, the rhythm of them—in a manner which under other circumstances would be worthy of all admiration. Under such a régime you will be apt for a time to become a convert to the theory of early rising, and to while away the first hours of the morning you may put your head out of the window and observe what is going on at the fountain across the street, whither the water is conveyed from a neighboring hill. Here the servant girls bring their salads and their potatoes to be washed for dinner, and to carry back a bucket or a little tub of water for home consumption. This is always carried on the head, balanced with great skill, and it is most amusing to observe two or three of these women gossiping for five minutes and longer, without ever thinking of meanwhile taking the heavy load off their heads. Some of these girls are rather handsome for girls of their class, not so plump as the Bavarian or so angular and plain as the North-German women. In fact, next to the Rhine provinces I believe the finest-looking girls in the Empire are to be found in and about Stuttgart—the reference being here chiefly to the better classes of society.

A peculiar element of beauty here which has often struck my attention is that so many of the ladies, be they blondes or brunettes, have very long and dark eyebrows and eye-lashes, a custom which is worthy of imitation by the sex in general. In brightness and vivacity the Suabian girl is sometimes deficient, and her chief mental characteristic, as of the men, is still her *Gemüthlichkeit*, a word which has no English equivalent but may be described as a mixture of genuine kind-heartedness, naïveté, and a certain amount of greenness or optimism based on want of experience. But if the Suabian girl seldom reads the newspapers and takes more time to attain her social qualities, she is more industrious than her transatlantic cousins. Indeed, I have often wondered what becomes of all the stockings and other things they are always busy on, day and night, while the men, less industriously inclined, devote the afternoon and evening to old-woman's gossip in the tavern over half-a-dozen glasses of beer or wine. The common notion that wife and children usually accompany the husband to the tavern is incorrect. This happens on Sundays or on festive occasions, but generally the men go alone and return late in the evening, not infrequently in an exhilarated condition. That such a practice, the temperance and economical aspects aside, cannot have a pleasant effect on home-life is evident. True, in South Germany more weight seems to be attached to near and remote relationships than anywhere else in the world, but of genuine, sympathetic family life I believe there is more in an American than a German village, in spite of all *Gemüthlichkeit* of the latter.

The Germans are known as great eaters, and certainly the villager is not an exception. To him nothing is so incomprehensible as that we Americans should get along with three meals a day. He himself has no less than five or six: (1) Coffee and bread in the early morning, (2) lunch of cold meat or sausage and beer at ten, (3) dinner at twelve, (4) coffee again at two, (5) second lunch at four, and (6) supper before seven. Then

he goes to the tavern and drinks his beer, be he rich or poor, for a German always has money for beer. The cooking as a rule is good; but the most conspicuous thing on the table is still their everlasting veal, or beef used as soup-meat and deprived of all juice. The lower classes prefer quantity to quality, four glasses of bad beer to two of good; and the bakers complain that they are not allowed to make light bread, for their customers complain that it does not "fill up" so well as when it is heavy. The first rule of hospitality is to treat the visitor to something to eat and drink, and the thing is carried so far that in case of esteemed visitors the *Hausfrau* will confine herself to the kitchen all the time, so that it almost seems as if you had come to test her skill as cook instead of to see her personally.

In the way of amusement, the German villager has little to speak of; but some of the villages maintain a few traditional mediæval practices which to a foreigner are quite amusing. I may here mention two of them only, for want of space—the *Nachtwächter* and the Trombonists. Those who have heard Wagner's "Meistersinger von Nürnberg" will remember the comic effect produced towards the close of the second act by the old watchman with his lantern and cow-horn, who, coming slowly down the street, informs the sleeping citizens in a sing-song voice that the clock has struck "ten," always in the same stereotyped words: "Hört ihr Leute und lasst euch sagen, Die Glock hat zehn geschlagen," etc. Well, this self-same individual may be heard at any hour of the night, at a certain village near Stuttgart, only his voice is not so pleasant nor his song so well modulated as that of the *Nachtwächter* in the opera just mentioned. In fact, after he has repeatedly roused you from sleep to tell you what time it is, you are apt to vote him a nuisance, and his voice seems more harsh than it actually is. But the villager does not mind him any more than the whip-cracking in the morning. His fathers had him, his grandfathers had him—why should not he have him? In a word, he is a conservative, and I am afraid it is also owing to this fact, rather than to an appreciation of the beauty of the custom, that he persists in keeping his Trombonists. These are four men, usually common artisans, who three times a day mount the church-steeple, trombone in hand, and blow on each of the four sides an old German choral, in four-part harmony, so that it can be heard all over the village. This, which is literally a high-toned performance, is not always so figuratively; for, when I heard it, neither the instruments nor the players were of a high order of excellence. But in Stuttgart, which is in many respects nothing but an overgrown Suabian village, this custom fortunately is also in vogue, and the players being, of course, good musicians, the effect of their solemn strains is very impressive, and decidedly more edifying than the sound of a bell. I am aware that great poets have written most beautiful verses on the charms of bells; but these charms entirely rest on association, and not on any intrinsic qualities of the bells. From a musical or æsthetic point of view bells are a nuisance, and I believe that the more refined generations of the future will abolish them and substitute trombone-players for them, as is partially the case at Stuttgart. Certainly there is no other way of appealing so powerfully to two of the main elements of religious feeling—the sentiment of the grand and the majestic—as by means of the old Protestant chorals played on trombones from such an elevated position. I wish some enterprising minister in New York would set a good example by engaging a trombone quartet as a new species of church-music.

Correspondence.

THE CHAMBERS LIGHTNING-ROD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number is an article in which you ventilate the "Chambers" lightning-rod swindle, which is of special interest to me. In my endeavors to warn the public against its use I have incurred the enmity of some of the State papers as well as of the "Lightning-Rod Company." In a recent issue of the College *Quarterly* I denounced the rod as a "humbug" and a "fraud," and the company has commenced a law-suit against me in the United States Court for $50,000 damages. Hence the proof-slip which I enclose. As you see, the aforesaid rod is not only a "humbug," it is "dangerous," in the opinion of our most eminent scientists. This rod is now in use on several high-school buildings in the eastern part of Iowa, and many others of a private or public character. The agents of the company manage to get endorsements from prominent unscientific persons in each town, buy up the newspaper reporters and get a puff in the paper, and then on the strength of these they manage to swindle all sorts of people. I have seen their "experiments," and they are utterly valueless and prove nothing at all. Any person at all informed in electricity can immediately point out the errors in the experiments. This is unquestionably one of the most stupendous swindles before the public. I have six different circulars and pamphlets issued by the company, in which I learn that agencies have been established in the Western and Southern States and in New York. The enclosed proof-slip is an article which will appear in the next *Quarterly*, and I intend to give it such a circulation that the Lightning-Rod Company will always find it in advance of their agents.

Yours respectfully, J. K. Macomber,
Prof. of Physics I. A. C.

Ames, Iowa, November 3, 1879.

[This lightning-rod was very properly refused a patent at the Patent-Office.—Ed. Nation.]

THE SOUTHERN MIND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I for one protest against your referring to the 'Earl of Mayfield' as "an indication of the specialties of the Southern mind." You might just as well talk of the speeches of George Francis Train being "an indication of the specialties of the Northern mind." This is on a par with the performance of Mr. Froude in getting together a good many crimes committed in Ireland, and putting them in a chapter headed "Irish Ideas." The author of the 'Earl of Mayfield' wrote another book some time ago, called 'Col.' something—I forget what. They were both published at the North and were recommended by fulsome "opinions of the press." I never heard of any one in the South that had ever read either of them; and I believe that the people of the South are less given to reading such stupid books than you imagine.

Respectfully, U. M. Rose.

Little Rock, Ark., October 27, 1879.

THE MARYLAND ELECTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you give a regular reader of your paper a little space in your next issue to correct a gross and unjustifiable misstatement which appeared in the New York *Times* and other Republican journals the morning after the late State elections? I ask this favor with less hesitancy because you allude to their statement in your paper of November 6. These papers stated that the election in Maryland, and especially in Baltimore city, was the scene of the wildest disorder, and that the negroes who attempted to vote were shot down at the polls. It is a familiar adage that "one has to go away from home to learn the news," but the statement in the New York *Times* of November 5 to the above effect was certainly news to all Baltimoreans. The election here was one of the quietest and most orderly ever held. So far from negroes being shot down at the polls, the worst accident that befell voters, either white or colored, was a few black eyes. Not a single voter in Baltimore was seriously injured. The election in the counties was conducted in the same quiet manner. These grossly untrue statements only show to what ends the Stalwart papers are willing to go in vilifying and abusing the South for the sake of party capital.—Yours respectfully,

Stirling Pennington.

Baltimore, Nov. 8, 1879.

EXTRA-COLLEGIATE LECTURE COURSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent in your issue of October 30 suggests a way in which our city colleges may largely increase their influence and do a real service to "the constantly increasing class of young clerks, merchants, and university graduates." His idea is an excellent one, but not entirely novel to us in the West. Readers of the *Nation* may be interested in knowing that for several years just such courses of lectures as "A. S. I." suggests have been delivered annually in St. Louis under the auspices of Washington University. Five years ago a sum of money, amounting at present to $30,000, was given to the University by one of her oldest and best friends, Mr. William Henry Smith, as a lecture-endowment fund, the interest of which is used yearly for the support of courses of lectures intended to give those persons in the community not connected with the institution the results of the latest and freshest thought upon matters belong-

ing to science, literature, and art. The most of these lectures are given by members of the University faculty. A small entrance fee is usually charged, as much to secure an interested audience as to add to the usefulness of the fund. The results have been very gratifying. Business men, professional men, teachers, and mechanics have taken advantage of this opportunity, and the numerous enquiries made at this season of the year about the courses for the winter attest the public interest in what is no longer regarded as an experiment, but as a part of the regular and by no means least useful work of the University.

Our fund is, to be sure, not a large one—we are hoping for more some time ; but if we, with the comparatively small means at our command, in a city whose people have a reputation for staying away from lectures, can accomplish so much, the field must be an encouraging one in such cities as New York and Philadelphia, some of whose wealth might easily be turned into so profitable a channel. S.

St. Louis, Nov. 7, 1879.

[A similar course has since 1876 been delivered in Baltimore under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University. The lectures, of a high order, have been given in one of the halls of the University, generally from 5 to 6 P.M. The attendance at some of the courses has been very large.—Ed. Nation.]

LIFE OF VICTOR EMMANUEL II.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Permit me to correct an error in the criticism of the 'Life of Victor Emmanuel' in the *Nation* of October 2. The writer says "the chief defect of the book is in chronological distinctness," and the only example he gives is the following : "Chapter xxx. embraces, without either pause or transition, the Œcumenical Council of 1867, the Barsanti incident, March 24, 1870, and the Franco-Prussian war."

The fact is, that all these events occurred in the same year; though the Œcumenical Council held its inauguration meeting in December, 1869, its business was not concluded till late in July, 1870, and therefore it occupies its proper place under that date.

The typographical errors—which the critic rightly conjectures are owing to my absence from England—I extremely regret, but even the misprint of "7" for "9" in the opening sentence of chapter xxx. can hardly account for such an assertion as that of which I complain. A reference to a dictionary of dates would have made the matter clear.

I am, sir, yours respectfully, G. S. Godkin.

Florence, Oct. 20, 1879.

PROGRESS OF THE WOMAN SUFFRAGISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir: As you have thought it worth while to add one more to the many right interpretations you have given to the questions relating to women, I take the liberty of saying a few words in support of your last article. So few women raise their voices against the Female Suffragists that it may be well for some of us to speak out, even though there is little or nothing new to say. The contribution of an open support to opinions put forth by men, and, as you admit, inspired by women, is certainly not without its value.

I pass by the regular points of the discussion, and shall speak only of certain matters of fact.

The burden of a new duty is one of the chief objections which thoughtful women make to the suffrage. They are well aware that their present duties are not properly fulfilled. I say nothing of the duties of maternity, for that aspect of the question often seems to gall the advocates of female suffrage. I pass to the next duty placed specially upon women—that of social life. This is their own province, as they all admit, and the power it gives them is greater, is it not, than any other in the world ? What hinders a new regeneration—which some philosophers have dreamed—but women's failure, as yet, in their own special work ? And if they fail in promoting, to the extent of their present power, the *ends* of all government, all political effort and action, all wars and toils and sacrifices, of what use is it for them to step down from their present vantage ground and fight in the arena for results they have hitherto missed their opportunity to attain ?

All this seems rather vague, however. We must begin at the beginning, and ask ourselves how we do the duties that are nearest to us. How do we do our housekeeping, rule our servants, and minister to others, whether relations, guests, dependents, or sufferers ? Not certainly as men do their business—that is, methodically, thoroughly, for the best results with the least expenditure—in fact, not as a *business* at all.

Next, how do we use our influence, that vast power placed in the hands of women—our influence upon our children ? upon other women ? upon men ? I suppose few women can lay their hands upon their hearts and say that the management of their children has not been, in a greater or less degree, a compromise with their consciences. What a falling short of a possible result ! For the power that moulds a man is not the discipline nor the instruction of his life so much as the influence of his home. It is surely not too much to say that if the women of this century had been doing their duty to the world, Mr. Evarts and Mr. Sherman would not have done their last week's work.

The influence of women upon each other, or perhaps I should say the absence of all such influence, is the worst feature in their lives. There are many friendships among them so faithful, disinterested and supporting that they are among the best of human affections, but they are exceptional. At any rate, I speak now of the general relation which women bear to each other in society. Every candid woman is ashamed in her secret soul of much of her own conduct towards other women. How little we support each other as a sex in the duty of uplifting social life ; how unfair our interpretations ; how ready we are to injure each other's influence—indeed, it almost seems as if we did not know the nature of our power, since we neglect and destroy it as we do. We are a band of units ; not a body like men, who support each other through *esprit de corps*. It is true that women have each a world of their own where they are isolated, and in which they are jealous of interference or instruction. Nevertheless, our greatest need is for a public opinion among ourselves as to the nature of our power, and the use that we may make of it. Men are not in the dark as to their sphere or their duty ; and the other half of the world should clear their minds, and get a public opinion of their own as to theirs. Through them must come a new revelation : only it is not new, it is old—nearly nineteen hundred years old.

One does not like to use cant words—words that almost raise a laugh in some minds—and yet *the truth is this:* when women publicly and privately make intelligent, liberal, and living application of the principles of Christianity, and use their influence under the wise control of purity and love, we shall have reached the days of social and political reform.

The influence of women upon men—the greatest power for good that there is in the world—I shall not discuss here. It is a topic that seems to aggravate rather than inspire the advocates of female suffrage. I shall only say (though it seems a truism), that when women share in the active political duties of men, of which the right to vote is the outward and visible sign, they abdicate this power, and must take their chance in the rough-and-tumble of life, with no more influence for purity and the things that make for righteousness than men have—and not as much.

I would add, also, in a rather disjointed way, that since women have an appointed sphere through which to govern the world, it is an administrative error to seek to do the work of the business managers.

But in fact, and finally, the whole discussion is practically useless. Nature is unchangeable. Women may fail for ever in training themselves to the full use of their distinctive powers, but they *cannot* grasp and hold other powers against the laws of their own being. The "higher education" (for which, in many ways, I have the utmost sympathy) must always be limited by their physical condition ; and in like manner their part in the government of the world is appointed by the great natural facts which underlie their whole being. It is an ever-new surprise to see a few intelligent women frustrating the enormous power they actually possess, and fighting for that which "would be a positive injury to" women, and introduce into the world "a fresh obstacle to what" we know to be "right living." What a comfort that it *can't* be done !

In conclusion, permit me to say that women recognize their obligations to the *Nation*. Through many years it has told us stern truths, by which many of us must have profited, but the innate respect shown to us (along the lines and between the lines) has been to us, above all, a "liberal education." A. L. E.

Boston, Nov. 1, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I read your paper every week with that faithfulness which includes advertisements, and week by week lay it aside with a renewed feeling of gratitude that, amidst the partisan fury and blind hobbyism

which characterize the newspapers of the day, a fair and candid spirit can yet be maintained. Hence, when in the *Nation* of October 30 I read the editorial on "The Last Report of the Woman Suffragists," while I felt disappointed at its tone, I believed that the desire of the *Nation* in this matter, as in others, is to know the truth, and to present it without prejudice.

As I understand your article, you say that the arguments used in replying to Mr. Parkman are invalidated—*first*, by the fact that they are presented by the same persons who have for twenty years been leading this movement; and, *second*, by the paucity of facts which can be adduced to illustrate the increase of believers in their doctrines. You intimate that were there any but the old leaders of the movement with the interest and ability to reply to Mr. Parkman, to such new converts would have been assigned the task. Is this probable? In the controversy regarding slavery, years after the first preachers of abolition had gathered to their ranks many and great minds, was it not always expected that Garrison, Phillips, and Sumner would meet all new antagonists? Similarly in theological discussion, when the Unitarian faith could count by the hundreds and the thousands followers to whose hearts and lips the faith (with reasons therefor) of Parker and Channing were familiar, still were not Parker and Channing summoned to resist any new or mighty opponent? To resist every new attack is the proper function, so long as they retain power to perform it, of the *first* advocates of any cause. To their names belongs a certain prestige, to their words a peculiar power, which no later convert can boast.

You say: "What the world wants to hear now is some account of the progress they [the Suffragists] have made in converting men and women to their views." "This [you add] is the more important because there is a widespread and, we believe, well-founded impression that the cause is losing ground." You say further, as if the fact were in disparaging contrast, that the advocates of the higher education of women, and of a wider range of employments for women, *can* illustrate their principles by practice, and *can* show an increase in the adherents to their respective causes.

The demand which you make for facts in the case is reasonable, and in so far as I can I desire to answer it. First, I wish to remind you of one fact, which you apparently overlook when you speak of the successes of the advocates of woman's higher education, and of woman's entrance into the trades, professions, and general business of the world. These very successes *are* the triumphs of Suffragists. The leaders of the suffrage movement are leaders in both these causes, which are included with suffrage in the struggle for woman's progress and recognition. Colonel Higginson has for twenty years been, in this country, at the head of the demand for woman's higher education. Julia Ward Howe is more closely identified with the struggle for higher culture and with literature than with this *one* reform. Mrs. Stanton has more lectures on girls' training and education and on woman's work and responsibility than on suffrage, and delivers them oftener. These leaders have known very well that one of the most direct paths to woman suffrage is education and opportunity. Girls who know United States history and the American Constitution, who have taken equal per cents with boys in examinations on both, see the absurdity and feel the indignity of that clause in the last document which ranks them with the idiotic and insane. Women who have entered into any business like as well as any one the money equivalent and the power to protect their earnings. As soon as a woman earns and accumulates money she is interested, at least, in taxation—to that extent interested in the ballot. Boston University, Cornell, and Ann Arbor are three institutions which have done as much, perhaps, as any to give equal chance to boy and girl. Many of the professors in all, and the presidents of two are, I think, acknowledged believers in equal suffrage as well as in equal education; and, however it may be at the other two, I am informed that at Ann Arbor most of the lady students are believers in suffrage. The number of women in trades and professions has largely increased within fifteen years—many occupations have within a much less time been opened to women; all women lawyers of whom I have ever heard, most physicians (already a numerous body), and a majority of those engaged in any fixed business of which I know, except teachers, are Suffragists. Many teachers, both men and woman, are Suffragists, and some of high rank. T. W. Harris, Superintendent of Schools in St. Louis, and Mr. Tarbell, Superintendent of Schools in our city, are Suffragists; I think neither was such fifteen years ago; nor do I believe they are rare exceptions among gentlemen holding similar positions to-day. As to the growth of the belief in the principles of equal suffrage among average men and women, and the desire for the ballot by the latter, I give a few statements of fact. Last year the names of over forty thousand men and women were appended to a petition to the United States Congress for a Sixteenth Amendment, which would confer on women the power to vote. Over twenty members of the Senate were in favor of such an act, and the majority in opposition treated it respectfully, and discussed it as a question meriting serious argument. I have been told by the gentleman who first presented that measure before Congress some ten years ago that at that time the majority treated it with boisterous ridicule, and less than a half-dozen members would support it. There is a proof of growth.

I will add that I looked through one list of 128 names attached to the petition for a Sixteenth Amendment, which were the names of acquaintances or friends with whose opinions on this subject I had been familiar, and of the 128 more than 100 were *five* years ago anti-suffragists, some of them bitter and contemptuous ones. I do not suppose this was an exceptional list, and think it another instance of growth.

Again, within the last decade it has been true that the announcement of a woman-suffrage convention in any city has been the signal for punsters and paragraphers to sharpen wits and pencils in order to do justice to what they deemed the absurdities of the meeting. Last May, in St. Louis, when the National Suffrage Association held its annual convention there, the hall was crowded at both day and evening sessions with intelligent and attentive audiences. The business men of the city, as individuals and collectively, paid courtesies to the delegates; and the press gave its sessions as much space and as fair a representation as it would have given to a political convention of men. And several gentlemen, old residents in the city, lawyers and judges, told the writer that such a meeting would have been quite impossible there ten or even five years ago. This proves growth. In my own city five years ago I seldom saw the subject of woman suffrage, or the names of the leading Suffragists, mentioned without some sarcastic or disparaging comment. Now, month by month, notices and reports of the monthly meetings of the local E. S. Society are as full and as respectful in papers of both parties as are those of any other local organization. This proves growth.

During the last week the A. C. W. T. U. has held its annual convention in our city; so far as I know or can ascertain not one of the women now prominent in the temperance work was ten years ago a Suffragist, but the wider work in that field, as elsewhere, has taught women to believe that the ballot is a desirable instrument, and at the election of officers Frances Willard (herself not a Suffragist ten years ago) was elected president by a majority vote of 99 out of 143 votes cast. Every one of those 99 votes was the expression of some woman's belief in suffrage (at least on the temperance question, if no further), for every one knew that Miss Willard believes in fighting intemperance by the prohibition law, and that she expects to get the prohibition law through the votes of women. This means growth, and it is a sign of marvellous growth, too; for these women are nearly if not all orthodox Christians, conservative on all points, and but a few years, nay, months ago, many of them would have thought that to fight alcohol with a woman's ballot was to fight devil with fiend. Nor do the 99 votes alone tell the increase; each of these represented a constituency of like opinions, the result of like growth. Further, on the Sunday following the convention, 72 ladies took part in the pulpit exercises of the various churches of this city—some praying, others preaching; and a majority of the 72 believe in suffrage. That they believe in suffrage solely on the temperance question does not weaken this evidence of the growth of suffrage principles. In the West, Unitarians and Free Religionists are rapidly increasing. I cannot give, without investigation, the figures which would show the numbers of these people ten years ago and now; but I believe the figures would show an increase of several hundred per cent., and I speak advisedly in saying that a large majority of Western Free Religionists and a small majority of Western Unitarians are believers in woman suffrage.

I think it is true that believers in suffrage speak of it less frequently and less vehemently than they did ten years ago, but *not* because the interest in this matter is dying out, rather because the advocates feel so assured of its speedy coming that conscience either permits them to rest or drives them to use their strength in preparing women for the responsibility which the power to cast a vote will bring. The intellectual activity among women the country over is surprising; clubs and classes for the pursuit of various studies are numerous. The writer knows that in this State and in two adjoining States there are many classes of women studying history with a conscientious desire to obtain an understanding of the principles of government and the growth of law; knows of at least two companies of women who are studying constitutional and political history of our own country, spurred thereto by a sense of their duty to know the

principles of a Government which they expect their voices will soon aid in supporting. *Advisory* school committees, committees on work in charitable institutions, and visiting committees of women are the fashion of the day. This line of thought is easy to most women: "If women are to serve in libraries, schools, and institutions it would be more fair to have them elected to this work, as men are, than to let such women serve in these capacities as may be chosen thereto by their gentlemen friends in office." "If women can be elected to such offices, surely it is just that women aid in election." And thus the channels of new philanthropies, the widened opportunities for culture, the higher and more remunerative demands of varied labors, and the greatly-stirred intellects of women, all point to their recognition of themselves as worthy of full citizenship, and to their demand for such recognition.

I submit these proofs of growth of suffrage doctrine as the rapid gleanings of an inconspicuous believer in equal suffrage from the limited field of her experience and observation.—Yours very truly,

MAY WRIGHT THOMPSON.

INDIANAPOLIS, Nov. 3, 1879.

Notes.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT have in preparation 'Camp and Cabin,' sketches of life and travel in the West, by R. W. Raymond; and a children's book by the same author, entitled 'The Merry-go-round.' ——Moses King, of Cambridge, Mass., sends us the prospectus of his *Harvard Register*, a monthly periodical of twelve pages quarto, whose general aim is "to give every person interested in any manner whatsoever in the workings of Harvard University, as a whole or in any of its parts, the information desired on every current topic." This information, we observe, will extend even to recording the marriages and deaths of graduates. The *Register* may easily prove very useful.——Bulletin No. 51 of the Boston Public Library gives in its usual appendix the bibliography of Mysteries, Miracle Plays, Moralities, and Religious Dramas; continues that of the Renaissance—Part II., Political History; concludes that of Genealogy—third paper; and notices a variety of sources—books, pamphlets, periodicals, and public documents—of light on the question of the Chinese in America.——"A Coloradian Landowner" writes us that he thinks we ought to expose the untrustworthiness of the estimates of the profits of cattle-ranching set forth in a recent article in *Harper's Monthly*. We do as much as we did, or intended to do, by the article in question, in giving place to this warning without comments.——The Military Service Institution of the United States, formed at Governor's Island, N. Y., in July, 1878, is composed of officers of the Regular Army and professors at the Military Academy. It aims to promote professional unity and improvement by correspondence, discussion, and the reading and publication of papers, to secure the ultimate establishment of a military library and museum, and generally to advance the military interests of the United States. The first number of the journal of the Institution has just been issued. It is a handsome pamphlet of some 125 pages, containing an account of the origin and progress of the society, its inaugural address delivered by General Schofield, papers on marches, on cavalry, on the Articles of War, and not a little miscellaneous matter, mostly of limited interest to the general public, but likely to be welcome to the Army.

—The announcement is made that the Anthon cabinet of coins is to be sold at auction, and that the first instalment will be sold by the Messrs. Bangs & Co. during the current month. The present owner of the collection, which he has made himself at the expense of twenty years of watchfulness, study, and liberal outlay, is Charles Edward Anthon, Professor of History and Belles-lettres at the College of the City of New York ever since its foundation in 1849. He is also President of the American Numismatic and Archæological Society. The catalogue before us announces itself as No. 1 of a set of five. Five sales are set down for five successive autumns: the sale of 1879 will include "coins and medals of the British Empire, excluding its Oriental Dominions"; the two sales of 1880 and 1881 will complete the disposition of the coins of Modern Europe; the sale of 1882 will be of ancient coins exclusively, chiefly Greek and Roman; and the fifth and last division will include American coins, Oriental and miscellaneous. With each sale go the books of description and reference which more particularly belong to it. It will be seen that Professor Anthon makes an unreserved sale of his collection. The magnitude of it can be approximately estimated by means of the present year's list, which is of 940 lots, not including the books. There are coin sales almost every week in New York, but few are they who dare buy at them on their own knowledge; nearly all the business is done through agents and dealers. This sale has seemed worthy of special mention because of its extent and quality, and because the collection and the collector are known.

—The catalogue itself merits such mention. Each piece is described, and of some the description forms an interesting essay. We fix upon No. 152, a copper medal of Charles Edward, the Young Pretender. The inscription, Lætamini Cives (Sept. xxiii.) MDCCLII., has caused allusion to that date, and quotation is made from a former archæological catalogue, whose author confessed himself unable to explain "the seeming reference to an actual visit of the Pretender to Britain on the day mentioned"; which reminds one of 'Redgauntlet,' and the interesting preface to its later editions. Why should not one of these abortive attempts "to which the unfortunate prince, at least as late as 1753, still looked with hope and expectation," have been set down for September, 1752? There are nine medals of the Stuart Pretenders, or relating to them, one bearing the bust of Charles Edward as King Charles III., and (what is peculiar) the bust of his wife as Queen Louisa. This piece is not, however, set down as "rare." The collection of medals and tokens of eminent persons is large, and many of the pieces are exceedingly curious. There are many coins of the British North American colonies, apparently caught up from circulation in the provinces; and a small and very incomplete, but choice, collection of pieces from the British West Indies. The pieces of the Tudor sovereigns of Great Britain seem unusually numerous, valuable, and fine.

—Mr. George E. Waring, jr., who is engaged as "expert and special agent" upon the collection and classification of the social statistics of cities for the Tenth Census, has issued a circular setting forth the character of various additional statistics which it is proposed to incorporate for the first time with the usual enumeration of the population, industries, and financial standing of the principal cities of the country. The work as laid out is extremely comprehensive, but it is to be hoped that it will not be restricted and curtailed by lack of co-operation on the part of the public. It is to be subject to whatever revision may be found necessary in the course of its prosecution, but no subject is considered irrelevant. The history of each city is especially sought in such particulars as: first settlement; geographical position; topography; public works, including water-works, sewerage, gas-works, etc.; education and recreation, which include matters of general interest concerning public and private schools not contained in the usual statistics; first cost and yearly expenses of public parks and squares; cost and date of construction and seating capacity of theatres and other places of amusement; the number, kind, and influence of disreputable places of resort, and what restrictions are imposed upon them by the city government; public protection, including police and health regulations, food supply, markets, scavengering, etc.; amount of public debt, amount and kind of bonds, sinking funds, manner of levying and collecting taxes, and cost of the principal departments of the public service; commerce, manufactures, rates of wages, employments of children; and, in fine, everything which a guide-book or cyclopædia of the largest dimensions would admit, will be acceptable. When collected and arranged these statistics will be further illustrated with maps, charts, and tables. Mr. Waring's address is, of course, Census Office, Department of the Interior, Washington.

—In 'Topical Shakespeariana' Mr. H. H. Morgan has grouped together some 2,500 references to books and articles arranged alphabetically under 47 such heads as Aphorisms, Art, Authorship, Beauties, Bibliography, Botany, Characters, etc. The make-up of the book is singularly bad; not quite as unsatisfactory as Malcom's 'Theological Index,' but very nearly. It is, indeed, typographically more correct, but the introductory remarks are almost unintelligible. The list of the topics is not given as "Contents," where it could be found, but hidden away in the middle of the Preface, where no one would look for it; and the running title is a meaningless repetition of the title of the book, instead of showing the particular topic that is treated of on the page. It would have made the work considerably more convenient to use if there had been some indication whether the less-known works (and nine-tenths of the works referred to are little known to ordinary readers) are English or American, old or new; but this would have increased the labor of preparation and the expense of publication, and for such labor, as the author says in his prefatory note, one "cannot expect any pecuniary remuneration." Greater fulness would, perhaps, have resulted in pecuniary loss.

The purpose of the 'Shakespeariana' is good, and with all its defects it ought to be in every library where any attempt is made to encourage the readers to substitute the investigation of subjects for aimless reading.

—It has rarely been the good fortune of this country to extend its hospitality to a more distinguished literary visitor than Friedrich Bodenstedt, who arrived in this city a fortnight ago. He has come to enlarge the sphere of his knowledge and experience, already so remarkably varied and extensive, and, fortunately for us, to instruct as well as to learn. We understand it is more particularly the 'Songs of Mirza-Schaffy' which will form the theme of his lectures, both in German and English, and we shall thus hear from the poet's own lips the story of that charming creation. It is now well known that the "Lieder des Mirza-Schaffy" —the fiftieth edition of which appeared in 1875, and which have been translated into almost all the languages of Europe, and even into Hebrew —are, with few exceptions, original poems, although inspired by the veritable Mirza-Schaffy, the sage of Tiflis, who at the time of Bodenstedt's stay in Caucasia acted as his instructor. In his 'Tausend und Ein Tag im Orient' (Berlin, 1850) Bodenstedt weaves these songs into a fanciful prose picture—half real, half poetic—of his wine-bibbing Tartar mentor and his optimistic philosophy. Although Bodenstedt's fame rests chiefly on these songs, where his mastery of language displays itself in rhymes the ease and beauty of which are only approached by Rückert's 'Makamen,' his numerous works are all worthy of his reputation. Thus, his 'Völker des Kaukasus' (Frankfort, 1848), written when he was about twenty-six years of age, has to this day remained without a rival, although in the composition of this work, as in all his subsequent labors, he was chiefly guided by his poetic instinct, discarding system and routine methods. As the fruit of his intimate acquaintance with the Russian, he published his masterly translations of Pushkin, Lermontoff, and others. His labors in the field of English literature will enhance his attraction for American audiences. He has rendered Shakspere's sonnets into inimitable German, and as a translator of Shakspere's plays he has accomplished the difficult task of improving upon Schlegel and Tieck. Twenty years ago he was professor of Old-English literature in the University of Munich, and his works on "Shakspeare's Zeitgenossen und ihre Werke" (Berlin, 1858–60), and "Shakspeare's Frauencharaktere" (Berlin, 1874) testify to his familiarity with our language and literature. We can only briefly allude to the strange vicissitudes of Bodenstedt's life: to the abject poverty of his youth, his Russian experiences as tutor in the house of Prince Galitzin, his Caucasian adventures, his connections with Asiatic sages and European princes—among them King Ludwig I. of Bavaria—his tribulations as editor at Trieste and Bremen, and as theatre-director at Meiningen, etc. Altogether, in characterizing Bodenstedt's life and works, and their curious blending of Eastern wisdom and Western culture, we are tempted to borrow Goethe's famous epithet and call him the West-Easterly poet of Germany.

—The critic's duty in reviewing the performances of the Italian Opera Company this season is monotonous and unprofitable. We have said so much in praise of Messrs. Campanini, Del Puente, and Galassi that it is needless to state that every part undertaken by these excellent artists during last week was performed in the most admirable and conscientious manner. We can only repeat that Mlle. Valleria is a pretty and sympathetic young artist, but is no prima donna, and that Signor Aramburo has four or five very fine tones in his voice, but that his style is very bad and his acting exaggerated and thoroughly inartistic. Colonel Mapleson affords us no opportunity of speaking at greater length and with more praise of the performances of his company. From Verdi to Donizetti and from "Carmen" to "Faust" runs the tedious circle of this season's répertoire. The "Trovatore" was reproduced on Friday last. "Faust" was given in Saturday's matinée performance. Gounod's popular opera undoubtedly shows the whole company to greatest advantage. Flotow's "Martha" was given on Monday night for the first time, and introduced Mr. Behrens, a German artist, a very good basso and a capital actor.

—The Philharmonic Club for the performance of chamber-music gave their first soirée of the season on Wednesday week in Chickering Hall. Both programme and performance were in every respect superior to any concert given by this society last winter. The first number was Beethoven's Quintet in C major, Op. 29, for two violins, two violas, and violoncello. The artists of the Philharmonic Club have made good use of their long summer vacation, and their ensemble playing has much improved. Mr. Arnold, the first violin, has not a very powerful tone, but he plays with exceedingly good taste and a very good knowledge of the exigencies of chamber-music performances. Miss Florence Copleston, a very promising young pianist, made her début on this occasion in Bach's Concerto in A minor, for piano, flute, and violin, with quintet accompaniment. Miss Henne sang three German songs, by Curschmann, Mme. Schumann, and Robert Franz, in her usual charming and sympathetic manner. The concluding number, a quartet by Grieg, in G minor, Op. 27, was heard here for the first, and let us hope for the last, time. It is a composition utterly devoid of merit, and tries by eccentric, sensational effects to supply what it lacks in originality and harmonious beauty.

—The first of the Symphony Concerts under Dr. Damrosch, which took place in Steinway Hall on Saturday last, was a genuine success. The programme was of great interest and sterling merit, and the performance was finished and artistic. The opening number, Beethoven's great Symphony in A major, Op. 92, seems, on account of its bright and festive character, particularly well adapted to inaugurate a season of orchestral music. It was given by Dr. Damrosch's orchestra with remarkable fire and precision, and, though perfectly familiar to regular concert-goers, produced again a profound impression. Raff's "Walpurgis-Night" forms the second part of one of his latest symphonies, "Frühlingsklänge (Sounds of Spring), which was given here in its entirety two years ago in one of Dr. Damrosch's symphony matinées. The movement is perfectly complete and finished in itself, and can be fully appreciated and understood without the other parts of the composition. It is an interesting work, though neither very original nor very strong, and bears a marked resemblance to the last movement of the same composer's well-known "Waldsymphonie." Wagner's "Faust Overture" has of late years been frequently performed, and has often been discussed; it may suffice here to say that it was rendered on Saturday evening in a most satisfactory manner. The concluding orchestral number, Liszt's symphonic poem, "Festklänge" (Festival Sounds), which, according to the programme, was performed here for the first time, is, as its name indicates, a work of a particularly joyous character. The orchestra had not exhausted its strength when this composition was reached, and rendered it with great spirit. In spite of many eccentricities in harmony and rhythm, we have little doubt that Liszt's symphonic poem will become a great favorite with our amateurs. It is thoroughly original in conception, and, like all Liszt's orchestral works, very full and brilliant in instrumentation; the choral-like conclusion is very majestic. The two vocal numbers were both new and interesting. The first, a fantasy for alto voice with orchestra, is a most delightful composition of Shelley's poem "To the Night" by the Hungarian Robert Volkmann. The solemn, elegiac nature of the words is admirably interpreted by the composer, and Miss Anna Drasdil's beautiful, deep voice is peculiarly adapted for music of this plaintive and melancholy character. Similar, both as to words and music, was the second number, Schubert's "Heimweh" (Longing for Home), which Miss Drasdil sang in her usual dignified and finished manner, with a very artistic instrumental accompaniment by Dr. Damrosch.

—The late Alphonse Royer left behind him the MS. of a 'Histoire du Théâtre Contemporain en France et à l'étranger,' which has recently been published in Paris as the fifth and sixth volumes of his 'Histoire Universelle du Théâtre.' The four earlier volumes were put forth in 1868 and and in 1870 during the author's lifetime. They brought the history of the theatre down to the beginning of this century. The work was then interrupted by the war and the Commune, but, as we learn from the date of the preface, it was completed in 1875. M. Royer was well trained in the technicalities of the art he was describing, being himself a dramatist and author of the librettos for "Lucia di Lammermoor" and "La Favorita," which are good specimens of the pre-Wagnerian opera-book. He gives us, what no other French author has yet attempted, an orderly statement of the rise and the results of the Romantic revival which was led by Victor Hugo and the elder Dumas about 1830. The so-called 'Histoire du Romantisme' of Théophile Gautier was only a posthumous collection of newspaper articles in which the poet-critic had from time to time recorded his opinion of the leaders of the movement as they had one by one dropped off. M. Royer, while greatly inferior to Gautier as a writer, like him took part in the struggles he has described, and his narrative, unlike Gautier's, was deliberately prepared as a history. It is possible to glean from the pages of these two volumes a number of instances of the international borrowings which the stage has at all times seen, although never more often than in the last half-century. Victor Ducange in 1821 used Scott's 'Guy Mannering' as the basis of his "Sorcière," which shows us

that a French dramatist saw the theatrical capabilities of *Meg Merrilies* long before Miss Cushman was cast for the part. Anicet Bourgeois took his "Vénitienne" in part from Cooper's 'Bravo.' The elder Dumas in his "Alchimiste" and Frédéric Soulié in his "Clothilde" both made use of Dean Milman's tragedy "Fazio." Rowe's "Jane Shore" was imitated by Lemercier in 1823. Alfred de Musset's "Barberine" is very similar in plot to Massinger's "Portrait"; this is perhaps because they were possibly both suggested by an Italian tale. Of the chapters which M. Royer devotes to the modern English and German stage it is charity to say nothing; his knowledge of them seems to be wholly second-hand, and he has not had reference to the best authorities.

—The "Customs Department" of the Russian Government has recently published a series of tables showing the number and nationality of all persons entering and leaving Russia during the twenty years, 1857–1876. From an abstract of these tables, which appeared in the *Journal de St. Pétersbourg*, we derive the following facts, which are not without value as bearing upon the history and prospects of that country: In 1857 the whole number of travellers registered at the frontiers was 230,767, or 113,815 arrivals and 116,952 departures. The passport system was somewhat modified in 1858, and the number of travellers amounted in consequence to 485,839, with 23,057 more arrivals than departures. In 1876 the whole number was 1,679,947, with a gain to the country of 40,349 permanent residents. The sum total for the twenty years was 18,313,894, divided into 9,398,578 arrivals and 8,915,316 departures. Of this number the Russians form rather more than a third, with 453,287 more departures than arrivals. This decrease is attributed not so much to emigration proper, of which there is very little in Russia, as to the absenteeism of the rich and the large numbers who are compelled on account of their health to seek the more favored climes of southern Europe. Over against this loss, however, is to be set a gain of 936,549 foreigners out of the thirteen millions who have entered and left Russia during this same period. These are divided into fourteen different nationalities, the Germans, of course, heading the list, followed, in the order given, by the Austrians, Rumanians, Turks, French, English, Greeks, Italians, Swiss, Belgians, Americans, Dutch, Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians. The number of American travellers was 13,103, of whom 1,205 appear to have settled permanently in the country. The largest number of emigrants from one nation were Germans, 557,395; the smallest number, 287, was from Sweden and Norway. It is a somewhat strange fact, considering the enmity between the Russian and the Turk, that forty per cent. of the Turks who pass the frontier come to stay, a proportion far larger than that of any other nation except that of the Greeks, which is thirty-six per cent. The most important fact to be noticed in connection with these figures is that the immigration into Russia during the twenty years ending with 1876 was nearly a million souls, with a yearly average at present of about 70,000.

FERDINAND LASSALLE.*

THERE are few living men whose words and deeds have excited such general interest in Germany during the last two years as those of Lassalle, and yet he died in 1865. For the freshest characterization of the principles and issues of Socialism students are everywhere referred to his pages along with those of Marx. He lived the eminently public life of an agitator, and yet not only his motives and the tendency of his theories but his sincerity, and even his private character, are seriously called in question. Brandes, in a painstaking monograph, eulogizes him as the great protagonist of unity for the Fatherland and freedom for the people, who "transformed the Germany of Hegel into the Germany of Bismarck," and who sketched the policy of the latter five years before the incorporation of Schleswig-Holstein; while Mehring holds him largely accountable for Social-Democracy, which he thinks is an exoteric weed in German soil, and describes him as degenerating from a scientific statesman to an agitator, and finally to a disappointed and lying demagogue. When he died at the age of thirty-nine he was pronounced the most brilliant man of his time, and Humboldt is said to have called him the most surprising genius of the century. A few Socialistic leaders still compare him in their perorations to Jesus and to Paul. His picture is found in the homes of half the workingmen of Leipsic, Hanover, and Berlin, and he has been made the hero of a popular though stupid drama. Professor Wagner has lately edited, with an appreciative introduction, his letters to Rodbertus, and just now a little book has rushed to a third edition in a few weeks, revealing more fully the causes of the duel which caused his death.

Lassalle's life is all drama and romance. Born of Jewish parents, endowed with a foppish taste and a domineering spirit, a friend of the poet Heine, who addressed him as his brother-in-arms, and writes to him, "In comparison with you I am nothing but a modest flea," he first attempted to open an academic career for himself by a critical elucidation of Heraclitus, which still remains the best work on the subject. He was attracted to this philosopher because his vagueness challenged his ambition, because he seemed to him to furnish the key to Hegel, and because in the man who "banished rest from the world" he found or fancied much that was akin to his own stormy soul. At the age of twenty-one he met the Countess Hatzfeld, a somewhat strong-minded but more abused woman, twice his age, who had for years quarrelled with and vainly sought divorce from her outrageous husband. With characteristic ardor and energy he threw everything aside and espoused her cause before the courts. He studied and was admitted to the bar in six months, and carried her case from one tribunal to another for eight years and through thirty-six trials, suffering all sorts of obloquy from friends, and persecution and even imprisonment from the party of the wealthy count, till at last she was divorced with a handsome settlement. This, he declared, was the event of his life of which he was most proud. He had come to see in her individual lot "the purest microcosm of all social misery and oppression." It will now, however, hardly be questioned that this experience gave a wrong direction to his whole life and character, and that, constantly attending and influencing him as she did to his death, whatever their personal relations (a question of ceaseless interest to the prurient), she became really his bad angel.

He next essayed dramatic authorship. In his "Franz von Sickingen" he attempted to illustrate that the drama, as "the highest form of commending any given subject-matter," as Humboldt had called it, might represent the conflicting principles which determine the fate of nations, and not merely, as heretofore, that of individuals. Lassalle's own character, in its constant oscillation between personal and ideal aims, is nowhere so fully and frankly portrayed as in the character of the central figure, *Ulrich von Hutten;* but in every detail of form the piece is indescribably deficient.

His chief work, which no student of political science can afford to neglect,* is an excellent illustration of the oft-quoted remark that it is impossible to approach modern political philosophy without getting a touch of Jacobinism; yet he never attempted to draw the practical consequence of the radical theories of this work. He argues with vast erudition that property, and more especially the modern institution of bequest, is not a logical but an historical category. The Roman testament bequeaths the will rather than the property of the legator, and the heir is primarily to *act* and only secondarily to have. It was an attempt to preserve a personal and mundane immortality for the ancestors whose ashes were buried, and whose manes still dwelt with the family. But if the soul in no sense survives, then the Roman will has no validity; if it does, then Adam, or the first legator, is the only owner. According to the old Germanic conception, on the other hand, the family is the possessor. The ownership of the heir begins with the begetting of him, and is not essentially confirmed by the death of the parent. With advancing freedom the idea of absolute ownership was developed, and property came to be regarded as individual. Thus, exclusive ownership is not a natural but an historical or acquired right. The foundation of all right, Lassalle continues, is might, much as we may wish the reverse to be true. Thus, every revolution creates new rights, which are only "new *consensus*." Positive and natural rights, however, are reconciled by the fact that the *Volksgeist* thinks far more profoundly and consequently than the individual. Thus, no age or race can judge or should be judged by another. Every law which affects the individual only by organically changing society itself may react, since by general consent men may be dispossessed of merely acquired rights without legal processes and without indemnification. Property must be acquired through conformity to the existing constitution of political and social life. Hence, and in so far as this latter changes and assumes new forms, the right of private possession may be modified even to the extent of an expropriation of all property, provided always that the consensus is general; while testamentary power is only the arbitrary disposition by society of one of the many charges left to its care, and the modern notion of it is a grand misconception. Even on his own soil the

* 'Ferdinand Lassalle: ein literarisches Charakterbild. Von Georg Brandes.' 1877. Pp. 266.
'Die Deutsche Socialdemokratie; ihre Geschichte und ihre Lehre. Von Franz Mehring.' 1878. Pp. 226.
'Meine Beziehungen zu F. Lassalle. Von Hellene von Racowitza, geb. Dönniges.' 1879 Pp. 188.

* 'System des erworbenen Rechts,' 2 vols., 1861.

individual cannot say, Here I am sovereign; for his every contract implies as its condition that the laws remain unchanged. Machines, stock companies, public works, etc., set more and more objects out of the sphere of private property, which modern culture and progress are ever limiting. A more perfect and detailed philosophy of right shows us a more purified income—property proportionate to service.

This and Marx's well-known work on 'Capital,' which bases all classes of society and all institutions, legal, political, and religious, upon economic relations as creations of production and exchange, are the most scientific of all German Socialistic works, and mainly constitute the basis of the *Katheder*-socialism of the universities, which, as represented by Wagner, Conrad, and Treitschke, is infinitely removed from that of Becker, who styled himself the President of Humanity, or of Düring, who, forgetting the almost Hegelian *horror pleni* of most Socialistic apostles of the future, has, with great minuteness, detailed the coming Socialistic state, wherein even genius and talent shall be voted no condemnation, but be paid in work-tickets of enhanced value.

Lassalle's many other shorter writings are far less scientific. He argued for general suffrage, for state credit, for productive associations; for the unification of the Fatherland by arms if need be, but on a democratic instead of on a dynastic basis; for the economic emancipation of the workingmen from the iron law of competition for wages, from which he declared ninety per cent. of the population of Germany were suffering. He tells the workingmen that all forms of capital originate in their ten fingers; that the great industrial centres are the germs of the future state, in which the capitalistic shall be superseded by the Socialistic method of production, and that all progress comes from a clearer idea of the state. But he hated his own Semitic race, made war upon the press, appeared in ball costume to address the workingmen, courted arrests and made elaborate harangues in his defence, and, above all, failed to distinguish, as every one who aspires to political influence must constantly do, between exoteric and esoteric reasons and motives. He predicted that one hundred thousand workingmen would join his association, and contribute yearly one hundred and fifty thousand dollars; but scarce five thousand actually enrolled themselves. He was fretted by delinquent payments, by quarrels and misunderstandings. The fool and the wise, he exclaims, can be influenced, but the half-cultured can be neither forced nor led by gods or men. "If my reform is not ripe, I am a lost soul," he writes. He hoped the party of progress would affiliate itself with him, and then that Bismarck would make terms with the leader of the fourth estate, and he also predicted a reaction; but nothing of the sort occurred. He had quarrelled with Marx, and had still less in common with Schulze-Delitzsch. He grew domineering and would rule alone; his character became all color and form as his cause grew desperate.

It was at this point in his life that he met Fräulein von Dönniges, daughter of the Bavarian ambassador at Rome, at an evening party. Both loved on the instant, and an engagement was assumed from that hour. The girl's father hated Lassalle, and, when arguments were unavailing, cursed and disowned his daughter. She no less passionately gathered her jewels, went late in the evening to Lassalle's hôtel, telling him they must fly and be married on the instant or never. The man who never scrupled before, now hesitated and finally lectured her severely; said he would compel her parents to consent, and brought her home, where she was locked up in solitude, scolded and half-starved into writing, and then declaring before witnesses, that her love for Lassalle was dead. He, meanwhile, was writing to the bishop and supposed confessor of the girl, and inducing her father's superior to threaten him with loss of position, etc., to give his consent. The affair had already in part become public when her letter and message arrived. His pride was so wounded by the ridicule of his enemies that in a fit of desperation he challenged a rival suitor to a duel, in which he lost his life. The girl married his antagonist, and only now, since the latter's death, reveals the whole of the melodramatic story, declaring that her love for Lassalle never wavered. Strangely enough, a Russian lady had shortly before published "a love episode in Lassalle's life," of which she was the heroine, with a series of ardent letters from him, written to her during the same two last years of his life, the authenticity of which is vainly disputed by his apologists.

Among the many views lately taken of his many-sided character we concur with those who make personal ambition his leading motive. He could love any woman who passionately admired him, espouse any cause which he could lead, contend against the most formidable odds if the contest brought him *éclat*, attempt literary tasks for which he had not the slightest aptitude, to win the repute of versatility; born aristocrat though he was, he could work for and among the masses whom he loathed, because he hoped as their leader to win consideration and position among the political chiefs of the day, and even do the severest scientific work if the applause of the learned world was tolerably certain. But some good he has done, and in the mythic halo which already encircles him in the popular imagination his figure is now, since worse leaders have succeeded him, as beneficent as it is unique.

Rabelais. By Walter Besant, M.A. [Foreign Classics for English Readers. Edited by Mrs. Oliphant.] (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—This little book continues the series as we described it lately in speaking of the 'Montaigne,' and is not ill adapted to its purpose of giving the general reader an idea of a writer of whom it is not very easy to judge for one's self. It does seem as if a more categorical style, a more formal analysis in more synoptical order would leave behind it a clearer conception of what Rabelais' great work really consists of. But that would not be very readable, nor often read, whereas this book is quite amusing, and can be read through like a story. Rabelais' work differs from all other books of equal power in that the offence in it is so prominent and so impossible to overlook that no one need read it who does not wish to; no one need hesitate to avow that, for him, the offence overcomes the charm. The charm is of the strongest, of the most enduring; the man of less shrinking mind who cares for it at thirty will care for it always, and will be as little repelled by the scattered passages of coarser mediæval buffoonery as the lover of Chaucer is by the catastrophe of this or that farcical story. But the passages are there, very many of them, and the world of readers will always be divided into the two classes, neither of whom has any right to say that the other party is wrong. As Browning's hero, who had bored himself with a heavy book,

> "Went in doors and brought out a loaf,
> Half a cheese, and a bottle of Chablis,
> Lay on the grass and forgot the oaf
> Over a jolly chapter of Rabelais,"

so is there a large enough following for Maître François of admirers who take up no book so readily as his. But we may admit that the French style of allusion to him has become a little too enthusiastic of late years. Let us insist that there is wisdom in his books, and insight beyond his time into life and the needs of life; that nowhere else is the glory of the Renaissance, its boundless ambition for good and its vast and vague dreams of a splendid future for man, better, or so well, expressed; that in the sense of what religion is, as a thing of the soul, and belied by most of those external contrivances of pompous bigotry and stupid monkery which men insist on confusing with it, he was three hundred and more years ahead of his time; and we must still admit the more reasonable view of the case which Sainte-Beuve holds, rather than the unmeasured criticism which puts Rabelais by the side of the few great men of all time—rather than the rant of Victor Hugo, classing together Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, Dante, Shakspere, Rabelais, Molière, and Corneille.

This question, of the proper rank of Rabelais as a man of genius, as one of the world's poets and creators, is not discussed with any thoroughness in Mr. Besant's book. Nor can we feel great surprise at that; it would have been a task worthy of Matthew Arnold in his best vein, and not to be undertaken even by that subtle analyst in connection with a wholly popular account of the plot and the people, the meaning and the nature of the great romance. This easy lesson in Rabelais Mr. Besant does give, and very well; and we think that he manages even to make clear what is the nature of that most wonderful broad-farce, of which the world never can get tired. To say that it satisfies people *qui savent leur Rabelais* would be to say too much, but then it was not meant for them.

The Poetical Works of Geoffrey Chaucer, to which are appended Poems attributed to Chaucer. Edited by Arthur Gilman, M.A. In three volumes. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.)—This long-promised edition of Chaucer's poetical works completes the collection of more than a hundred volumes of the British poets begun many years ago by Little, Brown & Co. There was then no text of Chaucer's poems up to the standard established for the series, and it was deemed best to wait until, by the reproduction of the best existing MSS., the requisite material should be supplied for a critical text. Though the MSS. of the "Troilus and Cressida" have not yet been printed by the Chaucer Society of London, and other important aids of various kinds toward a standard edition are yet to come, all readers of Chaucer will welcome the advent of this edition, which, taken altogether, is, for general use, the most satisfactory edition of the complete poetical works yet published. In

addition to the poems whose authenticity has been established, this edition contains the numerous poems that have been, until quite recently, wrongly attributed to Chaucer, namely, "The Romaunt of the Rose," "The Court of Love," "The Flower and the Leaf," "The Cuckow and the Nightingale," "A Goodly Ballade of Chaucer," "A Praise of Women," "Chaucer's Dream," "Virelai," "Chaucer's Prophecy," and "Go forth King." One of the many important results of the establishment of the Chaucer Society has been the separation of the authentic from the apocryphal works, even to the extent of detecting the spurious twelve-line ending to the "House of Fame" (shown to have been added by Caxton). Another important result, towards which much has already been done, will be the establishment, as far as that is possible, of the chronological order of the works—all-important as an aid to the study of the poet's growth.

The Introduction (pp. xix. to xcii) treats, (1) of "the outer life," (2) "the social life," (3) the "poet's life," (4) "the poet's works," (5) "the poet's genius"; pp. xcii. to cv. are devoted to peculiarities of the language, the pronunciation, etc.; pp. cvi. to cxxiv., to astrological terms and divisions of time in the poet's works. The editor has availed himself, therein, of the latest results arrived at by the labors of Chaucer scholars, which have been of recent years so encouraged and stimulated by the Chaucer Society of London, whose leading spirit is its founder and enthusiastic and indefatigable secretary, Mr. F. J. Furnivall.

The arrangement of the "Tales" and of the other works, devised by members of the Chaucer Society, is in this edition adopted for the first time. But the editor strangely omits to designate and characterize the MSS. on which the texts of the several poems are based. In the Advertisement, p. iv., he states vaguely that the Ellesmere MS., "now considered better than any other known," "forms the body of the text now presented to lovers of the great poet." A Chaucer scholar would know that he means the text of the "Canterbury Tales"; one not a Chaucer scholar should not be presumed to know this. In regard to the originals of the other texts, how they have been made up, and the extent to which those originals have been adhered to or departed from, the reader is left quite in the dark. It may be simply stated here that the leading, being the most approved, texts of the Chaucer Society's Parallel Texts, are followed, but not so closely as is the Ellesmere in the text of the 'Canterbury Tales,' the latter needing less to be doctored from other MSS. A careful collation of the "Prologue" with the Ellesmere print has shown a faithful adherence to the latter. It is devoutly to be wished that future editors of the poet's works will abstain from forming mosaic texts by picking out of various texts what *they* like best, and that they will rather adhere, with a reasonable closeness, to some one good text, and present at the foot of the page the various readings of the other texts.

The only departures from the Ellesmere MS. noticed in the Prologue are: v. 74, "was" for "weren"; vv. 131, 132, "breste" and "leste" for "brist" and "list"; v. 219, "selfe" for "self"; v. 338, "verraily" (according to Harl. MS. only) for "verray"; v. 497, "that" omitted after "afterward"; v. 557, "His" for "Hise"; v. 607, "yshadwed" for "shadwed"; v. 612, second "and" added; v. 613, "lerned hadde" for "hadde lerned"; v. 751, "hooste" for "hoost"; v. 752, "han" (not in MSS.) is added—the verse is better without it; v. 778 is similar; v. 803, "selfe" for "self." Such a loyal adherence to a good text is to be warmly commended. There are a few readings of the Ellesmere MS. which the editor might wisely have departed from, with notices of his departures; *e.g.*, in v. 92, "in" should be "is," as in all the other MSS.; v. 148, the "oon" or "one" of the other MSS. is better than "any" of the Ellesmere; v. 332, for "heed" all the other MSS. have "berd" or "berde," which is no doubt what the poet wrote; v. 383, for "boille" the other MSS. except one, have "broille" (with a variation of spelling)—no doubt the right word; v. 525, for "waiteth" the context requires "waited," as the other MSS. have it.

The explanations of words in the text are given at the foot of the page, and are generally confined to single words. The editor has, perhaps, erred on the side of too little, rather than what is more common in these days, of too much help, seeing that this edition is designed for the general reader, who cannot safely be supposed to know the true force of many a word or phrase whose meaning is a thing of course with the adept in Chaucer's language. Some of the explanations are open to the charge of a want of precision, or of their not bringing out the basal ideas of the words explained. Occasionally an explanation is questionable, and occasionally wrong; for example: v. 341, "His [the hospitable franklin's] breed, his ale was alweys after oon"; "oon" is explained as "one o'clock"; but "after oon" means after, or according to, one style or quality—*i.e.*, alike good, and dispensed in the same free and generous manner. The same phrase occurs in v. 1,781: "But weyeth pride and humblesse after oon"—*i.e.*, after, or according to, one mode or standard, without distinction. A few such slips presented themselves during a hasty run over the foot-notes. Altogether the editor is to be commended for the manner in which he has done his work, and the public to be congratulated in having the best texts of Chaucer's complete poetical works that have yet been published, put within easy reach.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1879.

The Week.

THE newspapers have been much exercised during the week with the question, What shall be done with Grant? which may be called the principal conundrum of the day. The Chicago *Tribune* suggests that, inasmuch as the British Parliament voted several millions in cash and a dukedom in the peerage to Wellington, the American people may justly esteem themselves yet heavily in arrears to General Grant. The New York *Herald* learns that the Rothschilds of Paris are prepared to subscribe one-third of the capital of the proposed Nicaraguan canal on condition that General Grant accepts the presidency of the company. Another set of Froudes and Macaulays assign him the presidency of the combined Pennsylvania and Texas-Pacific Railways. Mr. Richard Smith, of the Cincinnati *Gazette*, mentions, "as the opinion of those nearest to Grant," that a third Presidential term (but no more) would be considered by him gratifying and not unhandsome. Mr. Frye, of Maine, according to the *Herald's* "regular" Washington correspondent, thinks that Grant will not be nominated unless the people are impressed with the idea that there will be trouble again in counting the electoral vote—in which case they will nominate him, believing that he will declare himself elected and thus avoid the necessity of any count. Col. Crawford, of Georgia, who is described as a heavy loser of slaves and other chattels by the war, writes a letter proposing that Grant be elected President by Southern votes in order to secure rest and freedom from political turmoil—his previous terms of office having been noted as periods of tranquillity and repose in that much-disturbed section of the Union. Indeed, it seems to be generally agreed by those who are making the loudest noise that, although General Grant drove the Republican party into a minority, he is just the man to restore it to its pristine vigor; that although the Stalwarts want him in the capacity of a Field-Marshal for the South, the South also desires him as her physician and colporteur—in short, that round pegs are always best fitted for square holes, and that the devil is fond of holy water. The Chicago *Tribune's* remedy for such a lot of paradoxes —three millions in cash and a dukedom—although desperate, seems not unreasonable.

If one asks what the Grant "boom" at the South means we think the answer is not difficult to find. The Southerners wish a quiet life, and the restoration of their material prosperity and harmony with the North with as little humiliation and as little change in their habits as possible. They will not submit to negro ascendency in States in which the negroes are in a majority, and they resist it in their old wild, brutal way. They found in 1875 and 1876, when they began to come back to Congress in force, that the Republicans were determined not to let them come back and share in the government on equal terms. Blaine, Morton, and all the rest began at once to taunt them and "draw" them as ex-rebels. When Senator Gordon raised his voice in favor of civil-service reform, Morton reminded him that if he and his friends had had their way there would have been no civil service to reform. When a committee containing several ex Confederate officers pried into Mr. Blaine's railroad transactions, he shouted lustily that he was assailed by rebel Brigadiers, who were through him making another blow at the life of the nation. Provocation followed provocation, and when the Democrats got into power folly followed folly, the Stalwart chiefs fanning the flame of discord carefully, and the Southerners exposing their flanks like so many bulls in the ring. Finally it has come to such a pass that Mr. Foster, the Governor-elect of Ohio, has declared on the platform that he does not want Confederates in Congress unless they confess formally, like naughty children, that they were wrong and wicked in rebelling, and that their dead relatives died like fools or criminals—a performance which would make every right-minded American ashamed of them not only as countrymen of his, but as men. There was a great deal of truth in Mr. Hill's observation in his late letter, that no Southerner has been able to attach himself to the Republican party hitherto without the sacrifice of his self-respect. They probably think now that Grant would spare their prejudices and weaknesses, and that they might under him move about as citizens of a common country, and not as people who ought to have been hanged —a position which may be as good as they deserve, but in which no one stays longer than he can help.

The Louisiana Republicans have, as everybody knows, made a veritable new departure. They have made up a ticket for the approaching election containing names of men of high character in no way identified with the old carpet-bag and officeholding set, and have drawn an excellent platform, containing no "bloody-shirt" or "Strong-Man" allusions, and full of good sense and good promise. They bid fair on this tack to win over the best part of the white population from the old Bourbon ways and aims. They have sent urgent appeals to the leading Stalwart orators at the North, who are so much occupied with the condition of the South, to come down and help them in the canvass. So far they have, it appears, been completely unsuccessful. Mr. Sherman's answer to the invitation has been published, and it is certainly a curious document to emanate from a gentleman who has been giving the account of "the Solid South" which he gave in the late canvass in this State. He, of course, cannot go; but he is sure that if Republican principles were fairly presented to the people of Louisiana and the Southern States "much prejudice . . . would disappear." "The same class of men," he says, "who in the South are Democrats are Republicans in the North." There has been a feeling throughout the North that free political discussion was not tolerated at the South, and he would "like to test this allegation" by going down himself, and seeing others go, to make such speeches as they recently made in Ohio. "The effect of such a discussion," he adds, "would probably be to show that there are more points of agreement between the citizens of different States than of disagreement," and would "tend to lessen party animosities."

The vote of this State has not yet been canvassed, and the counties of New York, Kings, Delaware, and Erie are yet to be heard from officially. The apparent majorities do not differ greatly from those we gave last week, such revisions as are reported, however, tending to increase the votes of all the Republican candidates. This circumstance is deemed suspicious by the Democrats, who betray some chagrin at the "apathy" of the general public in the matter. The latter feeling is possibly due to the difficulty of forming any precise opinion as to the cause of the delay and of the difference between the various reports from some districts. How is one to account, for example, for the discrepancies between three Associated Press reports of the 11th and 12th instant from Orange County, and between these and the reported official canvass, each succeeding one of which increased the majorities of Carr, Wadsworth, Wendell, and Ward, and finally showed a gain of ninety votes for Soule, while the vote of Cornell remained a constant quantity? The Democratic theory is obvious, and is the more boldly maintained for the discovery of barefaced attempts at fraud in Albany County, where the returns were clumsily "cooked," and Wendell (Rep.) was given 225 votes not cast at all and Mackin (Dem.) deprived of 272 which belonged to him. The majorities of the Republican candidates are so small that only a few successful efforts of this kind would be needed to account for them. The Super-

visors of this county are having a good deal of trouble in determining their duty, the Corporation Counsel having informed them, to their discomfiture, that irregularities which are not matters of substance should be neglected, which seems to impose upon them the exercise of more or less judgment.

Upon the whole we are justified in assuming that Maine just now affords a more comfortable spectacle of the badness of Democrats than New York. In that State the Governor and Council, who are Democratic and Greenback, propose, as the Republicans charge, to "count out" the Republican majority in the Legislature recently elected, or, as the Democrats retort, to canvass the vote strictly according to law. There is no doubt that the Republicans elected a majority in both Houses, and none, we presume, that if the Governor and Council were Republican they would so decide officially without any strenuous opposition on the part of the Democrats. But many of the Republican candidates were elected by very small majorities, and there seems to be no dispute that in these cases there were a good many technical irregularities, such as the posting of two notices of election in one town instead of the required three, and the posting of notice six days instead of seven in another. If such errors as these are considered by the canvassers the Senate will stand 19 Democrats and Greenbackers and 12 Republicans instead of the exact reverse, as it has been heretofore supposed it would. This clearly amounts to a disfranchisement of a large number of those who voted at the last election, and the only ground taken by the Democrats is that any other course would be illegal. There is, of course, great excitement, and the statesmen of Maine have gathered in great force at Augusta to endeavor to prevent the "stealing of the vote of a sovereign State," and, in General Arthur's happy phrase, "generally to look after the interests of the Republicans in the important work of the official canvass." The presence of Messrs. Blaine, Hamlin, Morrill, Chamberlain, Dingley, and Davis is certainly formidable, and we notice that a Republican journal expresses a doubt if Governor Garcelon will have "the nerve" to commit the contemplated "infamy." The affair has, of course, revived the memory of 1876 and other returning-board "infamy"; but as to whether there is any real analogy between the two the Democrats are as yet naturally in some doubt.

The Supreme Court decided on Monday three cases growing out of prosecutions for violation of the United States statutes relating to trade-marks, which had been brought up on certificates of division from the Circuit Courts of this State and of Ohio. The question involved was the constitutionality of these statutes, for which authority was sought to be found, but was not allowed by the Supreme Court, in the power of Congress "to promote the progress of science and the useful arts" by copyright and patent, or in the power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States." The Court held that nothing of invention or discovery inhered in trade-marks to bring them within the scope of the Constitutional provision, and that the statutes in dispute do not limit the use of trade-marks to inter-State or international commerce, but refer to all trade and to commerce between all points, which "is obviously the exercise of power not conferred upon Congress," though the Court expressly leave untouched the question of the Government's treaty-making power over trade-marks, and the consequent legislation of Congress. The statutes having been thus declared invalid and unconstitutional, it would be a mistake to suppose that trade-marks no longer afford any protection, or that anybody is free to use an established trade-mark. The truth is that the only right heretofore resulting from the registration of a trade-mark in the Patent-Office (beyond *immediate* ownership in it) has been the right to bring suit in a United States court for the enforcement of the trade-mark. United States courts have been so overloaded with business that trade-mark suits have been frequently brought in the State courts, by preference. The fact should not be overlooked that the common-law rights of parties in the trade-marks which they have adopted and established are unaffected by the late decision.

Judge Westbrook has just rendered a decision in the so-called Coppers case, which excited a good deal of comment last summer. Coppers had purchased a lot in Calvary Cemetery in 1873, and had buried several members of his family in it. When he came to die himself, however, the trustees of St. Patrick's Roman Catholic Cathedral, who own and control the cemetery, stopped his funeral procession at the entrance to the grounds, and, in conformity with the rules of the Roman Church, refused interment to his remains for the reason that he had been not only a Protestant but a Freemason. The body was placed in a receiving-vault pending an appeal to the trustees of the Cathedral, who promptly ordered the relatives to remove it under penalty of having it buried in unconsecrated ground by the trustees themselves. The relatives, seeing that Coppers had paid $75 for his lot and that $7 had been accepted by the cemetery authorities for opening a grave for his body on the 16th of August, and having a desire to respect his natural wish to be buried with his family, obtained a temporary injunction against the threatened removal, and applied for a mandamus to compel the trustees to open the grave which they had been paid for opening. Judge Westbrook decides in favor of the plaintiffs, and unless the case is appealed the bones of the heretical and Masonic Coppers will repose by the side of his orthodox mother, wife, and children. It seems that there is another case of an analogous nature, in which the remains of a Protestant, Mrs. Chovey—whose niece is, curiously, the wife of Coppers's brother, by the way—are now in a receiving-vault at Evergreens Cemetery, having been refused interment in the Calvary lot in which Mrs. Chovey had buried two Catholic husbands, and on the decoration of which she had expended, it is said, $500. Now that it is decided that, however incontestable the right of cemetery trustees to order their own cemeteries after their own fashion, they have no right to play fast and loose in a matter of contract and deny to the dead what they appeared to grant to the living, the Chovey case will probably take the same course as its predecessor. The proper thing for the Calvary trustees to do, we should say, is to make their reservations in their bills of sale, and not, after getting their grounds improved to the extent of sundry hundreds of dollars, interrupt funeral processions in a way that is not only unseemly but brutal.

Foreign gold continues to flow into the country, and the total specie imports since the resumption of specie payments have now mounted up to more than $67,000,000, of which about $61,000,000 have arrived since August 1. Although money is somewhat dearer in London, and sterling exchange here has advanced half a "point," the rates still favor gold imports. The local money market worked easily during the week, and the New York bankers have gained about $6,500,000 in their reserves, or sufficient to give them about $5,750,000 more reserve than the national banks are required by law to carry against deposits. Speculation in all departments continues to rage in a manner that recalls the times of the Mississippi, the South Sea, and other bubbles. So high have the prices of exportable products been carried in the domestic markets that the volume of exports has been diminished, which has caused a temporary scarcity of commercial bills, and that in turn an advance in the rates of bankers' foreign exchange. At the Stock Exchange the speculation has been most furious; the transactions have aggregated an average of more than 500,000 shares (par value of $50,000,000) daily, and prices have jumped from 1 to 24 per cent., the last-named advance having been in the shares of a Southwestern railroad company which has not yet demonstrated its ability to pay the interest on its preferred debts. Buyers of stocks from all parts of the country throng into Wall Street and buy anything that is offered, taking no note of values, but acting on the calculation, which has served well so far this year, that some one else will buy at a higher price to-morrow or next week. When all this will end it is

difficult to say, but sooner or later values will govern prices as surely as water will find its level, and then those eager to be suddenly rich will curse Wall Street roundly, and many homilies will be aired about the immorality of stock-gambling and the thieving character of the whole Stock Exchange fraternity. Silver bullion has fallen from 53⅛*d.* to 53⅝*d.* to 53½*d.* per ounce; and the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar has receded to $0.8933.

The details of the naval battle between the Peruvian ram *Huascar* and two Chilian men-of-war show it to have been one of the bloodiest and pluckiest sea-fights on record. The *Huascar* had had a remarkably successful career, owing to her speed and the skill with which she selected her odds, and to her had been mainly due the advantage which, previous to her capture, the allies had obtained over Chili. She was at last surprised in-shore by the *Blanco Encalada* and the *Admiral Cochrane*, and found herself obliged to fight or surrender. There seems to have been no thought of the latter alternative, and after a brief action she was boarded and her flag hauled down. The loss of the Chilians is reported—by themselves—to be trifling, but that of the *Huascar* was tremendous. Of the two hundred and sixteen men with whom she went into action but eighty-six survived, and these were almost all wounded and *hors du combat*. Among the dead are Admiral Grau, Captain Aguirre, and Lieutenant Rodriguez; and after the death of these Lieutenant Palacios, who assumed command though sorely wounded, repelled one attack of boarders, and only surrendered when the turret was blocked with the dead, the vessel riddled with shot and completely unmanageable, and no fighting force left. The Peruvians, so far from being disheartened by their loss, are raising money to purchase a new ram, the women contributing their jewels; Admiral Grau is to have a street named after him and a monument erected in his honor, and the war is to be continued to the bitter end. The *Huascar*, in spite of all the damage done her, can, it is said, be made serviceable for her captors. We are getting little by little an idea of what a great naval battle will be with the new ships, and it seems as if it would, as far as manœuvring is concerned, be very like the fight at Salamis.

The Rumanians have at last submitted to the demands of the Powers with regard to the Jews, and Article 7 of the Constitution has been revised so as to abolish all civil and political distinctions based on religion, and to permit the naturalization of all foreigners of whatever creed, either after ten years' residence and on proof of ability to support themselves, or immediately if the applicant has introduced a useful industry or invention into the country, or founded a great industrial or commercial establishment, or has given proof of distinguished talents, or if, being a native of the country, he has never claimed or enjoyed foreign protection, or if he has served in the late war.

The debates on the address to the Crown in the Vienna Reichsrath show a considerably altered state of Parliamentary affairs in Cis-Leithan Austria. The Constitutional party, representing mainly the German element, and rigidly adhering to the dualistic basis of the Monarchy as created by the readjustment of 1867, is in a minority in the Lower House, being now for the first time since that year confronted by a solid phalanx of Federalists, or, as they are now termed, Autonomists. The principal spokesmen of the latter party are the Czech representatives of Bohemia, who, by abandoning their long-continued policy of abstention from participation in the Reichsrath, have turned the scales. They are conditional supporters of the new Cabinet. As Count Clam-Martinitz, the able leader of the Czech landlord fraction, stated it, they have, by taking the oath, pledged themselves to uphold the Constitution, but without giving up their convictions as to the historical rights and natural claims of Bohemia, or the objections they have both to the substance and form of the new fundamental compact. A change of it by legal processes is, they hold, demanded by the interests of the Monarchy no less than by those of the Czech nation. The same ideas were expressed, but in very vehement and aggressive language, by Rieger, so long known as the second, in Slav agitation, of his father-in-law, the famous Palacky, now deceased. Side by side with the Czechs, though not fully united with them by party bonds, the Poles of Galicia make vigorous assaults on the Constitutionalists. The latter, badly beaten in the last elections in consequence of their many dissensions, would probably be unable to stem the tide of Autonomist reaction, had they not, quite unexpectedly, a majority in the Upper House. And thus the curious spectacle is presented by the Reichsrath of a conservative Cabinet supported by a coalition of almost revolutionary fractions in the House of Deputies, and successfully combated by the lords, in spite of its receiving the votes of the archdukes and bishops.

Lord Salisbury's imprudent speech at Manchester, besides the just offence it has given to Russia as a power with which England is at peace, seems likely to involve the Ministry in a fresh complication by causing a most undesirable coolness with France. When he spoke of the Austro-German alliance as "good tidings of great joy," it appears that he knew nothing about it except what he had seen in the newspapers, and had not considered what it might mean beyond being a menace to Russia. The French, however, in common with the rest of Europe, consider it in the main an alliance against France, or a precaution against France taken by Bismarck, and they were therefore a good deal surprised and chagrined to hear the English Foreign Secretary shouting with joy over it. In fact, it is now a question whether the *entente cordiale* of the last ten years has not come to an end or been greatly cooled. There is no more news about the dissolution of Parliament, but the Opposition feel very confident it will take place before the Chancellor of the Exchequer submits his next budget, which it now seems certain will exhibit an amazing deficit of $100,000,000. The Liberals have had in Manchester one of the greatest meetings ever seen, Mr. John Bright being the principal orator.

Sir Henry Layard seems at last to have lost patience with the Turks, and the appointment of Mahmoud Nedim and belief in intrigues with Prince Labanoff, the Russian ambassador, led him to order up the fleet by way of menace. This partly frightened and partly exasperated the Sultan, but the explanations made by Musurus Pasha, the Ottoman ambassador in London, seem to have proved sufficient, and the fleet is not to come up for the present and the "reforms" are to begin immediately. The fact is said to be that Sir Henry has at last become satisfied that the influence he supposed himself to possess with the Sultan does not exist or has been exhausted; that the Pashas expected the Asia Minor Convention to bring them a handsome loan or subsidy from England, and now perceive that they have been deceived, and are willing to throw themselves into the arms of Russia or anybody who will save them from being pestered by the British about "reforms"; and that intrigues or negotiations with a view to that have been going on. Unfortunately, England can now get at them a little more rapidly than Russia. Another cause of trouble is the joint protest of the ambassadors against any more pledging of the customs as security for small loans. The customs have been pledged already several times for this purpose, and the Powers naturally think it is time to stop. There is a widespread feeling that the crisis is at hand. All semblance of government seems to have ceased in Asia Minor. The troops and zaptiehs have turned brigands; every traveller goes with an armed guard hired by himself, and the villages begin to be fortified. The robbers, too, have begun on the European side to rob up to within a short distance of Constantinople. Indeed, it may be said that every one interested is waiting with painful anxiety to see which of the Powers will first propose to the Turks to leave Constantinople.

THE REAL OBSTACLES TO FREE-TRADE.

IT was a curious fact that nobody at the Free-Trade dinner given to Mr. Bayley Potter the other night made any allusion to the proposed Austro-German Zollverein, which would establish free-trade between 70,000,000 of the most industrious, ingenious people in Europe, besides that, through Austria, Bosnia at once, and probably Montenegro before long, would be covered by it. In fact, should Bismarck's scheme be carried out it would be the greatest triumph for free-trade yet achieved. Nor was anything said about the probability that, should it be carried out, a similar union would probably take place between France and Italy, and Belgium and Switzerland, which would give free-trade for all practical purposes to 70,000,000 more of an equally ingenious and industrious population. Both Mr. Potter and Mr. Wells, who were the only speakers who devoted themselves to the free-trade question, talked very much as if it were the affair of Great Britain and the United States solely, whereas it is the affair of the whole civilized world; and they placed in the forefront of their case a prediction that very serious consequences would ensue under our present system from a bad harvest next year here or a very good harvest in Europe, or both. Predictions, however, are always rather ineffective as arguments, and they fall with great lightness on the ears of the prosperous; moreover, the area of agricultural production in the United States is now so enormous, and the facilities for transport so great, that predictions of bad harvests are very hazardous. We have been expecting one with some anxiety since 1870, but it has never come, and is less likely now, to a degree that would seriously affect us financially, than it was ten years ago, so that people are not likely to incline to a low tariff by way of preparation for this particular contingency.

The great difficulties in the way of free-traders in this country are three in number: one is the name itself, and another is the deep-seated belief of the average man that free-trade cannot be carried on across political boundaries with profit for both parties. The term has become synonymous in his mind, even when he is not a hereditary Whig, with foreign hostility to American growth, and largely because free-trade has meant, during the greater part of the tariff controversy, free-trade with one power, and that one particularly odious to the generations which managed American politics and business down to the outbreak of the civil war. It was always understood that when the lowering of the tariff was called for, it was in order that British goods might obtain easier access to American markets. It was with British rivals almost exclusively that American manufacturers, in the three great fields into which they were most attracted, the iron, cotton, and woollen industries, found themselves obliged to contend from the very earliest days of American industry. So that it was not surprising that free-trade should have almost from the beginning been known as "British free-trade"—that is, a device of British contrivance for British profit—and that Henry C. Carey and Horace Greeley found it easy to accuse free-trade orators and writers on this side of the water of being stimulated by "British gold." So true is this that we doubt very much whether to this day ten per cent. of the Americans who think about free-trade at all, think of it as anything but unrestricted commercial intercourse with England only, in which Englishmen—or, in other words, the old enemies first of American independence and then of American growth and progress—would reap all the profits. In fact, the term "free-trade" connotes in the popular mind of America to-day, even among those who have not been brought up in Whig traditions, some kind of degrading dependence on England; so that the question of free-trade is in this country by no means a purely fiscal or commercial question, as most English propagandists are apt to imagine; it is half political, and you may get the best of the economical argument ten times over and still leave the stronger half of the protectionist case untouched. If it were not for this there would be something a little ludicrous in the impression which the very mention of free-trade produces on a great many Americans, who are in all other fields fond of general ideas, and are attracted by all movements which seem to make for universal peace and the reign of human brotherhood. It sounds to them like a proposal that they should engage in piracy or smuggling, or some other venture of great profitableness but undoubted criminality; and the effect of this is heightened by the free-trader's claim that his dogma is a direct offshoot of the fundamental rule of Christian morality.

The second difficulty in the way of the free-trader here is the enormous size of the area which is given up to free-trade under the American Constitution. As a matter of fact no government has as yet established free-trade between so many people as the American Government, and it has so happened that this American free-trade covers a greater variety of soil and climate and national product than the free-trade of Great Britain; and, what is more, it is absolute free-trade, not partial. This has really made Americans perfectly familiar with all the elementary principles of the free-trade gospel. They know and practise over the area of their own country nearly all Bastiat's theories. No Northerner ever thinks of asking for protection against the products of Southern heat and sunshine. The Pennsylvanian iron-master and coal-master know well that they must take their chance against the mineral wealth of Missouri. The Eastern farmer submits without a murmur to be driven out of the markets by the wheat and fruit of California, and the corn of Indiana and Iowa. The Massachusetts spinner has nothing to say when he hears of successful mills springing up in Georgia and Illinois; he is as mute and resigned as John Bright or Richard Cobden could wish. So that really there is no American who does not possess complete acquaintance with free-trade as an economical theory by actual practice before his eyes. No European has had the same opportunity of witnessing its working. The trouble which it is bringing on the British farmer, and by which he is at this moment so dazed, is one with which the American farmer in all the Eastern States has been familiar for over twenty years, or ever since the railroads began to tap the prairies. Moreover, the American home market for everything grows with unexampled rapidity. The manufacturer witnesses every year an enormous increase in the number of farmers he has to clothe and supply with tools and wheels, and the farmer finds wherever he settles that within a few years he has a large town population within easy reach to buy his produce. The great influx of European capital, too, into American railroads ten years ago did a great deal to prevent the rise of interest in foreign free-trade among the agricultural population. In the natural course of things the Western farmer ought not until now, if even now, to have had the means of access to European markets. The railroads which have for ten years been supplying him with it could not have been built on a purely commercial basis. They could not and did not pay when constructed. But they were built largely with foreign money, under the influence of an immense delusion, and have been working diligently for a good many years at a heavy loss, which has fallen mainly on foreigners. The result has been tantamount to the payment of a heavy bounty on the export of American produce. It has enabled American farmers to reach markets which no change in the tariff could have enabled them to reach, and relieved them of all necessity and of all temptation to think or talk about free-trade.

The one remaining difficulty in the way of free-trade, here as everywhere, is the notion that trade carried on across political lines is less advantageous than, or not so advantageous as, trade between people living under the same government. That the wonderful success of free-trade between the several States of the Union has not destroyed this notion, and has not, for instance, created an overwhelming opinion in favor of the admission of Canada, at least, to a customs union with us, seems strange at first blush; but it is we believe, accounted for by the fact that the country which has always been associated most closely with free-trade in the popular mind has, as we have said, been one to which popular antipathy was very strong, and whose eagerness for anything made the advantage of that thing to the United States seem doubtful. But it is a prejudice which is still very deep-seated—witness General

Grant's belief when President (and on matters of this sort he may be considered an average man)—that we lost heavily by trading with San Domingo while it was foreign soil, but would make much money by trading with it if annexed. Nothing will do so much to eradicate it as the multiplication of commercial treaties, and the formation of large Zollvereins, such as Prince Bismarck proposes, including several independent states. These things will furnish the actual experiment which, in a question of this sort, has more popular value than any number of books or lectures. There is probably no country in the world so interested now in throwing down all barriers to commercial intercourse as the United States, owing both to their wonderful and now easily-accessible natural resources, and the remarkable bent of the national genius towards both trade and invention. In open competition it is very difficult to say what nation will be able to find a market here thirty or forty years hence for anything but tropical products, and just as difficult to see what markets Americans can then be kept out of.

DISAPPEARANCE OF THE REFORM ADMINISTRATION.

THE prolongation of the count will perhaps justify one more attempt to point the moral of the late election in this State. Our concern is not this time with the voter nor with the Machine, but with the Administration and its part in the canvass. We printed, a fortnight ago, side by side, an extract from President Hayes's inaugural address, urging "a return to the principles and practices of the founders of the Government," who "neither expected nor desired from public officers any partisan service"; an extract from the same President's Executive Circular, forbidding Federal office-holders to "take part in the management of political organizations, caucuses, conventions, or election campaigns," or even to "express their views on public questions" if it should "interfere with the discharge of their official duties"; and finally Mr. Sherman's letter to Appraiser Dutcher in "cordial approval" of his "taking part in the Cornell and Hoskins campaign." Whatever the opinions of men may be as to the wisdom or sincerity of the civil-service reform plank in the Cincinnati platform, or the famous endorsement of it in Mr. Hayes's letter of acceptance, or the regulation laid down in the Executive Circular just cited, we do not believe that any high-minded and candid Republican could read without a blush these contradictory official utterances, from the highest sources in the Government, within three years from the time when the President declared "thorough, radical, and complete reform" in our civil service to be a "paramount necessity." Those who appreciated the difficulties in the way of this reform, or who wholly doubted its practicability, may have expected to see President Hayes's endeavors thwarted, as Grant's were, by the politicians, and his ardor chilled to death by public apathy; but they did not look to see him eat his own words. Failure to carry out his intentions might have illustrated either the gravity of the undertaking or the folly of it, but would have left his character untouched. Failure to stand by his solemn appeals, or to enforce an order entirely within his competence, must lower the President even in the estimation of his enemies.

Perhaps the worst blow that could have been dealt civil-service reform was to give it the air of humbug. Mere delay, due to the forces arrayed against it, would not have harmed it, and would have been improved in educating the people to a proper sense of its nature and importance. A consistent attitude towards it, however feeble, would not only have entitled Mr. Hayes to a moral acquittal, but would have enabled the reform to hold its own and to count upon future steady progress. Had he and Secretary Sherman been defeated in their effort to get Cornell out of the Custom-house, Mr. Conkling might have enjoyed a momentary triumph, but the cause would simply have received one of those checks which are like the winding of the mainspring of a watch. It would have gathered fresh strength from the resistance. They were, however, in the end successful, after a struggle which had none of the appearance of a farce, and which led outsiders to suppose that a hard and fast line had been drawn, if not between Reform and the Machine, at least between the Administration and Messrs. Conkling and Cornell—the one an insulting and defiant opponent, the other a servant dismissed for cause. Pride might have been reckoned on, if honor failed, to prevent any reconciliation between the two sides to this controversy which did not proceed from the defeated party. It must, therefore, have shocked every man of sensibility who knew that Cornell's nomination for Governor was distasteful to the Administration, that it was forced by Mr. Conkling and was meant to be a snub direct, and that it was semi-officially deprecated at the Convention by Vice-President Wheeler, to see Mr. Evarts ridiculing the Scratchers, and Mr. Sherman offering a thousand votes (if he had them) for Cornell, and quoting the President with authority as ardently wishing his election. We are every day reminded how much the American reputation for humor is belied by what is tolerated in the sphere of politics; we will not, however, admit that these performances have failed to provoke a melancholy smile among all who have the American good name at heart.

We do not think we shall be accused of pessimism when we say that the Administration's part in the New York canvass destroys all hope of any further gains from it to the cause of civil-service reform. Its strength of purpose in this direction has been tested, and found to succumb to the temptation of State elections having a national aspect—that is, those which take place on the eve of the Presidential year, and in which the voter is accustomed to sacrifice to a supposed necessity, diligently cried up by the party managers, his gathering independence and all the fruits of "off-year" discontent. There is nothing surprising in the Administration's desiring a Republican inheritance, nor in lending its moral weight to the party supremacy in State as well as in national elections. While party exists, no matter what becomes of the civil service, the sympathy of those in power will be with those who placed them there. There was, nevertheless, in Mr. Hayes's case, a peculiar expectation that he would keep aloof from unseemly participation in the choice of his successor. While the Republicans have never committed themselves to the one-term doctrine, and gave it no countenance in their Cincinnati platform, Mr. Hayes (whose perception, by the way, of the relation of this doctrine to that of civil-service reform has never been manifest) did announce in the beginning his fixed resolve not to stand for a second term, and so made it reasonably sure that a certain kind of corruption would not attach to his Administration. This did not, indeed, hinder him from rewarding with office a too large number of unfit characters, whose sole claim upon him was having helped to "count him in" in the doubtful Southern States. A President seeking re-election would have done the same thing, it is true, and these appointments were, as far as they went, open to the charge of having been made if not for personal for party ends. They raised, too, questions of delicacy and decency not different in kind, and hardly in degree, from those which Grant's appointments so freely gave rise to; but, after all, there was a difference, and we pass them by. What was to be expected from him was that he would not conspicuously send messages of cheer and encourage his Cabinet officers to take the stump in any State, under the auspices of so-called Republicans and on the pretext of the national bearing of the election (making it, in fact, a part of the Presidential canvass of 1880), when in order to do so he had not only to throw aside his personal and magisterial dignity, but such impedimenta as formal and repeated pledges to the cause of civil-service reform, and acts in its behalf whose abandonment was the very Caudine Forks of Executive humiliation.

Mr. Sherman and Mr. Evarts were unhampered by any declarations or scruples in regard to a second or even a first term. But both were bound by the attitude of their chief, and Mr. Sherman as well by his immediate connection with Cornell's removal, to stay away from New York during the canvass, and to do and say nothing to discredit the Scratchers, who were, on any manly interpretation of the Government's position, the real Administration party for that election; who were, by reference to the Cincinnati platform, the only Republican party for that election. Such a desertion of its

own principles marks the end of the Administration as a force devoted to the elevation of the party. It also marks the extinction, in the same quarter, of that nice sense of honor—the other side of which is a capacity for shame—which maintains the tone of public life, and which makes even bad politics consistent with national self-respect and international esteem. Mr. George Bliss, the other day, in his letter to General Arthur, held that "it must be a very exceptional case which would justify an honorable man in bolting after taking part in a convention" and being beaten. That evidently depends on whether the convention is a game, as he seems to regard it, in which of course "heads I win, tails you lose" has no place; or whether it is an opportunity for deliberate comparison of opinions as to measures and men, according to a common standard of political belief and public morality. No such doubt can exist as to the binding force upon a party, and upon the chief of that party, of the solemn profession of faith which we call a Presidential platform. The candidate of the national convention which frames the platform may be the *pis-aller* of a small majority—the real choice of only an insignificant minority; it is enough, other things being equal, according to Mr. Bliss, to make every honorable partisan do his best to elect him. The platform, on the other hand, the result of a compromise in which each faction may have been consulted, commonly represents that residuum of doctrine which results from concessions on the part of extremists. It has, therefore, a much more sacred character than the candidate, and cannot be betrayed by those who profess to stand upon it without a measure of dishonor which we will leave Mr. Bliss to determine and to stigmatize as it deserves. This betrayal began, as we pointed out at the time, as soon as the canvass was opened in 1876, and it reached its culmination in the open, unreserved, and "cordial" support given by the President and his two leading advisers to the ticket imposed by Conkling and headed by Cornell; and yet the career of the Administration is only a little more than half ended. There was a time when we might have hoped that, if it had not accomplished much towards reform, it would at least go out of office with a becoming adherence to it:

> "—se la stanza
> Fu vana, almen sia la partita onesta."

These anticipations have not been realized. It is even doubtful whether we shall owe it the retention of the civil-service reform plank in the next Republican platform, and whether even what we do owe it—the purified atmosphere of the White House, an honest and generally efficient and business-like conduct of the departments without scandal or jobbery, and a very hopeful beginning of Custom-house competitive examinations—will save us from the return of the Silent, Strong Man to Washington, with no "letter of acceptance," no talk of "paramount necessity" in his inaugural address, no "Executive Circular" to office-holding Machinists, and plenary indulgence for the Dutchers and Cornells of the third-term era.

PUBLISHERS AND INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT.

IT is generally understood that a vigorous push is to be made this winter at Washington to secure some provision for international copyright. This attempt will be made under circumstances of a peculiar and novel character. Hitherto the agitation has been mainly promoted by authors. Now, however, for the first time in its history, a strong and united pressure will be brought to bear by the large publishing-houses. In all previous discussions on the subject in this country the argument in favor of some international recognition of authors' rights has been mainly rested upon abstract considerations of justice and fair dealing, and it has been taken for granted that the present condition of the law was for the pecuniary advantage of the United States. In this instance, however, important business interests prove to be at stake. Hitherto, again, it has been generally assumed that international copyright, though not yet given a place in the statute or treaty law of the United States, was still making a steady advance in public opinion, which would sooner or later produce its effect in legislation. The system of royalties paid to foreign authors by leading publishers—a growth of the last thirty years—has been often pointed to as a cheering proof of this tendency. It now appears, however, that the growth of public opinion is being sapped, and the system of royalties itself threatened in its weakest part, by a new and serious danger, which, if not checked, must in the long run reduce foreign authors' rights to the pitiful condition in which they stood thirty years ago, give a general license to piracy throughout the United States, and remit the enactment of an international copyright law to a period too remote to be a matter of interest to any of those who are now on the stage.

Ever since the beginning of the present year there has been a constant cross-fire of pamphlets, letters, and articles on the subject of copyright, and some of the main points at issue were presented in a *symposium* published not long since in *Macmillan's Magazine*. The magazine undertook to give on the one hand an American view of the copyright question, and on the other English objections to that view. The first was put forward by Mr. S. S. Conant, whose connection with the publishing interest is so well known that his opinions may fairly be treated as identical in substance with those of such representative firms as the Harpers or Appletons. The substance of his argument, very shortly stated, is this: Public opinion in this country favors justice to authors, but it also favors the American system of book-manufacture—*i.e.*, it insists on cheap books. It recognizes the justice of the foreign author's claim to be paid for his work, but it insists that if he is to be protected by our laws he must get his protection in such a way that it will not interfere with the right of the American public to have books provided for them cheaply. Now, it is admitted on all hands that English books are not cheap, and consequently it follows that to make them so they must be published here. The only sort of international copyright law that is worth considering, therefore, is one securing to the foreign author the protection of our laws on condition of first publication here by a citizen of the United States. To this Mr. Conant's English critic replies that if this is the sort of international copyright proposed we may as well abandon all idea of its being adopted, because England will never consent to it. In the course of his argument he refers to the novel and important fact which has given the copyright agitation its new chance of success. Mr. Conant in his remarks dwells upon the "pressing" character of the question, and refers to the open letter addressed some months since by the Harpers to Mr. Evarts, suggesting an international conference. But why, says Mr. Conant's critic, has the matter become "pressing"? What has lately happened that has made one of the greatest American publishing-houses come forward with such a suggestion? According to Mr. Conant's account the system of royalties for advance sheets had reached such a pitch of perfection that English authors who made the proper arrangements were paid nearly as much as they would be under any copyright system; and no American publishing-house has any rational motive for desiring to pay more. If the question has become "pressing," some explanation of the fact is required.

The explanation correctly suggested is that the system of securing the right to publish foreign authors' works through the "courtesy of the trade" has broken down. This system has been a very simple one. The house that desired to reprint a foreign book for the American market gave a sort of informal notice of its intention, and thenceforth was recognized by courtesy as having the right to republish that author's work without interference from other publishers. Not long ago, however, it occurred to some enterprising publishers of what would be called in England "penny dreadfuls," that they might reprint in an extremely cheap pamphlet form books protected by the courtesy of the trade. They accordingly began to bring out at a price slightly in excess of the cost of manufacture current English books. Issuing them in this form, at regular weekly intervals, and numbering them consecutively, they succeeded finally in having them classed by the Post-office authorities as periodicals, and therefore entitled to the cheapest rate of postage. The effect of this was of course to threaten the royalty system in its most vital part. Such houses as the Harpers could not afford to go on paying foreign authors a royalty if books were placed on the market at such a price as to make the system unprofitable. The only way to meet this new danger was to insist at once on an international copyright law which would absolutely prevent piracy, and enable them to keep the control of the market. Undoubtedly the "pressure" somewhat obscurely referred to by Mr. Conant arises from this necessity. There may be those who think that there is something wrong in the desire of publishers to do away with this new and dangerous form of piracy, and to believe that a mere statement of the facts is enough to lay bare the insincerity of the proposed scheme. But we must say at the outset that there seems to us nothing sinister in the project—unless, indeed, we consider sinister every attempt

by one man of business to prevent himself from being undersold in the market by another. It must be remembered that copyright in this country cannot any longer be discussed as an abstract question. A system has grown up, bad in its origin, no doubt, but which does in a measure secure to foreign authors their rights through a sort of publisher's good-will. This system inures to the profit both of authors and publishers, and is now in danger of being supplanted by absolute and unrestricted piracy. This clearly would be an evil, and, as we have suggested above, an evil which once established would probably never admit of a cure. If standard books were to be regularly reprinted here at a twenty-fifth of their cost in England, the public, once accustomed to such an unheard-of luxury, would not readily give it up. It is therefore perfectly fair to say that the protection of foreign authors has acquired a new and pressing urgency. This urgency presses upon all publishers who have been in the habit of paying royalties to foreign authors, and has already forced one well-known firm into adopting retaliatory measures by republishing the books on which they pay foreign authors, and which by "the courtesy of the trade" belong to them, at a price entirely unremunerative. Of course this cannot continue. Hence, almost by accident, it has suddenly become for the direct pecuniary interest of some of the largest publishing houses in the United States that international copyright should be established with all possible speed.

Before considering any plan for international copyright on its merits it is important to bear in mind that there are three parties whose interests have to be considered, or who have at least to be conciliated, in order to bring any copyright law within the range of possibilities—first, foreign authors; secondly, American publishers; and, thirdly, the American public. To begin with the last, it may safely be assumed that no measure which threatens to increase the price of books seriously can be got through Congress. Whether this difficulty grows out of the popular love of knowledge or out of some less noble feeling, is unnecessary to discuss here. Congress considered the question as lately as 1873, when Senator Morrill introduced from a committee having the matter in charge a report in which the following passage occurs:

"In view of the whole case, your committee are satisfied that no form of international copyright can fairly be urged upon Congress upon reasons of general equity or of constitutional law; that the adoption of any plan for the purpose which has been laid before us would be of very doubtful advantage to American authors as a class, and would be not only an unquestionable and permanent injury to the manufacturing interests concerned in producing books, but a hindrance to the diffusion of knowledge among the people and to the cause of universal education."

Since this report nothing has been done. For the present purpose the temper of Congress is that of the public, for it is with the temper of the public as represented in Congress that we have to deal. With regard to the rights of American publishers who have obtained the good-will of foreign authors, every consideration of justice and expediency points to the necessity of not arbitrarily depriving them of a business which our system of legalized piracy has encouraged. If it is urged in reply to this that they cannot have acquired rights by a system which was originally based on simple piracy, the conclusive answer is that no copyright for foreign authors can ever be secured without their assistance. Finally, no plan is likely to succeed which does not command the assent of foreign authors.

But the great and important question is, How will the proposed plan be likely to work? The immediate result of the proposed scheme, supposing it to be legalized, would be that all English authors who could make an arrangement with an American publisher would be able to secure an American copyright. We take it for granted that the recommendation of the British Copyright Commission that a British author shall not be debarred from acquiring British copyright by foreign publication will be made law by Parliament. It should be observed that an essential part of the plan suggested by Mr. Conant was the total manufacture of the book in this country by a citizen of the United States. Some weeks before the date of the Harpers' letter to Mr. Evarts the matter had been called to the attention of the public in an address delivered by Mr. G. H. Putnam, who also urged, on behalf of a house which had from the first identified itself with copyright reform, the appointment of an international commission. Mr. Putnam's recommendation, which probably now more nearly represents the views of the publishing interest than Mr. Conant's, was that the book, to secure protection, must be printed and bound in this country, the privilege being accorded of importing foreign stereotypes and electrotypes of cuts. Supposing this, then, to be the plan actually carried into effect by international agreement, the probable results are not very difficult to foresee. By a system of co-operation between the publishing houses of the two countries, which is already to a considerable extent in operation, the markets of both countries will be secured to the author. Through this co-operation, and the guaranty against piratical competition afforded by the law, the cost and risks of production of the English as well as the American edition will be considerably reduced, leaving a larger margin of profit from which to compensate the author, and also make it possible to give the book to the consumer at a lower price.

Though English publishers would probably in the long run be benefited by the growth of international business produced by a copyright treaty, there appears to be among them now a hostility to any change. This probably grows out of a dread lest the amount of their direct exportations to the United States may to some extent be curtailed. It is also their honest belief that any restrictions on copyright as to manufacture are in themselves unjust.

There is a way of effecting the end in view, however, without taking English publishers into the account, and, considering the great danger with which the latest form of piracy threatens all foreign authors, we think there would be ample justification in trying it. For any international system of copyright the consent of both England and the United States is required. But it is not so for the purpose of securing foreign authors' rights in this country. There is nothing to prevent Congress of its own motion from establishing these by law without a step being taken in Great Britain. It might be objected that the Constitution does not grant Congress power to secure exclusive publication to foreigners; but the words used are as broad as language can make them. They include all "authors," and to decide in advance that the Supreme Court would hold this to mean only authors who were also citizens seems entirely irrational. And if Congress cannot do it, how can a treaty do it? It cannot be seriously believed that a treaty is of higher obligation than the Constitution, or that the treaty-making power can exercise prerogatives in violation of Constitutional limitations. There can be little doubt that with the powerful support of the publishers such an act could be passed without serious difficulty, and almost as little that it would be speedily followed by some enlightened and permanent system. The only class that could possibly object to such an act would be foreign publishers; and the interests of foreign publishers we are not bound to protect. Curiously enough, such a statute has been introduced into Parliament by the British Government, in accordance with the recommendations of the Copyright Commission. This bill provides that any alien, wherever resident, may acquire English copyright by first publication in the British dominions. When such a law as this is being favorably considered in Parliament, and a reciprocal scheme is being advocated on this side of the water by the only great interest which may be expected to have the opportunity of influencing legislation in Congress, it seems as if the day of international copyright ought not to be very far off. The alternative now is either international copyright or a system of piracy compared with which that practised hitherto would seem like even-handed justice.

THE MEMOIRS OF MADAME DE RÉMUSAT.

I.

PARIS, October 31, 1879.

THE 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat (1802–1803)' will take a place among the most important documents concerning the history of France at the beginning of the nineteenth century. They show us the real Bonaparte, the man, not the Napoleon who has been transformed by legend and poetry. The correspondence of Napoleon I. published by Napoleon III., under the direction of Prince Jérome Napoleon, will always remain the most important document for the historian. Future ages will study Napoleon in this voluminous correspondence as we now study Henri IV. in the seven folio volumes of his 'Lettres et Missives' published by the Government, and as we study Richelieu in the collection of his letters and despatches. But the general public will probably never read the correspondence of such men, and will rather turn to such books as the 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat.'

M. de Rémusat, who took an important part in our parliamentary life under the reign of Louis-Philippe, and who accepted from M. Thiers, after the unfortunate war of 1870, the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs, is well known to the literary as well as to the political world. Since his death his son, M. Paul de Rémusat, has published two works of his father's, both historical dramas—one on Abélard, the other on the Mas-

sacre of Saint Bartholomew. In less troubled times these two dramas would certainly have been more noticed, as they are both works of great merit, showing a very intimate acquaintance with philosophy and with history. M. de Rémusat was somewhat shy; he had never published these dramatic essays himself; he had not published the 'Memoirs' of his mother, who had been lady-in-waiting to the Empress Josephine. He sometimes read extracts from them to his most intimate friends, but he thought that the time for their publication had not yet arrived. His son, however, gave long extracts of the 'Memoirs' to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and now the first volume of this important work has just made its appearance.

From what we read in the preface it seems that M. de Rémusat the elder had once wished to publish the 'Memoirs' after the Revolution of 1848, but that the return of the Empire seemed to him an insurmountable obstacle: "The book," he says, "would have been considered either as flattery addressed to the son of Queen Hortense, who is much *ménagée* in it, or, on other points, as a direct attack on the dynasty."

Let me first say a word of the author of the 'Memoirs.' Madame de Rémusat was the daughter of a M. de Vergennes (related to the famous Vergennes, who belonged to a younger branch of the family), and who, though favorable at first to the ideas of the Revolution, died on the scaffold, in 1794, three days before the fall of Robespierre. His wife was left with two daughters, and one of them, Claire, married M. de Rémusat, who belonged to a parliamentary family of Aix. They lived at Saint-Gratien (near Paris), in the neighborhood of Sannois, a place which has been made famous by the 'Confessions' of Jean Jacques Rousseau and the 'Memoirs of Madame d'Épinay.' Madame d'Houdetot herself lived quietly at Sannois during the Revolution with M. d'Houdetot and with Saint-Lambert. Madame de Vergennes was poor, as the fortune of her husband had been confiscated. M. de Rémusat, her son-in-law, was obliged to try to obtain an office, and by the influence of M. de Talleyrand he got a little place in the direction of the *Contentieux* (the department where all matters of litigation are treated) of the Foreign Office. At Saint-Gratien Madame de Vergennes made the acquaintance of Madame de Beauharnais, and it was through her influence that in 1802 M. de Rémusat, who was only a clerk in the Foreign Office, was named *préfet du palais*, and that shortly afterwards his wife was named *dame pour accompagner* Madame Bonaparte—a title which was afterwards exchanged for *dame du palais*.

M. Paul de Rémusat, who publishes the 'Memoirs,' takes great pains to prove that, in accepting these functions in the household of the man who was the avowed chief of the Revolution, his grandfather and grandmother did nothing wrong. "Their royalism," says he, "was merely veneration full of pity for King Louis XVI." They shared in the universal admiration for the young hero who had obtained so many victories for France, and who had re-established order and put an end to the bloody rule of the Terrorists. M. de Rémusat, the father, took the trouble to write to Sainte-Beuve a letter, which is now published, in order to explain, if not to excuse, the conduct of his parents:

"It was not from necessity, or weakness, or the effect of a temporary temptation that my parents attached themselves to the new régime. They freely and confidently thought that they could unite their fortune with its fortune. If you add to this all the gratifications of an easy worldly position which took them out of a state of poverty and of obscurity, the curiosity, the amusement of this new sort of a court, and, in the end, the incomparable interest of the spectacle of a man like the Emperor, still young and amiable, you will easily understand the attraction which led my parents to forget the slight conformity with their tastes, their reason, and even their true interest, which this situation really had. At the end of two or three years they found out that a court is always a court, and that all is not pleasure in the service of an absolute master, even when he pleases and fascinates. However, they were for some time satisfied with their fate. My mother, especially, was extremely amused by what she saw. Her relations with the Empress were agreeable, as she was very graceful, and she *exalted* herself (*elle s'exaltait*) to the Emperor, who always treated her with great consideration. She was almost the only woman with whom he conversed. My mother said sometimes, at the end of the Empire: 'Va, je t'ai trop aimé pour ne point te haïr.'"

This sentiment is very visible in the portrait of Napoleon which opens the volume. There is in this long and minute delineation of Napoleon a curious application of the "odi et amo" of Catullus. This portrait is of extraordinary interest, and it adds something to our knowledge of Napoleon's character. It is certainly interesting to know that he was naturally sad and dreamy; that he was fond of ghost-stories and liked melancholy music; that he preferred the music of Paesiello, "because it is monotonous, and repeated impressions are the only impressions which become masters of us." He was always analyzing his own emotions and the emotions of others. His manners were not good. "It seemed," says Madame de Rémusat, "as if he had been irrevocably born to live under a tent; . . . he does not know how to enter a room or how to leave it. His gestures are abrupt, like his way of speaking. In his mouth Italian lost all its grace. Whatever language he spoke, it always seemed unfamiliar to him." His choice of books was limited. When he married the Archduchess Marie Louise he presented her with 'Les Contemporaines' (a novel by Rétif de la Bretonne), so that "she might form an idea of the feelings and usages of society."

Napoleon despised women. He did not often speak to them, and always did so with some embarrassment. To be sure, the women he knew under the Directory could not give him a high opinion of their sex. The old society was gone, and he only met the wives of contractors and of Terrorists. "He would have willingly advised that, in a well-organized society, we should be killed, as some insects die, as soon as we had accomplished the work of maternity." He had, however, had some affection for his first wife. He saw in her the instrument of his fortune. She made him general through her influence over Barras. She was of a good family, and he was proud of her. "Though he preferred her," continues Madame de Rémusat, "I have seen him in love three or four times; and it was then that he gave the measure of his despotic character. How angry the least obstacle made him! How rudely he treated the jealous uneasiness of his wife! 'You must,' said he to her, 'submit to all my caprices, and find it quite natural that I should give myself such distractions. . . . I am apart from all the world, and I accept nobody's conditions.'"

I am somewhat embarrassed in relating the details of the life of Napoleon and his first wife. Madame de Rémusat was only twenty-two years old when she was appointed lady-in-waiting to Madame Bonaparte, and she became the witness of very singular incidents. The Consul dined alone with his wife at Saint Cloud usually. Twice a week he had some guests, and once a month he gave a great banquet to a hundred persons in Paris in the Diana Gallery in the Tuileries. At these banquets he wished the guests to be dressed with much splendor. Madame Bonaparte was very jealous. She could have no children, and she was always trembling for her future. The family of the Consul detested her, as well as all the Beauharnais, who belonged to the old régime. "Sometimes I found Madame Bonaparte in tears," says Madame de Rémusat; "and then she began bitter complaints against her brothers-in-law, against Madame Murat, and Murat himself, who tried to excite in the Consul momentary caprices and who favored his secret intrigues. I perceived very soon that if Bonaparte loved his wife it was because her ordinary sweetness gave him some repose, and that she would lose her empire by her agitations."

One of the beauties who attracted for a brief season the attention of Bonaparte was the actress Mademoiselle Georges, who played in tragedy.

"Madame Bonaparte learned by the valets, who had become spies, that Mademoiselle Georges had been several times secretly introduced into a little apartment of the château. This discovery threw her into great disquietude, which she shared with me, and began to weep more than this passing affair required, in my opinion. . . . Her discontent led me to think that there was some exaggeration in the bitterness of her complaints. If she was to be believed, 'he had no moral principle, he concealed his vicious propensities because it was for his interest to do so, but by and by the world would see him abandoning himself to the most shameful passions. Had he not seduced his sisters one after the other? Did he not believe that he was so placed in the world that he could satisfy all his fantasies?' She was always afraid of a divorce. Bonaparte wanted an heir. 'But, Madame,' said I, 'it seems to me that the child of Madame your daughter repairs this misfortune; the First Consul loves her, and finally will adopt this child.' 'Alas!' said she, 'it is my wish; but the jealous character of Louis Bonaparte will always be an obstacle. His family have told him the outrageous lies which have been spread about on the subject of my daughter's conduct and the birth of this child. Calumny attributes this child to Bonaparte—that is enough; Louis will never consent to an arrangement with him.'"

Madame de Rémusat informs us that as soon as Bonaparte was occupied with another woman he became very harsh to his own wife. He cruelly informed her of it, and "he showed an almost savage surprise when she did not approve these distractions, which he demonstrated to her almost mathematically were allowable and necessary. 'I am not like another man,' said he, 'and the laws of morals or of conventionality are not made for me.' As soon as his caprice was gone he became again good, almost tender, to his wife."

"Bonaparte had still," writes Madame de Rémusat, "the habit of remaining every night with his wife; she had cleverly persuaded him that his personal security was interested in this intimacy. . . . Every night she only left us when she was advised that Bonaparte was in bed. But when he took this fancy for Mademoiselle Georges he sent

for her very late. . . . One evening Madame Bonaparte, more anxious than usual, had kept me with her, and spoke to me of her troubles. It was one o'clock in the morning. We were alone in her drawing-room; the Tuileries were silent. Suddenly she starts. 'I cannot bear this,' said she. 'I am sure Mademoiselle Georges is up-stairs; I must go and see.' I did all I could to stop this resolution. 'Follow me,' said she. . . . There we were, walking silently, Madame Bonaparte first, very excited, and myself behind her, ascending slowly the small staircase which led to Bonaparte's room. A slight noise was heard; Madame Bonaparte exclaimed: 'It is perhaps Rustan, the Mameluke, who guards the door. This man will perhaps kill us both.' I was seized with a ridiculous fear, and, without thinking that I left Madame Bonaparte in utter darkness, I went down again with the candle and returned rapidly to the drawing-room. She followed me a few minutes afterwards: when she saw me she began to laugh, and so did I, and we abandoned her enterprise."

It is almost necessary to apologize in translating such stories; but I suppose that I can say as much as this young *dame d'honneur* of twenty-two. Besides, such stories are very characteristic; they throw a great light upon Bonaparte and his family. Poor Josephine has remained very popular in France notwithstanding her just jealousy; among the people it is believed that she was the good influence, that Bonaparte was happy as long as he kept her, and that fortune abandoned him when he abandoned her.

THE SITUATION IN AFGHANISTAN.

London, Oct. 29, 1879.

GENERAL ROBERTS has effected an advance upon Kabul at an earlier date than I anticipated when I wrote to you a month or six weeks ago. This advance was accomplished by means of a very desperate device on the part of the Indian Government. My estimate of the time that would have to elapse before a force sufficient to march to Kabul was collected in the Kurram Valley was based upon the difficulty of collecting baggage animals. At the time when Major Cavagnari and his companions were murdered the camels with the Kurram Valley force were dying at the rate of three hundred and fifty a week, and it seemed to me impossible, in the drained condition of the Punjab, to make good this appalling waste. The impossibility of doing so very speedily became apparent to the Indian Government also. But there were many hundred camels in the desert between the Indus and the Bolan Pass which conveyed supplies and linked the troops at Kandahar with their base at Sukkur. Despairing of any other way of obtaining the requisite transport, the Government of India transferred all these camels from General Stewart to General Roberts. This transfer renders it impossible to despatch reinforcements to Kandahar if there should be a rising in that part of Afghanistan, but it enabled General Roberts to march to Kabul. The advance, as it turned out, was brilliantly successful; but the peril was great. General Roberts (I calculate) had not more than five thousand men with him, and his carriage was so scanty that in the advance upon Kabul the troops had no food with them except what they carried in their haversacks. Had the Afghans been sufficiently united and determined to have held the heights in the rear of Kabul for two or three days, want of food would have obliged General Roberts to retire. For the moment, however, he is secure in Kabul, and the difficulty now is to know what we are to do next.

The Ministry are steadily pursuing their foolish and dishonest policy of withholding the true state of things from the nation. Newspaper correspondents were not allowed to accompany General Roberts's march, and no particle of information appears in the London journals regarding Afghanistan which has not passed through official channels. This information is simply worthless, except to those who, having been in Afghanistan, can read between the lines; and much which was authoritatively stated from Simlah has already been falsified. There is a purpose in the continuous stream of prevarication which flows from the seat of the Government in India. It is to minimize as far as possible the extent and intensity of the hostility aroused against us in Afghanistan. But the endeavor to suppress the actual facts becomes, with every succeeding day, increasingly difficult. The tribes that swarm in the Kurram Valley are all up against us. The troops on the summit of the Shutar-Gardan have been withdrawn to Kabul, their position there being no longer tenable. They were beleaguered by swarms of hostile Afghans, who actually at one time obtained possession of their water, and were so confident of destroying the entire detachment that they sent a message to the officer in command, offering to spare their lives if they would lay down their arms. The timely arrival of a force from Kabul caused the besieging tribes to disperse. But the whole country between the Shutar-Gardan and British territory is in a state of insurrection, and the English detachments in the Kurram Valley are to be withdrawn close to our own frontier. Consequently, that part of the "scientific frontier" which consisted in the right to garrison the Kurram Valley we have already virtually abandoned. The prudence of this conduct no one can question; the road across the Shutar-Gardan is already closed by the approach of winter, and our troops, if retained in the Kurram Valley, would be merely a butt for the hill tribes to practise their rifles upon. But could a more striking proof be given of the fraud practised upon the nation in the matter of the "scientific frontier"?

General Roberts's communications with India now lie *viâ* Jalalabad and Khybar. At present these communications do not exist. A few hundred men have, it is true, occupied Jalalabad, but the want of carriage has prevented the advance of a large force through the Khybar. The road between Kabul and Jalalabad passes through the passes of Jugdulluck and the Khoord Kabul, in which General Elphinstone's force perished in 1841; and these are now said to be occupied in force by many thousand Ghilzais, as well as several of the regiments which opposed General Roberts's march upon Kabul. I do not, however, anticipate much difficulty in clearing these passes of Afghans. Our difficulties will commence later on when these passes are choked with snow, and convoys of supplies have to be conveyed through them for the use of the garrison at Kabul. This will be a duty of the most harassing description, in the execution of which both soldiers and camp-followers will suffer heavily. Meanwhile, to restore the lost communications of the Kandahar force, a light railway is being constructed across the desert as far as Dadur, and beyond that a tramway is to pass through the Bolan Pass to Quetta. This work is to be executed under the direct superintendence of Sir Richard Temple, the Governor of Bombay. He may be reckoned upon, with perfect certainty, to spend an immense quantity of money and to do the work as badly as it can be done. Sir Richard is the greatest master of the science of "eye-wash" that India has ever seen. No genuine work has ever been extracted from him, but of profitless energy the man has a superabundance, and what he will do on the present occasion will be something of this kind: He will ride, periodically, upon relays of horses between Sukkur and Dadur in very brief spaces of time; he will construct a *brummagem* railway, which the first week of rain will render unserviceable; he will write a long report, and not improbably be made a peer. But not more than this is to be expected of him.

So much for the military situation. A disaster such as happened to us when last we occupied Kabul can hardly happen again, because that was occasioned by the almost incredible imbecility of the men in chief command. But we have before us a costly and harassing winter campaign, in which the endurance of the soldiers will be sorely tried, and the mortality in the native regiments and camp-followers cannot fail to be very great. But when we turn to the political aspect of affairs the outlook is dark indeed. There is, to be sure, one line of policy which would extricate us from our embarrassments with comparative ease, but there is not the least chance that it will be adopted. The abdication of Yakub Khan might become so far an advantage to us that it effaces the last vestige of the ridiculous treaty of Gundamuck. It leaves the Government at liberty to reconsider their policy *ab initio* in the light of present experiences. They might take advantage of this to summon Abd-al-Rahman Khan from Bokhara, invest him with the dignity of amir, and withdraw from the country with all convenient speed. Abd-al-Rahman Khan is the son of an elder brother of the late Amir Shir Ali, and a man of military ability and force of character. In the wars which followed the death of Dost Mohammed he bore a conspicuous part, defeated Shir Ali in a pitched battle, and for some time exercised the authority of amir in Kabul. He has a large following among the Afghans, and, if assisted by a subsidy from the English Government, would probably have a better chance of re-establishing order than any other chief. But there is no chance of this course being adopted. We shall remain in Afghanistan in order (according to the official phrase) to "reorganize the government." What we shall actually effect is to prolong the disorder. We are ourselves the cause of the anarchy prevailing in Afghanistan, and until that cause is removed the anarchy will continue. There are two reasons which render it impossible that we should restore order: we have neither officials to whom to give orders, nor the troops which would be necessary to get our orders obeyed. Our mandates in Afghanistan will be obeyed within the range of our Martini-Henry rifles, and not an inch further. Beyond that range each tribal chief will do what seemeth right in his own eyes.

All this time in India the horizon is heavily overcast. The joy of the North Indian Mohammedans over the catastrophe at Kabul was too great

to be concealed. It was openly expressed everywhere, and a very small cause would suffice to induce them to make common cause with their co-religionists beyond the frontier. This cause will shortly be supplied. The Government of India are already busy devising new taxes to meet the expenses of the war, and it is expected that these will take the form of a duty on one or more of the necessities of life to an Indian—such, for example, as tobacco and sugar. It is the only way in which fresh revenue can be raised; but I know also, on authority of the highest kind, that any such tax is expected to be followed by insurrection. Already that mysterious rite is being performed in India which preceded the outbreak of the great mutiny in 1857: I mean the passing from village to village, through vast tracts of country, of a "chupattie"—a kind of cake made of flour and water. It is a warning sent to the people to be alert and ready for some great event about to happen. The agitation, moreover, both in India and Afghanistan, will be largely fomented by the large bodies of troops which Russia will set in motion next spring in Central Asia, in order to avenge the serious defeat she has sustained at Geok-Tepe at the hands of the Tekke-Turcomans. There can be no question that she will make a great effort to subjugate entirely these marauders, and probably to occupy Merv. Should she succeed in this a cry will be sent up by our own Russophobists that all is lost unless we hasten to occupy Herat; and if we attempt that the beginning of the end will have come. With a half-subdued Afghanistan on our hands, we shall be confronted by mutiny in our native army and rebellion in India.

Correspondence.

MORAL OF THE VIRGINIA ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been a reader of your paper for some time, and have been impressed by its calm and liberal views. Although differing from you on some important points of political opinion, I have thought that perhaps a few reflections upon the recent remarkable election in Virginia may not be deemed too unimportant to occupy a portion of your space.

The result of the election has been contrary to the expectation of the Debt-paying (or, as you call them, the "anti-repudiationist") party on the one side, and has exceeded the most sanguine hopes of the Readjusting party on the other. It is far more important than either side believed it a few months ago. A question of local interest has brought about a state of affairs which may change the entire current of politics in Virginia and become of national moment. Its effects may be summarized about as follows: The color-line is broken, and the negro as a class is henceforth a subordinate factor in Virginia politics. Secondly, by the loss of the class which has heretofore been its principal support, the Republican party has, after an outing of a decade, sprung, as if by magic, from utter insignificance into a position from which, provided it possesses the requisite virtue and prudence, it can control the State. And, lastly, Virginia may become once more a power in national politics.

The "true inwardness" of this contest in Virginia has not been what the outside world believed it to be. It has not been merely the question of the payment of the State debt, and the result should not be accepted in its *prima-facie* aspect. Whilst the repeal of the bill known as the McCulloch Bill, passed by the last Legislature to refund the State debt at a diminished rate of interest, has been the ostensible issue, and whilst the "Debt-paying" wing of the party, composed of the real taxpayers of the State, has honestly been striving to carry out the provisions of the act and prevent further agitation of the question, the other wing has really been fighting to obtain control of the State Government and secure the United States Senatorship, having possibly at the same time an eye to the management of one of the great railway lines of the State. The repeal of the new Funding Bill has been used by this party merely as a means to this end. Although an earnest supporter of the McCulloch settlement, I am constrained to admit that I do not consider it in danger from the successful party. Having used it before the people, and by its pretended terrors secured the almost solid negro vote, other objects now engross their attention. Even should they be able to retain the co-operation of the Republican Readjusters, they would have a bare majority in the General Assembly, and the Governor would veto any bill they might pass disturbing the settlement; and before they could go again to the country the bonds will probably all be funded and safe within the protection of the Court of Appeals. This the Readjusters understand, so that, although they may agitate the question this winter and force a veto to use as capital before the people at the next election, any panic about the repudiation of the debt is groundless.

The election, therefore, has not affected the status of the debt; but it has produced other grave results. It has destroyed the color-line and killed the Conservative party. I do not mean that the great principle of the Conservative party—devotion to Virginia and her old traditions—is dead, for the new party which will arise will probably inherit, or rather take, that with it; but the Conservative party, as it has existed for ten years past, is probably defunct. Having some virtues and not a few sins to its account, broken at last by dissensions within itself, it has literally gone to pieces, and its fragments drift helplessly at the disposal of any salvager who has the sagacity to save and use them. Its history is a curious one. Born more than ten years ago of the necessities of the time, bold, defiant, intolerant, chivalrous in its aims, unscrupulous in its methods, it claimed the virtue of the cavalier and employed the arts of the Jesuit. Cut off by the Federal Government from any share in the national patronage, it compensated itself by monopolizing the spoils of the State offices. Without fear of opposition success has naturally grown into excess, and at length the party has split into two factions, each striving for the supremacy. After a bitter contest between them, in which, like rival prelates of old, each, claiming to be the only true, lawful, and apostolic party, has excommunicated the other with all the solemnities of bell, book, and candle, the event has found them too far apart ever to unite again, and each is too weak to enjoy the fruits. In this condition either wing is willing to offer terms to the Republican party, and there is no reason why a coalition may not honorably take place. The causes which necessitated the organization of the Conservative party two years ago no longer operate. The carpet-bagger has disappeared or become assimilated; the color-line demarcating the Republican party is obliterated. One of the demonstrated facts of this election is that, no matter which side the majority of the respectable whites espouse, the majority of the negroes will take the opposite; and in this very contest they arrayed themselves against the whites, notwithstanding the efforts of the leading Republicans of the State, backed by the Government in Washington, to fling them on the side of the maintenance of the public faith. It is apparent that the Government has lost its hold on them, for the present certainly, and this is the best thing that could have befallen the Republican party. With a respectable proportion of the best white citizens of the State ready to enter into terms with it, the Government can afford to let the negro go, whilst, on the other hand, the whites are willing to appease the ultra radicals at the North by making such substantial concessions to the negro as admitting him into the jury-box and repealing the capitation-tax amendment.

With reasonable skill and temperance the Republican party can, by waiving technicalities of nomenclature, secure the best people of Virginia, possibly even get a Republican Senator this winter, and perhaps obtain her eleven electoral votes in 1880. By altering the insane tone of the press, instilling a moderate amount of humanity into the Stalwart orators at the North, and treating us at the South at least as fellow-beings, it may make her Republican in fact if not in name. If it does this the "Solid South" is broken for ever, and with the Solid South goes the Solid North. The Republican party will control the country; but the opposing party will be strong enough to compel it to be virtuous and liberal, and the result will be an era of prosperity and progress unprecedented in the annals of the Union.

Virginius.

Richmond, Va., Nov. 10, 1879.

THE *NATION*, THE SOUTH, AND THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been a subscriber to your paper for a good many years. Perhaps no better proof could be given that it was to me generally satisfactory. But of late there has been, in my opinion, such a fall from grace that I may be driven to the extreme measure of stopping my subscription. Before dealing so severe a blow, however, it may be well to give the particulars of my complaint.

The general course of your editorials satisfies me that you, like myself, are far from being a thorough admirer of either of our great political parties. You will probably agree with me that popular ignorance is an important factor in our politics, and perhaps also agree with me that it operates mainly in favor of the Democratic party. The Irish day-laborer is inevitably and invariably a Democrat under all circumstances, and whatever question may be at issue. His name is legion, and his ignorance is Egyptian darkness. According to my observation, the optimists

who call themselves philosophical politicians habitually leave this element —viz., of popular ignorance—entirely out of view. They close their eyes to it, and obstinately refuse to see it, or to acknowledge its existence. Yet of all the elements that enter into our politics it is the most permanent and invariable. It is the element which gives permanence and stability to the Democratic party, and makes it substantially certain that while the Federal party, the Whig party, and the American party—indeed, all other parties—must successively disappear and become things of the past, the Democratic party will always be "on hand." Not only so, but wherever there is a large accumulation of popular ignorance; wherever the darkness is the thickest; wherever the dangerous classes are the strongest, the Democratic majority is the strongest and the most obstinate.

The practical result of all this is that Democracy means Tweed and Judge Barnard. It means Jim Fisk and Judge Cardozo. Without claiming any superhuman virtue for Massachusetts, and acknowledging that Ben Butler is the growth of our soil, I still claim that she has not yet produced any monstrosities to rival those just named. The corrupt judge is a thing unknown among us, and though our thieves may have plundered the public enemy they have not yet been detected in stealing from our own treasury. When this State becomes Democratic we may perhaps take a new departure.

Far be it from me to deny that the Democratic party has had its statesmen and its great men. Perhaps it has such now, though who they are may be somewhat uncertain. It is undoubtedly true that the people of this country, without distinction of party, desire that the government of its affairs should be honestly and faithfully administered. In the absence of any clearly-marked issue at the present time between the two parties, the question of civil-service reform has become peculiarly prominent. Is it possible that you can delude yourself with the chimera that any such reform can have one moment's consideration from the Democratic party? Why should you indulge yourself so perseveringly in sneering at the Cabinet and the Administration for the reason that, in the midst of enormous disadvantages and impediments, it has not yet cured evils that have grown nearly inveterate, and has not yet done all that was hoped for in the proposed reform? It has at least made a beginning and accomplished something to put down the patronage so long usurped by members of Congress. It is the only party that even promises such a reform. We all know that if the Democratic ascendency is restored all prospect and possibility of such a reform is buried deeper than plummet ever sounded.

You have a right to turn Democrat if you choose, but what right have you to misrepresent the moral which the other side undertakes to draw from the Southern atrocities? We at the North have no right to object if our Southern neighbors have a taste for murdering one another, and if Southern juries can see nothing criminal or improper in such amusements. The lawlessness and barbarism of the South are nothing new. But while you are sneering at the "bloody shirt," and speaking contemptuously of "second-hand" murders in Mississippi, you miss the point of the argument. We care "precious little" if one ruffian shoots another in Georgia or South Carolina; but honest voting, and honest counting of votes, are an entirely different matter. We hear much of the "solid South" about this time, and if that unanimity is fairly and honestly produced nobody can complain of it. But unanimity produced by force and violence; the suppression of minorities by intolerance and by threats; the discouragement of opposition by shooting its candidates, all this we object to. I regret that in this objection you do not seem to concur.

Respectfully your servant, J.

Boston, Nov. 10, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: During the past decade of reconstruction, carpet-bag and negro rule, rapine and stealing, Federal armed interference and oppression, and steady ruin of the Southern States your ably-edited paper has justly been regarded by our at times almost hopeless people as one of the few conservative, liberal, independent journals published in the North; and during those dark days many of us became subscribers, or at least regular readers of it, recognizing in it an evidence that sectional hatred had not entirely poisoned the journalistic mind of the whole North and swept away every vestige of justice towards a brave people. But a radical change came over your paper about a twelvemonth since—a complete somersault was executed by it; and we find it during this period vieing with the extremest Stalwart organs of East and West—viz., the New York *Times* and *Tribune*, the Cincinnati *Gazette*, the Chicago *Times* and *Inter-Ocean*, and Col. Harper's Okolona *Southern States*—in its wholesale vituperation and abuse of the South and Southern people, differing only in its more dignified style and language, but thereby carrying more weight with its deliberate, unjust, and untruthful aspersions of the entire people of the Southern States—notably in your weekly articles on the Chisholm and Dixon affairs, in which you, without a knowledge of the characters of the parties or the attendant circumstances, unhesitatingly branded the people of entire counties and a whole State as murderers and outlaws. Twice I marked articles of this nature with the intention of returning the paper, accompanied by a request for its discontinuance; but your foreign correspondence is always of interest and your literary criticisms able and instructive, and hence we still *tolerate* in our household the *Nation*.

This is plain, hard language, but I am a Southern man and feel keenly the injustice when it comes from a source which professes to be *independent* and *conservative*.

I am pleased to note a marked change in the tone of your every article on Southern subjects in your issue of Oct. 30. Until the *Nation* ceases to follow the lead of Stalwart organs, and treats Southern questions with fair-minded justice, it cannot expect increased circulation in our midst.

Respectfully, Subscriber.

Natchez, Miss., Nov. 5, 1879.

[The phenomenon which "J." calls our "fall from grace" is apparently the same which "Subscriber" calls a "radical change" and "complete somersault." The accounts which these two observers, one witnessing it in Natchez, Miss., and the other in Boston, give of it differ so widely, however, that we feel that it is too obscure in its nature and origin for us to hope to throw any light upon it. That something remarkable has happened to us within a twelvemonth seems clear from the testimony of these two highly respectable witnesses watching us at points fifteen hundred miles apart; but whether it was our joining the "extremest Stalwarts," or allying ourselves with the Democrats, is something we are not competent to decide.

We shall, however, say in reply to some of "J.'s" remarks that while we agree with him in thinking the Democratic party essentially the party of ignorance, and likely to remain so (an idea which we have set forth in these columns a hundred times at least), and therefore expect little or nothing from it in the way of reform, we do not agree with him or with many other good Republicans in thinking that for this reason nothing in the way of reform ought to be expected from the Republicans either; and yet this is a doctrine which the Stalwarts are constantly forcing on us. What they say, in substance, is that the Democrats are so bad that all the Republicans can do is to denounce them vigorously and keep the offices for themselves. We, on the other hand, believe that the duties and responsibilities of the Republicans grow in the ratio of their moral and mental superiority to their enemies; that it is not only their duty to live up to their own platforms, but that their best chance of keeping their hold on power lies in appealing to the highest intelligence of the people through good government. They have no right to throw civil-service reform overboard and flinch from honest treatment of the finances, or seek safety from puzzling problems in the arms of "a Strong Man" because the Democrats are so wicked and ignorant; nay, the wickedness and ignorance of the Democrats make it unwise, from the party point of view, to do so. For instance, no good that such a person as Silas B. Dutcher could possibly do by half a dozen stump-speeches can make up for the scandal and disappointment and damage to the cause of reform worked by the abandonment of its own principles, when the Administration allowed him to leave his official duties to become a roving campaign orator. The badness of the Democrats does not excuse this—it aggravates it.

As to "murders," they are proper party ammunition when it is proposed to adopt some measure of legislation or administration with a view to their prevention—as, for instance, Irish murders might be in the British Parliament, or Sicilian or Neapolitan murders in the Italian Parliament. Murders might, in fact, if too numerous or difficult of detection for the existing judicial machinery, properly become, in such cases, a party question on which power

might rightly be lost or won. Murders, too, may properly be used to discredit a party which fails to punish them, as in the present case here; but when no party action with regard to them is proposed, mere denunciation of them cannot be allowed to be made the sole work of the party, and a sufficient substitute for attention to all the interests with which the party is called on to deal directly by legislation. The use of them for this purpose is odious and ridiculous, and may be wicked and brutal. The last canvass in this State was conducted by the Republicans solely on two murders at the South, which they did not pretend to have or have had the power to punish, and the connection of which with politics was very slight, if such connection existed at all, while everything for which the party is really responsible was kept studiously out of sight. To "J.'s" insinuation that we have no objection, or have concealed our objection, to the production of unanimity at the South by violence and intimidation, we can only reply that in making it he is guilty either of careless reading of our columns, which we do not think a grave offence, or of gross misrepresentation of what he has read, which is a very grave offence.—Ed. Nation.]

SILVER AND THE SILVER CONFERENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since my return from Europe I have been made acquainted with the satirical reflections of my friend Mr. Halstead, of the Cincinnati *Commercial*, on a short note which I addressed to the *Nation* from Wiesbaden on the 10th of July last. In that note I stated my conviction that there had been no change of public sentiment in England or France to warrant the expectation of their entering a new international silver conference. A few days later the Kelley-Bismarck interview was published, whereupon Mr. Halstead aimed sundry arrows in my direction, which of course went wide of the mark, as I had not committed myself to any opinion whatever respecting the attitude of Germany.

It would not be justifiable to return to so old a controversy for its own sake, but, as the subject is still fresh and is likely to come before Congress soon, I will add a few words to what has gone before. The Kelley-Bismarck interview may have been important to Mr. Kelley and Mr. Halstead. I do not think it was important to anybody else. I visited Berlin some weeks after the interview was published, and I noticed a degree of sluggishness and indifference to silver in the public councils of the Empire truly amazing when compared with the glowing periods of Mr. Kelley and the sparkling witticisms of Mr. Halstead. It is well known that a special commissioner of the United States, of the highest character and attainments, visited Berlin in the month of September in the interest of the proposed international monetary conference. If the adhesion of Germany to the conference had been obtained, doubtless Mr. Kelley and Mr. Halstead would have heard of it before this time. Such adhesion may, perhaps, be secured at some future time, but for the present I think that the London *Economist* is very near the truth when it says (October 18) that, "although they [the Germans] are not likely to retrace their steps"—*i.e.*, to adopt a double or alternative standard—"they are willing to make a much larger use of silver in their currency than was at first contemplated." It is plain to any traveller in Germany that there is a scarcity of silver subsidiary coinage, the five-mark banknote being still in circulation everywhere, although much tattered and begrimed, and although long ago called in for redemption. These dilapidated bits of paper would not circulate if there were a sufficiency of silver; and, in fact, I heard frequent complaints at hotels, railway stations, and theatres of a lack of small change. To fill up this gap will probably be the first endeavor of the German Government. Whether they will go any further is at least doubtful, Mr. Kelley and Mr. Halstead to the contrary notwithstanding. Frankfort bankers with whom I conversed said roundly that a return to the silver or silver-and-gold standard was impossible.

At all events one thing is certain: neither England nor France nor Germany has yet signified its assent to a new conference. Congress must this winter take notice of that fact. If the silver-men believe that further efforts to bring those countries in are likely to be crowned with success, it is obviously their wisest course to stop temporarily the coinage of silver dollars, in order to put as much pressure as possible upon them, and especially upon England. The price of silver is now advancing, and the more it advances the less interest is England or any other country (even our own) likely to feel in artificial measures to "restore its value." Our coinage of two millions per month not only imposes a useless burden on the mints and the Treasury, but it relieves to that extent the pressure upon the foreign silver market, the Indian exchanges, the German treasury, etc.

If, on the other hand, there is no probability of a new international conference, then certainly we ought not to coin any more silver dollars until a use is found for those we now have. The Director of the Mint, himself one of the hot advocates of the Silver Bill in Congress, says in his current annual report that "if European nations continue to decline overtures for an international agreement in regard to the coinage of silver, the expediency of opening our mints to the free coinage of their present stock of silver, and inviting its speedy demonetization or export here, is questionable." Rather! He goes on to show that whatever may be the situation and needs of other countries, there is no doubt that the United States can obtain enough gold for all their purposes. In other words, England, France, and Germany may be so distressed as to require the remonetization of silver, but the United States are able to help themselves to the world's stock of gold with the utmost freedom, so that "the commercial disaster and depression threatened or feared as the result of restricting the commercial world to one metal are more likely to fall upon the nations that initiated and are responsible for the movement." This is perfectly true, and it might be called "taking a high position." For my own part I think we have been soliciting foreign attention long enough—that, for a country which admittedly has nothing to fear from a short supply of gold, we might be in more dignified business than dancing attendance year after year on the finance ministers of Europe. The exclamation of another Ohio sage, "What have we to do with abroad?" has now some pertinence.

We have now coined forty-five millions of silver dollars, all but a fraction of which remain an inert mass in the Treasury, and the people are taxed two millions per month to add to the stock. The question is asked how long this process can go on without causing disaster—that is, without bringing us to the silver standard. I answer that it can go on as long as the people are willing to pay the two millions per month and provide vaults to hold the resulting silver dollars. When they get tired of the game it will probably be stopped, and then there will be a dispute as to what shall be done with the accumulated stock. If it shall then be decided to sell it off, as is not unlikely, I trust that Mr. Halstead will step up like a man and pay his share of the loss, proportioned to his share of the responsibility for incurring it.

Horace White.

New York, November 17, 1879.

MR. BERGH AS A COMMENTATOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In my previous enquiries into the curious change of front sometimes shown by quotations in the hands of Mr. Bergh our attention was occupied by the cases of Colin and Carpenter.* Both these gentlemen are foreigners, one of them being a Frenchman, the other an Englishman. But there is another eminent physiologist, who, though French by birth, has spent so much time in this country that he is not only widely known to us by reputation, but is personally familiar to many in the United States. This is Dr. C. E. Brown-Séquard, at present occupying the Chair of Medicine in the College of France as the successor of Claude Bernard. Dr. Brown-Séquard's studies have been mainly devoted to the nervous system, and he has sought, with great skill and untiring industry, to unravel its secrets by the experimental method.

It is unnecessary to say that experimental investigations in the nervous system require the greatest care in their performance and application. The structure of the parts is so complicated, and the possibility of their sympathetic reaction so constant, that every precaution is necessary to avoid uncertainty or failure. Nevertheless, success in this department, though difficult, is not impossible; and, with everything that still remains in doubt, a certain number of important facts with regard to the nervous functions have been established to the satisfaction of all. Dr. Brown-Séquard has won his reputation, in great measure, by investigations on the spinal cord—a part which is at once of fundamental importance in the nervous system, and also less complex in structure than the brain and its appendages.

According to Mr. Bergh, Brown-Séquard has an exceedingly low opinion of experiments on the spinal cord; and he quotes him, in the New York *Tribune* of September 26, 1874, as expressing this opinion in very plain terms. The passage is as follows:

* The *Nation*, October 16 and November 6.

"Even Dr. Brown-Séquard himself, the very prince of experimenters, says: 'I must say that it is impossible to know, while we make a section of parts of a spinal cord, what is the precise depth of the injury; it is mere guesswork.'"

Evidently, then, there can be no use in making the section. As the whole object of such an experiment is to learn what nervous endowments belong to a particular part, if we do not know what part has been reached by the section we can get from it no useful information. But why did Brown-Séquard go on making such experiments when he knew that it was impossible to learn anything from them? Perhaps he can tell us.

The above quotation is from Dr. Brown-Séquard's 'Lectures on the Physiology and Pathology of the Central Nervous System' (Philadelphia: 1860). It is to be found on page 42 in a foot-note. Mr. Bergh gives the quotation correctly, so far as it goes. The trouble is, he does not give the whole of it. The entire passage is as follows:

"I must say that it is absolutely impossible to know, *while* we make a section of parts of the spinal cord, what is the precise depth of the injury; it is mere guesswork. But if we study well the phenomena, and then, after having killed the animal, if we put the spinal cord in alcohol, we render it hard, and we can ascertain exactly what is the extent of the incision. This is the means that I always employ in my experiments, and it is also the means employed by the committee appointed by the Société de Biologie in 1855 for the investigation of my researches on the spinal cord."

So it appears that Dr. Brown-Séquard has no doubt about the exact spot reached by his incision in the spinal cord; and no one who has the opportunity of reading his original passage can have any doubt about it either. Would it be too much to say that the audacity of curtailing his language to give it an opposite sense has something about it almost ludicrous?

I will touch upon an additional instance of this sort, more on account of the great name involved in it than because it is very different from the rest. In the New York *Herald* of September 30, 1879, Mr. Bergh denies that Harvey was the first discoverer of the circulation of the blood, and maintains that it is only a popular error to think so. But in any event, he assures us, it was not by the aid of vivisection that Harvey accomplished what he did; and, to make the matter sure, he quotes the great author himself. Mr. Bergh says:

"While correcting this idea of Harvey's discovery, my principal purpose is to show that it was not to vivisection that he owes his fame, for nowhere, so far as I can learn, does he assert that he discovered the circulation by vivisection. On the contrary, he tells us: 'When I first gave my mind to vivisections as a means of discovering the motions and uses of the heart, and sought to discover these from actual inspection, I found the task truly arduous—so full of difficulties that I was almost tempted to think that the motion of the heart was only to be comprehended by God. My mind was greatly unsettled, nor did I know what I should conclude'; and he adds: 'It was reflection which led to the discovery.'"

Now, if any one can be presumed to know by what means Harvey reached his discoveries, such as they were, it is probably Harvey himself; and if he tells us, as implied above, that vivisections only left his mind "greatly unsettled" on this point, so much the worse for vivisections. But Mr. Bergh stops in his quotation at a very convenient place. If he had continued to the bottom of the page the effect would have been different. The passage is from the 'Works of William Harvey, M.D.' (Sydenham edition, London, 1847), at the commencement of chapter i., page 19. The succeeding paragraph is as follows:

"At length, and by using greater and daily diligence, having frequent recourse to vivisections, employing a variety of animals for the purpose, and collating numerous observations, I thought that I had attained to the truth, that I should extricate myself and escape from this labyrinth, and that I had discovered, what I so much desired, both the motion and the use of the heart and arteries; since which time I have not hesitated to expose my views upon these subjects not only in private to my friends, but also in public in my anatomical lectures, after the manner of the Academy of old."

There is no such additional remark ("it was reflection which led to the discovery") anywhere in this chapter.

I think we must allow, therefore, that Harvey does attribute his discovery to the results of experiment, notwithstanding Mr. Bergh's difficulty in finding the assertion. J. C. D.

New York, Nov. 14, 1879.

ARMY RECRUITING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your remarks upon "R.'s" letter in your issue of October 9 you say: "R. overlooks the fact that our army and the English are the only ones in which the ranks are filled exclusively by volunteers, and therefore by men who, as a class, may be said to have failed, or despaired of success, in civil life." One of the premises from which you reason seems to be wanting. It must be either that there is no hope of success or advancement in the army, or that there is something degrading or dishonorable in military service. You advocate the promotion of deserving men from the ranks to the grade of commissioned officers to correct the present deplorable condition of the rank and file; and if your views were carried out there seems to be no reason why the army should not receive into its ranks as privates "the kind of recruits from which civil institutions, firms, and corporations draw their servants for the lowest grades." But we must first secure deserving men to promote, and grade the non-commissioned rank up to the commissioned by suitable rates of pay, and by attaching to the different grades facilities for self-respect and self-improvement.

By our present system of recruiting, offices are opened in the different large cities, not always in respectable localities, and the officers in charge consider their duties performed by accepting such recruits as present themselves who are physically qualified, and who show no marked symptoms of moral depravity. When the wants of the service have been for the time being supplied, the offices are closed until there is a further demand for recruits. It is evident that such a system would wreck any business corporation that should adopt it; and I think we need look no further for the "something wrong." It ought to be entirely practicable to procure from a nation of forty millions of people a sufficient number of recruits for an army of twenty-five thousand men, of fair intelligence and education and of good moral character, who have not "failed, or despaired of success, in civil life." In my experience I have not found that "the recruits to the army during the last five years have shown a high standard" either in education or morals. I have been captain of a company for seven years; during this time about two hundred men have served in my company. Out of this number but nine have had sufficient education to enable them to perform ordinary clerical duties, and of these nine four were of intemperate habits. More than fifty per cent. of the whole number by actual computation have been either intemperate in their habits or of depraved moral character. I have no reason to suppose that my company is exceptional in any respect, and, as far as my observation of other troops has extended, they have seemed to me to be composed of about the same class of men.

The only chance for improvement is to commence at the bottom and endeavor to fill the ranks with men from whom it may be possible to make promotions without danger of degrading the service.

A Line Officer from the Ranks.

October 22, 1879.

AN IMPORTANT DISCOVERY FOR MEXICAN ANTIQUITIES.

[We are permitted to print the following letter addressed to Mr. George H. Moore, Superintendent of the Lenox Library.—Ed. Nation.]

Dear Sir: Before leaving this city I beg to submit to you in writing, as agreed upon, the preliminary results of investigations on the subject of the documents found in your library under the title of 'History of the Mexican Indians' ('Historia de los Indios mexicanos'), by Juan de Tovar (or Tobar). They consist, as you had already stated, of a fragment of the said history, and of two letters, one from the Jesuit father Joseph de Acosta to the Jesuit Juan de Tobar, and the latter's reply thereto. There is the strongest probability that these letters were written between the years 1587 and 1589, whereas the historical fragment itself is of older date, as I shall hereafter relate. I can but repeat here the statements made by me to the Historical Society of New York on the 4th instant.

These documents derive their chief importance from the fact that they demonstrate a class of writers on Mexican topics, hitherto scarcely known except to very few students, to be the most authentic, truthful, and therefore reliable authors on aboriginal Mexican history and ethnology. These authors (whose works are now known to us to exist) are: Juan de Tobar (between 1569 and 1587), Diego Durán (1579 and 1581), Joseph de Acosta (1587 to 1590), and Fernando de Alvarado Tezozomoc (1598). The first two of these four were mestizoes, Acosta was a Spanish Jesuit, and Tezozomoc was an Indian.

These four historians agree most remarkably in their picture of the state of culture, mode of life, and social organization of the Mexican aborigines, as well as in most incidents of their history. On the other hand, they differ on many of the most important points from the other sources known to us since the sixteenth century. Whereas the groups of

historical writers, whose standard-bearers may be looked for in Gomara and Torquemada, paint for us an Indian monarchy based upon feudal tenure and mixed up with Oriental despotism, the four authors above named exhibit to the careful and critical reader the picture of a military democracy with communism in living. If the former treat of a Mexican nation, state, and empire, the latter mention sedentary Indian tribes, speaking dialects, engaged in constant warfare with each other except where (as was the case in the valley of Mexico) a confederacy of tribes was formed for the purpose of preying upon their neighbors. Gomara and Torquemada, however much we must admire them and their labor in gathering material, present to us only *European* versions of Indian stories, whereas the others give us the Indian side of them, and Tezozomoc even tells the tale in Indian "speech." The question as to whether full faith and credit should be given to the latter group of authors or not is therefore one of unusual interest.

Until lately the view of ancient society in Mexico taken by Torquemada and the bulk of writers since the sixteenth century has evidently prevailed. This was due principally to the fact that the sources whence they derived their knowledge were indicated in their works so profusely that we relied upon their authenticity without much critical examination. Many things were "taken for granted," and while it was admitted that the pictorial records of the aborigines, their tales and songs, were the foundations of these historical works, few attempts were made to investigate the true nature of that foundation and its connection with the authors who have built upon it. In fact, it is only now that we begin to see how Gomara relied upon Motolinia, and the latter in turn drew from that collection of native material *saved* between 1528 and 1540 at the instigation of the much-abused Bishop Zumárraga. (This point will be fully cleared up, I hope, by my distinguished friend, Señor Icazbalceta, of Mexico.) Torquemada's sources were known to be principally of Tezcucan origin, and it has been detected lately that he copied to a great extent, besides, from his clerical brother, Mendieta, who in turn was a plagiary of the Licentiate Zurita (1549–1569). There is furthermore a remote filiation to the Mendoza Codex (about 1549).

Of the four authors whom I have mentioned as representing views distinct from those of the two preceding ones, Acosta has stood quite alone in public prominence for two centuries. He was always esteemed, but the points in which he differed from Gomara and Torquemada were passed over as unexplained variations of minor interest. Little, if any, interest was taken in the question of *his* sources. For three centuries we have read in his book that the Jesuit Tobar, his contemporary, had taught him "these things," and that Tobar in turn had gathered his knowledge from paintings, and from songs and narratives which the viceroy, Martin Enriquez (1569 to 1582), had caused to be collected. Instead of looking up this book of Tobar it was preferred to listen to the politely-formulated accusation of Davila-Padilla that Acosta had copied, without acknowledgment, from the Dominican Diego Durán—thus implying that he had been dishonest, and was therefore unreliable.

About thirty years ago Lord Kingsborough incorporated the uncouth "Mexican Chronicle" of Tezozomoc in the ninth volume of his monumental collection. This prolix "Indian talk," endorsed by Veytia as "the most authentic version" of Mexican ancient history extant, I attempted to translate into the English language. Not only the peculiar view taken by Tezozomoc of ancient Mexican society struck me forcibly, but also his argument with Acosta. Applying thereupon to Señor Icazbalceta, of Mexico, for bibliographical and biographical information, this gentleman kindly sent me the first part of Durán's history, which had been found in Spain and published by the late Señor J. F. Ramirez in 1867. It wonderfully agrees with Tezozomoc. Finally, I received through the same friendly hand the print by Señor Vigil, edited by Señor Orozco y Berra, of an anonymous MS. saved out of the wreck of the Franciscan convent at Mexico in 1856, which MS., now known as the "Codice Ramirez," is evidently the source from which Acosta condensed the seventh book of his 'Natural and Moral History of the Indies.' The Mexican antiquarians have, therefore, come to the just conclusion that the "Codice Ramirez" is Tobar's work; only, as Durán states that he framed his own history in part out of a translation of a MS. written in the *aboriginal* language (Nahuatl) of Mexico, they have inferred that the "Codice Ramirez" is not an original composition, but a translation. This question is now fully solved.

The correspondence in your possession tells us that the Viceroy Enriquez caused the pictorial records of the natives to be gathered, "and those of Mexico, Tezcuco, and Tulla . . . brought them to him." These paintings he sent to Tobar through Dr. Portillo, and Tobar out of them compiled "for the king" a history which Dr. Portillo took with him to Spain about 1573, unable to fulfil his promise to leave a copy of it in Mexico. In compiling his work Tobar used the greatest discrimination. Not only did he have "the wise men of Mexico, Tezcuco, and Tulla" explain to him the system and value of their pictorial records, but he actually compared and confronted their testimony, thus securing not only thoroughness but impartiality.

Unable to secure a copy of his work, and seeing that the plague of 1575 swept away all the older natives to whose memory the traditions of the past were committed, Tobar, after 1581, wrote a *second* book on the subject. In this he was assisted by the history which a Dominican friar, his "relative," had written about it, though independently, and which (he says) "was most conformed to the ancient records which I have seen." This friar is evidently Diego Durán, who, like Tobar, was a Mexican half-breed. This second book of Tobar, Acosta, in the letter in your possession, acknowledges having read. He does not say, however, that he *kept* it.

I have now carefully compared, as you know, the "Codice Ramirez" and the historical fragment in the Lenox Library. There is not the slightest doubt *that both are the work of one and the same man.* While they are so nearly alike as to permit, as I had the honor to show you, omissions in either text to be supplied from the other in many instances, they still are *not identical.* The Lenox document is somewhat more brief than the "Ramirez." The latter is of greater finish; it almost appears to be a more mature and, therefore, *later* production. This, coupled with the fact that the title of your fragment closes with the words, "Made by Father Juan de Tovar, of the Company of Jesus, sent to the King our Lord in this original written by hand," has led me to infer that the Lenox text was that of Tobar's first work, written between 1569 and 1573, whereas the "Codice Ramirez" is the later compilation. Still, I must leave the question undecided, and limit myself to the affirmation that they are both works of one and the same author, and, therefore, not, as we have all supposed, one of them (the Mexican text) a translation of a "Nahuatl" chronicle underlying the work of Diego Durán.

We must look elsewhere, therefore, for the source of the latter, and I would suggest that a comparison of Durán with the "Anales de Cuanhtitlan," better known as the "Codex Chimalpopoca," might give more satisfactory results. At all events, we have two contemporaneous authors, Tobar and Durán, who have both arrived, though independently, at the same results, while resting on the most reliable foundation which can be desired in the case—namely, that of a careful and impartial, and therefore critical, sifting of aboriginal sources. One of these authors has been followed by Acosta; the other one, Durán, has probably exerted a direct influence on Tezozomoc. To *these four* now the endorsement of Veytia must be extended—namely, that they are "the most authentic versions extant of the ancient history of Mexico."

Finally, I can but repeat to you the statement made before the Historical Society, to the effect that the pictures themselves which the viceroy, Martin Enriquez, had gathered, and which Tobar (and Durán) consulted, are not all lost. The "Codex Vaticanus" (and, of course, that incomplete copy thereof called "Codex Telleriano-Remensis") dates back to *after* 1562, whereas it was sent to Rome, so Acosta tells us, *prior* to 1589. Its arrangement agrees singularly with that indicated in the title of the Lenox fragment for Tobar's book. Of course there is not a full agreement in facts, neither in dates; but such an agreement could not even be expected, since the codices mentioned formed at all events but a part of the paintings consulted by Tobar.

Hoping to be able to communicate to you more positive results shortly, I have the honor to remain, sir, with the highest respect, your very obedient,

AD. F. BANDELIER.

NEW YORK, Nov. 6, 1879.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. will publish 'Art in America,' by S. G. W. Benjamin; 'Studies from the Great Poets,' by Prof. Symonds; and 'Young Mrs. Jardine,' by Mrs. Mulock-Craik.——'Aloha: a Hawaiian Salutation,' by the Rev. George L. Chaney; 'Stories of the War, Told by Soldiers,' edited by the Rev. E. E. Hale; 'The Faith of Reason,' by the Rev. John W. Chadwick; and 'Causerie,' selections from the department of that name in the Boston *Transcript*, by Wm. A. Hovey, are in the press of Roberts Bros.——Chas. Scribner's Sons will issue during this season the 'Life and Works of Gilbert Stuart,' by George C. Mason; and the

'Letters of Charles Dickens,' collected by his daughter and Miss Hogarth. They have embalmed the 'Complete Poetical Writings of J. G. Holland' in a handsome octavo of 509 pages, bound in bevelled boards, and furnished with a wealth of illustration, scarcely less interesting, perhaps, than the text. The designers are Reinhart, Hennessey, Griswold, Abbey, Thomas Moran, and Mrs. Foote, and among the engravers the curious will notice that Mr. Linton lies down with Mr. Smithwick and Mr. J. P. Davis, so that the "legitimate" and the "latest" methods may be easily contrasted. Messrs. Eaton and Cole provide as a frontispiece a characteristic portrait of Dr. Holland, who is therefore added to the series of leading American poets drawn and engraved by these gentlemen for *Scribner's Monthly*. From Scribner & Co. we have received bound volumes of *Scribner's Monthly* (XVIII.) and of *St. Nicholas* (VI.) In contents they compare favorably, as far as our memory serves us, with those which have gone before them. On the pictorial side they are, as usual, without superiors. ——Fords, Howard & Hulbert will be the American publishers of the sumptuous English work called 'The Lives and Portraits of the One Hundred Greatest Men of History.'——An exhibition of the works of the late Wm. Morris Hunt is now open at the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston, and will close Dec. 15. The catalogue, which embraces no less than 200 oil-paintings and 121 charcoal-drawings and pastels—an unprecedented collection for an American artist, unless we are mistaken—is adorned with a fine photograph of this lamented artist. A life of Mr. Hunt is in preparation by his brother, Leavitt Hunt, of Brattleboro, Vermont. ——A life of another New England artist, Seth W. Cheney, is being undertaken by his widow, Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney, who would be glad of any material that might be lent her for that purpose. Her address is Forest Hills Street, Forest Hills, Mass.——Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons have issued, with their imprint and in admirable style, the three-volume translation of Molière's dramatic works made by Mr. Charles Heron Wall and published in England in one of Bohn's Libraries. This is the third appearance of an English Molière in America within two years; the earlier two being the successive editions of Mr. Van Laun's translation in Philadelphia and New York. In reviewing these in the *Nation* (No. 738) we said that Mr. Wall's translation was much better than Mr. Van Laun's. He has a better idiomatic command of English and a better understanding of the duties of a translator. The ideal version of Molière would be an eclectic, the result of the use of the labors of all previous translators, utilizing whatever felicities of expression any one of them may have happened on. Failing this, Mr. Wall's translation is much the best now before the public. He follows the edition of M. Louandre; his notes and comments are brief and to the point, and the short biographical sketch prefixed is founded on fact and free from legend, although M. Loiseleur's researches, published since this sketch was written, might have been used in this new edition to correct the statements about Molière's funeral.——Mr. George H. Calvert has just put forth (Lee & Shepard) 'Shakspeare: a Biographic Æsthetic Study,' in 212 duodecimo pages. It begins with the "babe asleep in his cradle," whose "forehead was cool, and his cheeks, flushed by the healthy currents from his heart, glistened with the warmth of the midsummer noon," and concludes with some verses "On first seeing, in Central Park, the Statue of Shakespeare, by Ward." It appears to be due to a suddenly renewed sense in its author that Shakspere was a great poet.——'The Egotist,' by Henry T. King, of the Philadelphia bar, is announced by Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger.——We have received from Peter G. Thomson, Cincinnati, a 'Catalogue of a Gentleman's Library,' with prices marked, which deserves the attention of art-book collectors in particular.

—If the American people remain ignorant of the science and art of preserving the health it will certainly not be due to inactivity upon the part of either writers or publishers. Within the last few months G. P. Putnam's Sons have issued a cheaper edition of Fothergill's excellent 'Maintenance of Health'; the compendious 'Treatise on Hygiene and Public Health,' edited by Dr. Buck and published by Wm. Wood & Co., has been recently noticed in these columns; and sanitary information in a simpler and—to speak physiologically—more readily assimilable form is now presented from three different sources: Dr. J. Mortimer Granville's little papers on 'Common Mind Troubles' and 'The Secret of a Clear Head' come from The Naturalist's Agency; D. Appleton & Co. reprint the English Health Primers; and the American Health Primers are in course of publication by Lindsay & Blakiston. If all the eighteen volumes of this series by American authors are as readable and instructive as Dr. Osgood's 'Winter and its Dangers,' they are cheap enough, if regarded only as entertaining literature. Nevertheless, since people who are ready enough to pay largely for the *cure* of disease often hesitate to invest a much smaller sum for its prevention, we think it a pity that money and bulk were not economized by combining two or more of these fifty-cent books into single volumes of moderate size and cost.

—The indirect result of the competition which the Messrs. Harper have been waging for the past two years in their Franklin Square series with the makers of cheap reprints from English books, has been, we hope, to diminish the sales of the equally cheap sensational or nasty literature which, being abundantly produced on our own soil, is not concerned about international copyright. There remained a field in which a similar competition of what is pure in tone with what is vile was possible and highly needed, and that was the supply of reading for the young. Professor Sumner lately sounded the alarm in regard to the villanous trash now offered on the stalls to our boys and girls, and perhaps we ought to discern a conscious missionary enterprise in *Harper's Young People*, an illustrated weekly, of which the first number appeared November 4. It is an eight-paged paper bearing a family resemblance to the *Weekly* and the *Bazar*, and the publishers' name is an assurance that it contains and will contain nothing objectionable or calculated to fill a child's mind with false or low ideas of life. We hope it is superfluous to wish it success; at the same time we must confess that we prize it more in consideration of what it replaces than in and for itself. It seems to us very doubtful if periodical literature is wholesome for children who can have access to books and good advice in reading; and finding it hard to praise even juvenile monthlies, we naturally look with still less favor on a weekly. Nevertheless, we may even see the *Boys' Daily* before we pass away.

—A wonderful array of portraits accompanies the opening paper of *Harper's* for December, entitled "The Fortunes of the Bonapartes," which gives a good popular account of the kingly tribe from the First Consul to Prince Jerome. The writer might on another occasion dwell a little more on the American chapter in the lives of several of them. Of the amiable Joseph, during his stay at Bordentown, Dr. Lieber used to relate that he would often in the most unaffected manner introduce a reminiscence with the phrase "Quand j'étais roi d'Espagne," or "Quand j'étais roi de Naples." Mr. Ernest Ingersoll continues his Georgia studies with an account of the City of Atlanta, and any one unduly despondent concerning the regeneration of the South will be much comforted by his description. The second instalment of "The Connemara Hills" hardly equals the promise of the first. Mrs. Champney's "Sea-Drift from a New-England Port"—to wit, New London—shows in parts a clever historical imagination, but is on the whole as heterogeneous as its name implies, and as local antiquarian papers of this sort are wont to be. Some of the engravings for this article are of rare beauty of execution. A characteristic book summary rather than review, such as we expect in *Harper's* from time to time, is made here from Dr. Thomson's 'The Land and the Book' in the article called "The Palestine of To-day." The poetical feature of the number is a poem by Longfellow on an iron pen, "made from a fetter of Bonnivard, the prisoner of Chillon, the handle of wood from the frigate *Constitution*, and bound with a circlet of gold, inset with three precious stones from Siberia, Ceylon, and Maine." This odd mixture of relics offered as a theme for a poem reminds us of a kind of social puzzle in which, for example, you are asked to compose a distich containing the words *Pleiades* and *snuff*, and an answer to the question, "When shall you be fifty?" It is needless to say that Mr. Longfellow's success in this task could not readily be equalled by common versifiers.

—The contents of the *Atlantic* for December resemble the miscellany of a Sunday newspaper closely enough to avoid dulness entirely, if not to preserve the severe dignity of a monthly magazine. Some "Reminiscences of George Grote" are contributed by Mr. George Washington Greene, who, though he spent a month in daily intercourse with Grote, kept no record of his conversations, to his present regret, and is able to give only general impressions and a letter. "Three Interviews with Old John Brown" are described with ultra circumstantiality by W. A. Phillips; "The Man who was to have Assassinated Napoleon" is an anonymous sketch of an interesting life, though its title begs the main point at issue. The writer would have been saved several mistakes by consulting the documents printed in the 'Mémoires du roi Jérôme.' Thus Maubreuil received his orders not from the Emperor Alexander but from Talleyrand's secretary, Laborde. The Baron Brokenhausen, from whom he had credentials, was not "the Prussian Minister" but a Russian officer, chief-of-staff to the Russian commandant, Baron Saken. The stolen property, moreover, was not found boxed up at the bottom of the Seine in 1817, because the jewels had been delivered to an agent of the Count of Artois

April 22, 1814, and were restored to the Queen during the Hundred Days. Mr. Grant White writes entertainingly though minutely about "English Manners," and leaves his subject "but half exhausted," so that we may expect more next month; "Some of Us: A Southwestern Sketch" is more successful in its reproduction of local dialect than in its other intentions; "Kansas Farmers and Illinois Dairymen" has value as well as interest, and Mr. George E. Waring, jr., explains the functions and limitations of the National Board of Health in answer to much hostile criticism which that body has provoked. "The Greatest Novelist's Work for Freedom," by Clara Barnes Martin, is a fresh and interesting account of Turgeneff's life and work. We note a not important error: "the greatest novelist" is not a nephew of the celebrated brothers Turgeneff, Nicholas and Alexander, as Mrs. Martin says, but only a distant relative. The "Club" contains a poem by Daudet, and an explanation, by the author, of Rosamond's character—who Rosamond is it would be superfluous, apparently, to relate. Further light on it is thrown by a sequel to the original story in the body of the number, entitled "The Conductor and Rosamond," which is very well done. There is one poem full of dashes that are explained, perhaps, by the circumstance that it is supposed to be spoken by a dying woman. Of the first article, "Thirty-seven Hundred and Fifty-eight," we can make little; it describes the archæological discoveries of the New-Zealander in the year 3758, and essays both satire and solemnity, but it is oddly destitute of the humor which has hitherto been the excuse for writing it. It is, however, to be continued, and its worth may become plainer.

—The current *British Quarterly Review* has an interesting and, if we may say so without offence to the scientific world, timely article by Mr. R. Caird on Father Curci's work, 'The Modern Dissension between the Church and Italy.' Father Curci is as much of a Liberal Catholic as it is possible to be and avoid the contempt of Vaticanism or even of orthodoxy. He advises that the Church "lay aside her theory of legitimism, acquire a predominant influence in journalism and in education, and so reappear once more in the van of civilization." This seems a radical, not to say revolutionary, programme. How difficult it would be to carry it out, or so much as interest the ruling powers of the Church in it, appears quite plainly in several recent orthodox utterances. Mr. Caird does not think much of Father Curci himself; he closes the latter's book, he says, "muttering, with a clenched conviction, *Semel Jesuita, semper Jesuita.*" But we imagine his mutterings would acquire positive sonority if he should read the evidence furnished by the *American Catholic Quarterly Review* of the way in which the majority of Catholics regard such liberalism as Father Curci's. The *Quarterly* must express the views of the majority of Catholics, of Catholicism itself we may say, since evidently it can have no other excuse for existing, and we accept its statements as authoritative. The Rev. J. Ming, S.J., has an essay in the last number on "Modern and Ancient Philosophy Compared," and the Very Rev. James A. Corcoran, D D., a review of the Holy Father's recent Encyclical, from which we judge that, unsatisfactory as Father Curci is to Mr. Caird in his reliance upon the dicta of St. Thomas Aquinas, no such scheme as that of a discontented and dismissed Jesuit for the reappearance of the Church in the van of civilization is likely to be popular. According to Father Ming, "Catholic philosophy has during the past twenty years more and more returned to the scholastic system," and he fears in consequence "the raillery of infidels and generally of those outside the Church." "To prevent or reject such charges it will be necessary," he adds, "to contrast modern with ancient philosophy." Therefore he proceeds to examine with considerable causticity "modern philosophy." With conspicuous conservatism he accounts as modern philosophers of any importance only Descartes, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel. His exposition of their systems is elaborate, but the reverse of enthusiastic. Descartes he does not admire, but observes sarcastically, "The idealists"—*i. e.*, the modern philosophers—"have no reason at all to be pleased with his theories," since he not only believed in God, but "also highly esteemed supernatural faith, of which he would not allow the least doubt." Kant "has fallen into just those errors which he pretended to overcome," and his successors have succeeded no better. "Is it not useless to criticise them?" asks the writer, their "absurdity is so evident to common-sense." "Atheism, Materialism, and Nihilism are their genuine offspring," and "even the political errors of our time are based on idealism." They have even led, we learn with surprise, to the neglect of philosophical studies in Germany. The remedy is that insisted on by "our glorious pontiff"—namely, "a still more complete adoption of the tenets of St. Thomas Aquinas."

—The performance of Verdi's "Aïda," which was reproduced on Friday last, was certainly by far the best thing which Colonel Mapleson has done here this season. More superb and appropriate costumes and more beautiful scenery have perhaps never been seen on the stage of the Academy of Music. Chorus and orchestra had been strengthened for the occasion, the leading parts were in the hands of distinguished artists, and it is really refreshing, after all the complaints that have been made about this season's performances, to record a genuine success and to congratulate Colonel Mapleson on so artistic and thoroughly smooth a representation. Signor Campanini was an excellent *Rhadames*, the fiery, passionate character of this part being particularly well suited to his style. Signor Galassi acted and sang *Amonastro* to perfection. Miss Cary has often been heard here in the part of *Amneris*, and delighted the public again by her fine artistic interpretation of this interesting rôle. Mlle. Ambre, as *Aïda*, was perhaps the weakest part of the cast; but she was, if not very strong, most charming and sympathetic in the lyric portion of her performance. We must again speak warmly of the eminent services of Signor Arditi, who handled the chorus and orchestra in a masterly manner. "Trovatore" was given at Saturday's matinée, and a really excellent performance of "Faust" on Monday night. Mlle. Valleria is becoming a great favorite with the public, and, as she gains confidence and sees herself more appreciated, she improves both in her singing and acting. Her performance of *Margherita* was really excellent.

—The ninth *fasciculus* of Koolman's 'East-Frisian Dictionary' has appeared, beginning vol. ii. (H–Jok). The merits and demerits of this work continue the same: wealth of vocabulary, definitions, quotations, and proverbs on the one hand; on the other, an excessive amount of "padding," in the shape of comparative philology. For instance, why consume an entire column of a dialect-dictionary in giving the Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, and Slavic cognates of a word like "grim"? Or do we need to be informed that Low-German "grîs," High-German "greis," is connected with French "gris"? Yet, despite its inflation, the 'East-Frisian Dictionary' will be a great help to students of English etymology. Our lexicographers, trained to the use of High-German, have neglected our Low-German kinsmen, who are much nearer to us in structure and idiom. We hope the time may soon arrive when every English lexicographer will be forced to master thoroughly the distinguishing features of Low-German.

—As a sort of companion-piece to Koolman's 'Dictionary' we may notice Professor Hewett's 'Historical Study of the Frisian Language and Literature' (Ithaca: Finch & Apgar). This pamphlet of sixty pages gives a résumé of the sources of our information upon Frisia and the Frisians, in classic or in monkish Latin, and in early German; also a résumé of the literature (chiefly legal), and an abridged grammar of the language. The author has taken much pains to arrange material previously scattered far and wide, and to present his subject in a clear and attractive shape. In examining his synopsis of the grammar, however, we observe with disapproval that he follows the older theory of Grimm and Heyne respecting the Germanic vowels, and speaks of *i* and *u* as "primitive," and of *e* as coming from *i*. This theory has been completely supplanted by the views of Müllenhoff, Scherer, Sievers, and others. In like manner, the author's reference to the Anglo-Saxon Beovulf-lied is at once meagre and inaccurate. Yet these are minor defects. The pamphlet as a whole evinces a high degree of sound scholarship.

—The growth of periodical literature has been slow in Germany, but the success of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, which has just entered upon its sixth year, has been complete, at least from a literary point of view. The best writers of Germany, in almost every branch of letters, have contributed to it, and, to judge from an address to his subscribers which the editor issues with the October number, its high standard will be maintained in the coming year. Works of fiction are promised by men like Wilbrandt, Heyse, Auerbach, Roquette, and others; essays on subjects of political, scientific, and social interest will be contributed by Karl Hillebrand, Reinhold Pauli, Nachtigal, Haeckel, Kapp, Frenzel, etc.; Dr. Hanslick and Louis Ehlert will write on musical topics, and in the field of fine arts and belles-lettres we meet with such names as Lange, Pietsch, Lorenz, and Sachau. The October number itself is of unusual interest and merit. The first paper is a charming little story by Theodor Storm. In a review of Taine's work, 'Les Origines de la France contemporaine'—Vol. I. 'L'Ancien Régime,' and Vol. II. 'La Révolution'—Prof. Heinrich von Sybel gives a sketch of the period from the beginning of the reign of Louis XVI. to the end of the Revolution. Karl von Scherzer contributes an article of interest on German life and

work in foreign countries, from which we learn, among other things, that one hundred and fifty years ago, in 1730, a German, Johann Peter Zenger, published a weekly newspaper in this city, in which the abuses of the English Government were attacked in savage fashion. Dr. Friedrich Kapp has an article on Berlin journalism in the last century; an anonymous writer gives a sketch of the life and work of Mr. Andrew D. White, our present minister at the Court of Berlin; and there are excellent reviews of current literature and art.

BAYNE'S 'LESSONS FROM MY MASTERS.'*

HIS title is both the best and the worst thing about Mr. Bayne's book. We find nothing in it which indicates a juster perception of the literary worth of Carlyle, Tennyson, and Ruskin, of whom he makes elaborate studies, than the candid acknowledgment conveyed in 'My Masters'; that is to say, nothing in the way of discriminating eulogy which equals the tribute implied in his deferential title. We by no means write ourselves down disciples of Mr. Carlyle or Mr. Tennyson or Mr. Ruskin in admiring Mr. Bayne's frank admission that he is a pupil not only of one, but of all three of these writers. Only, when a clever writer such as Mr. Bayne finds it in his heart to make public profession of his deference to older and abler laborers in the field of literature, his hero-worship for his contemporaries at a time when the exact reverse is so common ought to be put down to his credit. At the same time and on the other hand the elevation to the rank of heroes of one's contemporaries has in it something sentimental which is inevitably prejudicial to soundness of judgment. It is impossible to speak of contemporaries with the same certainty and dispassionateness which one exercises with regard to historical figures whose perspective is already fixed, and of which, whatever differences of opinion there may be, we all acknowledge the premises and the facts. There is, perhaps, nothing in Mr. Bayne's book upon which one can put his finger and say, "This is prejudice, this is a judgment warped by propinquity; there is a sad lack of perspective in this," and so on. Nevertheless there is not only an almost fatal presumption against its sureness of judgment for the reasons we have mentioned, but there is distinctly evident in it a sentimentality which even its outspokenness and cordiality cannot prevent one from thinking a little too deferential in an LL.D. to be real criticism. When he began his studies of his masters, Mr. Bayne says, it was his intention "not to sit in judgment upon them, not to rise from the pleasant place of listener and learner at their feet and assume that of critical censor"; but he found it impossible in writing to divest himself "of the critical function so completely as I had purposed. When I differed in opinion from the eminent men whose works I surveyed I could not help saying so, and to say so without reason assigned would have seemed unjustifiable assumption." But even in these trying circumstances it will, he trusts, be found that he has in no instance controverted an opinion of his masters "without its being evident that my respect and affection for them continued unimpaired." Even on such occasions it is evident that he is not justly to be accused of bumptiousness. As criticism, therefore, it should be clear that Mr. Bayne's book is handicapped by his sentimentality.

This is shown in various ways, but in none more conspicuously than in its title, as we have intimated. What nexus there is between Carlyle, Ruskin, and Tennyson it is difficult to discover. They all write in English, to be sure; they are all opposed to "the materialism of the age," as the phrase is; they all believe in spiritual forces and do not value "cash payment" greatly as a cure for present ills; they are all poets in certain senses and they are all artists of the first class. A writer of impressionable susceptibility finds these circumstances sufficient to make a kind of contemporary triumvirate of literary heroes of them. But this very association indicates a curious blindness on his part to the vital characteristics of each of them; it implies that he has of each of them an enthusiastic and somewhat superficial rather than a quick and discriminating appreciation. Fancy Mr. Carlyle, after his pamphlet on "Model Prisons," founding a St. George's Society, or, after crying 'May the devil fly away with the fine arts!" going mad about Turner. Fancy Mr. Tennyson,

> "Turning to scorn with lips divine
> The falsehood of extremes!"

writing a poem on Mahomet or Timour the Tartar, or celebrating in his capacity of laureate Oliver Cromwell as the last ruler of England who "believed in a God." Imagine Mr. Ruskin interested in the theme of "Maud" or "Locksley Hall," or Mr. Carlyle sympathizing with "the love of poor curates for women above them." One cannot but ascribe a kind of looseness to Mr. Bayne's hero-worship, and conclude that he built and garlanded his altars before hitting upon the divinities to preside over them.

This does not at all imply that Mr. Bayne is not full of his subject—or subjects. Quite the contrary; he has evidently not only read and, in a sort, digested every written line of his "masters," but he has also a beautiful optimistic delight in their utterances. And it does not follow that he is undiscriminating in his eulogy because it so distinctly appears in his differences from them that his "respect and affection for them continue unimpaired." The reader only superficially acquainted with them cannot fail to get from his book a far better notion of the writers treated of than he has hitherto had. Each essay is nothing if not exhaustive. That on Carlyle, for example, is composed of twenty-one chapters, and not only gives a sufficient biography of its subject and a critical exposition of all his writings seriatim, but attempts a philosophical consideration of his aims and accomplishments, has a great deal to say about his apparent pantheism, etc. It endeavors to go to the very bottom of the matter under discussion, and leaves nothing "in the air," as Carlyle himself would have done, perhaps—*e.g.*: "I look upon this ['Sartor Resartus'] as one of the very few books produced in Great Britain in the present century deserving to be styled a true, original, and important contribution to metaphysics. It connects itself in a very interesting manner with Kant's speculations on space and time, and with Sir William Hamilton's philosophy of the Infinite; but it is distinctively Carlyle's, and cannot be claimed by the disciples either of Kant or of Hamilton." It is even written in a Carlylese dialect; and to any one who misconceives Carlyle, as so many do, it must be, we should say, a valuable exposition. The same is true of the essays on Tennyson and Ruskin. Mr. Bayne is so thorough that he may be said to hunt to their fastnesses even the vagrant fancies of his "masters," and he is so complete that he leaves unnoticed no side of them which is visible from his view-point. But this is not criticism in any serious sense. To find slight and superficial flaws in the works of one's "masters," which only point and emphasize their fundamental excellence, is merely a semblance of criticism; it is the advocacy of Jacobinism in disguise—that Jacobinism which, as it has been said, "loves a Rabbi." And Jacobite eulogy of contemporaries invariably inspires distrust. We are in no way disturbed by the criticism which calls Shakspere "the greatest artist the modern world has known," since the grounds of Shakspere's superiority are too well understood for a loose statement of them, even by an eminent literary authority, to be of importance. But when, having reviewed Tennyson, Mr. Bayne comes to the consideration of Ruskin with the words, "After the great artist, the great critic," we reflect upon the unwisdom of assisting the currency of stock notions that yet need to be sifted carefully before they come to be accepted. Seeing that Mr. Ruskin is not at all a critic, and has none of the qualities which go to the making of a critic, and is first of all an artist—not an artist in the sense that Mr. Tennyson is, but nevertheless an artist whose pre-eminent merit is his imaginativeness—we at once conclude that spite of all his enthusiasm for and acquaintance with his "masters" Mr. Bayne has simply looked about him for "masters" to visit his "respect and affection" upon. We do not say that his admiration is not wholly sincere, or that it is not within certain limits discriminating, only that, notwithstanding this, it does not escape perfunctoriness.

There is much to commend and much to object to in the details of Mr. Bayne's book as well as in its general conception. There is now and then an acute remark which can only spring from saturation with one's subject, so to speak; and with most of what is said, whether it is in the nature of disclosure or not, it will be possible for readers who hold the same fundamental propositions as Mr. Bayne, to agree warmly. His sentimentality, however, enters detail, and characterizes chapter and page as well as the work as a whole. He, somehow, seems to lack the humor which would have saved him from this. He explains Carlyle's celebrated ostrich figure in the last chapter of the 'Life and Letters of Cromwell' thus, for example: "You see how the idea strikes him, lays hold of him, moves him to peal after peal of wild, sad laughter, will not leave him till he has worked it out from the sticking of the ostrich-head into the bush to the awakening of the bird under the birch-rods of destiny." We confess Mr. Bayne has for us done his best to spoil for ever the passage he here comments upon. He seems to tend naturally to heroics; to find portentous, or at least sonorous, explanations of very simple matters. Of the "In Memoriam" he says: "It aims at embalming a private sorrow for everlasting remembrance, at rendering a personal grief generally and immortally

* 'Lessons from My Masters. Carlyle, Tennyson, and Ruskin. By Peter Bayne, M.A., LL.D.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1879.

interesting. The set eye and marble brow of stoicism would cast back human sympathy; the broken accents and convulsive weeping of individual affliction would awaken no nobler emotion than mere pity; it was sorrow in a calm and stately attitude, sorrow robed in angel-like beauty, though retaining a look of earnest, endless sadness, that would draw generation after generation to the house of mourning." One cannot but esteem this as exegesis very immature and pompous of a text needing no such elaborate commentary. And this is how he speaks of Ruskin's St. George's scheme: "To me, after long pondering, the most comprehensively just and accurate way to describe his scheme of reform is as"—but surely we need quote no further to show how valuable as criticism of Ruskin the "long pondering" of his political economy can be. Neither is it pertinent for us to examine Mr. Bayne's criticism in detail, which would simply amount to a profession that we should have written differently of the writers he considers if we had attempted his task. What we have endeavored to point out is merely that criticism of any permanent value, criticism that is worth making a volume of, must be written in a very different spirit from Mr. Bayne's. Even bumptiousness is not worse than an exaggerated deference which indicates that the critic has no ideal of his own by which to admeasure his "masters" as best he may, but looks to them for such light as they can furnish him, and feels most at home when his intellectual conscience will permit him to follow them implicitly.

THE GIST OF THE KORAN.*

WHEN, as in these our days, aggressive civilization is brought into so close and so frequent contact with Mahometans, it is only natural that curiosity about their religion and its founder should be more than usually active. In presence of this curiosity, the work of the late Mr. E. W. Lane, now republished in an amplified form, is very welcome; and not exactly unwelcome is the Introduction which Mr. S. L. Poole has prefixed to it. Of Islam, in its practical outcome, Mr. Poole's estimate is anything but favorable. To recite his verdict, which no personal observer can deem inequitable, its adherents have passed "down an increasing scale of infamy and corruption, until it seems almost impossible to reach a lower level of vice." Yet this opinion does not wittingly forbid the essayist's entertaining the most exalted conception of the Arabian prophet. "There is something," he writes, "so tender and womanly, and withal so heroic, about the man, that one is in peril of finding the judgment unconsciously blinded by the feeling of reverence and well-nigh love that such a nature inspires. He who, standing alone, braved for years the hatred of his people, is the same who was never the first to withdraw his hand from another's clasp; the béloved of children, who never passed a group of little ones without a smile from his wonderful eyes and a kind word for them, sounding all the kinder in that sweet-toned voice. The frank friendship, the noble generosity, the dauntless courage and hope of the man all tend to melt criticism in admiration." The charges brought against Mahomet of being cruel, lustful, and insincere, his vindicator refuses to hear of. Summing up his hero, he intrepidly declares, with much more in a similar strain of eulogy: "Surely the character of Mohammad has been misjudged. He was not the ambitious schemer some would have him; still less, the hypocrite and sham prophet others have imagined. He was an enthusiast, in that noblest sense when enthusiasm becomes the salt of the earth, the one thing that keeps men from rotting whilst they live."

Treating of the reasons by which the diffusion of Islam and the fanaticism of Islamites have been accounted for, Mr. Poole remarks: "Others allege the low morality of the religion, and the sensual paradise it promises, as a sufficient cause for the zeal of its followers. But, even were these admitted to the full, to say that such reasons could win the hearts of millions of men who have the same hopes and longings after the right and the noble as we, is to libel mankind. No religion has ever gained a lasting hold upon the souls of men by the force of its sensual permissions and fleshly promises." It is observable that, of all men, one acquainted with Mahometanism should so directly beg the question as it is begged here. Moreover, the assumption that our fellow-beings, taken in the generality, have any preponderant aspiration after "the right and the noble" assuredly has little warrant in the history of the human race from the time when Adam donned his apron. But, concupiscence apart, if any evil propensity is more innate than another, probably it is the propensity to cruelty; and this alone, sanctioned as it is by the teachings of Mahomet, would have sufficed to render intelligible the extensive acceptance of his specific doctrines, and the tenacity with which their professors cleave to them. Given the belief in a Tartarus as the portion of all but the faithful—that is to say, of all but those who symbolize with one's self—supplemented, at the suggestion of self-conceit and the vindictiveness which too often attends it in unregenerate affections, by a sense of the congruity of administering a temporal prelibation of eternal torments to dissidents, and we are already provided with the groundwork of a religion which must needs multiply, and must present irresistible attractions to those who embrace it. Small is the wonder, therefore, that Mahometanism has found widespread and enduring favor. To Mr. Poole, far from being a fiendish superstition, vital simply by virtue of its harmony with the lowest and most bestial impulses, "it is a form of pure theism, simpler and more austere than the theism of most forms of modern Christianity, lofty in its conception of the relation of man to God, and noble in its doctrine of the duty of man to man, and of man to the lower creation." Were it so, only an ironical Providence can have ordained that it should bring forth so foul and fetid fruit, at best very apples of Sodom, hitherto.

Regarding the various translations of the Koran, Mr. Poole observes that "there are very few people who have the strength of mind to read any of them through." It might be said about as appropriately that "strength of mind" is a desideratum to those who shrink from grappling with Calprenède or Sir Archibald Alison. The Koran being a volume of formidable size, chaotic, tediously iterative, obscure, and very nasty, and yet calling to be known more or less, Mr. Lane did excellent service in culling out its essential portions for general readers. His renderings of these portions are such as, we suppose, one may accept with the firmest confidence in their critical accuracy. Mr. Poole, like Mr. Lane, deserves our thanks, despite his attitude as a special pleader. Where not argumentative, he is commendable. To his style we shall not object its occasional unconventionality. For the rest, though it is stiff and awkward here and there, and slightly tinged with affectation, these defects are partially compensated by its nervousness and animation. We would also suggest that our current vocabulary is not appreciably enriched or improved by such words as his "unindwellable," "aloneness," and "sunland." Lastly, the method of translettering Arabic, adopted by him and by Mr. Lane, is a thing which, as being unscientific, cumbersome, and hideously unsightly, it is high time to lay aside.

Darwinism, and other Essays. By John Fiske, M.A., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 283.)—It is a very pleasant thing to be able to take up a new book with the assurance from its authorship that it will be made up of clear thoughts clothed in pure English. We have learnt to expect this from Mr. Fiske, and the expectation is not disappointed even when the volume is mainly made up of book notices like the present one. It is dedicated to Huxley, the great naturalist, "in remembrance of three happy days at Petersham, among the Blue Hills of Massachusetts, and of many pleasant fireside chats in London"; and the first four articles are on the Darwinian theory. They do not, perhaps, contain much that Mr. Fiske has not said very well before; but there is so much misconception of the subject still that it was well enough probably to reprint them. The interest in the dispute has faded now that the contest is over, but it is still curious to see how the strong natural instinct which Darwinism had to meet from the first has sullenly yielded, conquered but unconvinced, to the irresistible fiat of the little knot of specialists. They gave few reasons for their verdict, and yet it is really the final decision of this jury, and not the argument of counsel like Mr. Fiske, that has won the day. Besides these there are articles on "Inspiration" and "Spiritualism," and "Buckle" and the "Harvard Library." Mr. Buckle has been so thoroughly abused already that there is sadly little of his reputation left for Mr. Fiske to demolish, but he clearly points out some of the brilliant historian's more important errors. He gives no indiscriminate blame. More than once he supplies the missing parts of Mr. Buckle's argument, or shows the truth within certain limitations of laws false in the too sweeping state in which their author left them. Yet, looking back to the first appearance of the 'History of Civilization,' that dull time when the English dread of philosophical theory had left history without a guiding principle, and remembering the powerful influence it had in stimulating thought, one cannot help regretting a little that criticism should fall so heavily on that marvellous book.

The essay on the "Librarian's Duties at Harvard College" is interesting to those who care for this subject, and Mr. Fiske speaks with the

* 'Selections from the Kur-án. By Edward William Lane, Hon. Doctor of Literature, Leyden, etc., etc. A new edition, revised and enlarged, with an Introduction, by Stanley Lane Poole.' London: Trübner & Co. 1879.

weight of personal experience; but he does not convince us that there is not some unnecessary red tape at the College Library. In almost all libraries now the distribution of the limited funds between books and administrative expenses is a question of the first importance, and in too many the expense of the care of the books is enormously disproportioned to that of the books bought. Harvard College is not nearly so bad now as many other institutions in this respect, but not even the weight of Mr. Fiske's authority can make the four distinct contemporaneous catalogues seem incontestably wise and prudent.

The articles on "The Races of the Danube" and on "Chauncey Wright" are the best in the book. Mr. Fiske has a special talent for history, and we wish sometimes that he had selected that rather than metaphysics for his specialty. His tribute to the great thinker, from whom he differed so widely, is very fine. But this and the article on the Immortality Symposium of the *Nineteenth Century* show some of the vital defects of Mr. Fiske's philosophy. He sees clearly the close connection of Spencer's Cosmism with Berkeley's Idealism, and he rightly objects to calling the first materialistic. But he does not see as clearly that Cosmism is but a form of Idealism, and that its alliance with Positivism and modern experimental science is illusive and spurious; the one founding theories on nature, while the other founds them on the laws of thought. Positivism calls a law established when it, and it only, can fully explain the material phenomena embraced. Cosmism calls it established when its reverse is incredible or unimaginable in thought. Mr. Fiske tries to save the evolution philosophy from the charge of one-sidedness, by referring to Spencer's notion that the law of evolution is united with the opposite law of decay by a mystic rhythmic harmony, reminding one of the old song of the spheres to which the planets were once supposed to dance. He does not see that this rhythmic harmony is a mere name, hiding the absence of an idea under its sounding title, and that the only way really to reconcile the two is simply to acknowledge the fact (as Mr. Wright does, to Mr. Fiske's dissatisfaction) that there is no universal law of evolution or dissolution, but only an infinite variety of movements, part up and part down, according to the varying opportunities the occasion presents; altogether, filling the whole scale of being, but only separable into two general tendencies by a convenient but misleading fiction—a fiction not at all gotten rid of by giving it a grand rhythmic title.

Columbia and Canada: Notes on the Great Republic and the New Dominion. A Supplement to 'Westward by Rail.' By W. Fraser Rae. Second edition. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.)—Mr. Rae visited this country at the time of the Centennial Exhibition, and has told what he saw in a good-natured, chatty way, with abundant comments of his own. Landing in New York, he found the most conspicuous changes in that city since his last visit in 1869 to be the downfall of Tweed and the shooting of Mr. James Fisk, jr.; that the city debt had been trebled "while the city remains a specimen of maladministration"; that two new religions (Theosophy and Comtism) had been provided; that various new buildings had been built; that wild beasts had been collected for exhibition in the Central Park; that an aquarium had been erected in Broadway; and that "a railway carries passengers above the streets, instead of, as in London, underneath them." Comparing the journals of New York, the *Tribune* is "one of the most notable"; the *Herald*, "which pants after a reputation for omnipresence, is foremost in circulation and popular favor"; the *World* "is written with great vigor"; the *Sun* "prints what people in general hesitate to utter"; the *Nation* "treats political, social, and economic topics with a freshness of tone which is most gratifying, and an acerbity which does not always give pleasure."

In Philadelphia the regularity of the city has for Mr. Rae the drawback of monotony. The Exhibition he considers equal to the best of those of Europe. Of the displays, "though very far behind some nations in particular things, the United States occupied a front rank when their performance was regarded as a whole." The grievances of the citizens of the District of Columbia in having no representation he thinks "as great in principle as those of the inhabitants of the thirteen Colonies when they embarked in the struggle for independence." He is greatly troubled that, as a rule, the leading city of a State is not made its capital, and thinks it quite possible that before the end of a second century Washington will have ceased to be the capital of the Union. With Boston he was greatly pleased, though shocked at the "new social commandment, 'Thou shalt not drink anything more potent than lemonade,'" which was in force at the time of his visit. He holds "the legislation which aims at making all men sober by preventing any man from practising the virtue of temperance," to be an evil hardly less deplorable than that of drunkenness. Bostonians welcome a stranger with a hospitality which, he thinks, is not the rule in the United States. At Saratoga, discussing the capitulation of General Burgoyne, he asserts that the revised edition of Bancroft's History, which puts the number who capitulated at 5,791, and "seven short histories of the United States" which range be-5,000 and 6,000, are all wrong, but that "there can be no doubt" that the accurate number is 3,500. At West Point "the cadets are drilled and taught with a thoroughness which cannot be surpassed at Sandhurst, St. Cyr, or Berlin." At Portland he was assured "that intoxication was not an extinct vice."

On reaching Canada Mr. Rae discovers the intelligence of the inhabitants to have been generally underrated; that the new scheme of confederation is knitting it closely together; that there is an increasing jealousy of the United States; and, "considering that there is an unfriendliness on the part of the United States towards her northern neighbor," he sees no possibility of annexation. He was surprised at the desire which the Canadians showed for a protective tariff. He concludes with the suggestion of a scheme which by an act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom and an amendment to the Constitution of the United States is to give to subjects of the Republic and to subjects of Queen Victoria common citizenship in the Anglo-American Empire. "After, as before it, the two countries would preserve their identity and independence; but their inhabitants could then cherish the assurance that they stood in closer fellowship to each other than to the rest of the human race, and that, though representing two nations, they were in reality but one people. Continuing to be rivals everywhere, they would cease to be aliens throughout that vast area of the globe where the star-spangled banner and the union jack bear witness that it is consecrated to freedom."

Mr. Rae's book, though not very substantial, is readable and entertaining; but why ten pages should be devoted to a history of the Philadelphia *Public Ledger* is incomprehensible. The long account of the development of steamships and the discussion of free-trade doctrines also seem rather out of place.

Brunhild: A Tragedy from the Nibelung Saga. By Emanuel Geibel. Translated by George Theodore Dippold. Preceded by a brief account of the Nibelung Epics and Sagas. (Boston: Ginn & Heath. 1879)—The Nibelung epic has had a varied fortune. After the close of its most brilliant epoch, during the era of the Hohenstaufen emperors (1138–1254), it became suddenly obliterated from the memories of the people. With the decay of knighthood it lost the foundation on which it had flourished so luxuriantly. For nearly five hundred years scarcely a mention was made of it, and the few sporadic references to it were passed by unheeded. Not until the middle of the eighteenth century was it brought to light again, but since that time it has won for itself a surprisingly wide circle of friends and admirers, especially in Germany and Scandinavia. The various versions in the Middle High-German and old Norse tongues have been collected and published again and again in the original, and the number of translations and commentaries is legion. Since Carlyle wrote his enthusiastic essay on the 'Nibelungen Lied,' English literature has gradually been enriched with translations and analyses. Thus, no fewer than four poetic versions have been produced in England, besides William Morris's 'Sigurd the Volsung,' in which he has combined the various old Norse and Middle High-German materials. The first American edition of the 'Nibelungen Lied' was issued in 1877 by Auber Forestier, who gave us in a volume entitled 'Echoes from Mist-Land' a graphic transprosing of the story and a somewhat elaborate article on the Nibelung literature. Mr. Dippold pays a glowing tribute to 'Echoes from Mist-Land,' and recommends it to his readers who desire to know more than his book supplies in regard to the material of which Geibel's tragedy has been constructed.

In Germany sixteen different dramas have grown out of the Nibelung literature, exclusive of the musical tetralogy produced by Richard Wagner. Five of these embrace the whole Nibelung story; four are so-called Kriemhild-dramas; four, so-called Rudiger-dramas; and three, Brunhild-dramas. Emanuel Geibel's 'Brunhild' belongs to the last-named class, and is justly regarded as the most successful attempt hitherto made at giving dramatic form to this heroic epic of our Teutonic past. It has become exceedingly popular in Germany, where a fourth large edition has been published; and in this country it has won for itself much popular admiration through the successful representation of *Brunhild* by the Bohemian actress Fanny Janauschek.

The first of the five acts opens at the royal castle at Worms, in the early morning after the double marriage of *Gunther* and *Siegfried*, and the fifth act ends with the suicide of *Brunhild*, where she stabs herself with *Siegfried's* dagger. The time is, of course, before the introduction of Christianity into Germany. The translation by Mr. Dippold is exceedingly faithful to the original both in spirit and in form. As a specimen we quote here *Brunhild's* last words, which are addressed to her rival *Kriemhild*, page 112 :

"Dost thou so stern enforce
Thy right the corpse to guard, relentless one!
Well then! Love's last poor greeting mayest thou
Deny me, and the cold hand's pressure too;
But yet my will thou never shalt restrain.
For strong is longing, like the gods themselves.
O Siegfried, Siegfried, what can part thee now
Henceforth from me? Not here, not in the dust,
Which but the mortal suits, I longer seek thee.
There is a realm, a silent, where no bond
Excludes another, for there love and hate
In cognizance divine have passed away,
And all that's great mates with the great. Oh! there,
In sacred twilight by the noble shades,
There art thou mine, beloved. Hark! It seems
From yonder dark abode I hear thy call,
And feel a rustling round me as of wings.
Wilt give me greeting, or art angry now,
Impatient that I tarry here and wail,
Instead of doing what alone beseems?
Well, then, thou shalt not wait. For me the steel!
Through blood and flame the pathway thither leads;
Thou went'st before, I follow—
(*She stabs herself with Siegfried's dagger.*)
Welcome me!"

Mr. Dippold's book contains a short preface, an introduction giving a brief but very lucid and concise account of the Nibelung epics and sagas, and a few explanatory notes. Upon the whole it is a model translation, and the publishers have put it into attractive and convenient form.

Catalogue of Scientific Serials of all Countries, including the Transactions of Learned Societies in the Natural, Physical, and Mathematical Sciences. By Samuel H. Scudder. (Cambridge: Library of Harvard University. 1879. 8vo, pp. 357.)—By far the greater and more important part of the literature of natural science has found its way to the world through the journals of societies and other serial publications. The number of these serial reports is now so large that the greatest difficulty that besets the path of the investigator is the task of learning what has been done by other students. The first step towards a codification of the labors of naturalists is, clearly, to find the names and extent of the various journals that have been or are still in existence. Although several attempts have been made to compile such a list, this is the first successful effort toward this end. The catalogue of the Royal Society covers about the same ground, yet there are only fourteen hundred titles in its list as against six thousand in Mr. Scudder's volume. This admirable work will enable all collectors of this class of books to pursue their labors in an intelligent manner. It will also provide the student of science with a guide in the search for the work of his predecessors. It is one of the highest praises of any work to say, as we may of this, that it points the way to greater and more profitable labor. Every naturalist will hope that this list may be the foundation on which some association of libraries may proceed to compile a synoptical index of all serial publications of a scientific nature.

The typographical fashion of the book leaves nothing to be desired. A careful plan of presentation has been aided by a well-considered choice of type; the cross-referencing and indexing are most satisfactory.

How Two Girls Tried Farming. By Dorothea Alice Shepherd. (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.)—This narrative has the charm which belongs to imaginative conceptions applied to actual life, and we have no doubt that two women with unbroken health, unvarying spirits, liberal relatives in the immediate neighborhood, and each woman mistress of a trade whereby she earns ready money through the winter, might do the greater part of what is here described. These "Two Girls" live with the utmost frugality, are indifferent to the looks and the furniture of their house, and by unremitting labor contrive to keep even with the world, and to bring their farm into excellent condition. There is room in the world for all sorts of experiments of living, and health and independence are prime factors in the sum of happiness; but these ladies do not mention anything laid by against their inevitable off-times, and we submit that the same labor, self-denial, and intelligence spent in any employment might expect as much success. The real point of the book is in the last paragraph—"such a relief, such a restoration to health and youth even, to rise in the morning one's own mistress! This unspoken yet ever-uttered 'By your leave' is *so* wearing." The book is beautifully printed.

Young Folks' History of England. By Charlotte M. Yonge. (Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 12mo, pp. 415.)—This is without doubt the best history of England for children that there is. Miss Yonge has all the qualifications for the work, in her thorough familiarity with the subject and her well-known powers of narration. What children want is the picturesque view of history and acquaintance with its great characters, and they could not get these better than in this volume. Of course the author is an ardent upholder of church and crown, but we cannot see that she is unfair in depicting events, although her sympathies are clearly enough shown; for instance (p. 278), Charles I. "thought there could be no real church without bishops, as our Lord himself had appointed." The account of ship money (p. 265) is strangely incorrect. It is introduced in the early period of Charles's reign, and described as a usual, if irregular, proceeding, instead of as being specially devised at a later period for Charles's emergencies. The illustrations are excellent; we would especially note the portraits of Raleigh, Pitt, Henrietta Maria, etc., and Vandyke's picture of the three children of Charles I.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*
Adams (C. F., jr.), Notes on Railroad Accidents	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) $1 25
A Fool's Errand. By One of the Fools	(Fords, Howard & Hulbert)
Alcott (Miss L. M.), Aunt Jo's Scrap-book	(Roberts Bros.)
Amateur Poacher	"
Apthorp (W. F.), Hector Berlioz	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Arnold (I. N.), Life of Benedict Arnold	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 2 50
Baird (Prof. H. M.), Rise of the Huguenots in France, 2 vols	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 5 00
Ballard (Julia P.), Insect Lives	(Robt. Clarke & Co.) 1 00
Benner (S.), Prophecies of Future Ups and Downs in Prices, 2d ed.	" " 1 00
Brookes (C. B.), Popular Guide to the Terms of Art and Science	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Burnett (Dr. C. H.), Hearing, and How to Keep It	(Lindsay & Blakiston) 50
Carroll (J.), St. Maur: a Tale, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
Coolidge (Susan), Eyebright	(Roberts Bros.)
Corbin (Mrs. C. F.), Belle and the Boys	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 1 25
Dodge (Mrs. M. M.), Hans Brinker, new ed	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
Douglas (R. K.), Confucianism and Taouism	(Pott, Young & Co.) 1 25
Eggleston (E.), Pocahontas	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 1 25
Flags of All Maritime Nations, swd	(Wm. T. Amies) 1 00
Gairdner (J.), Early Chroniclers of Europe—England	(Pott, Young & Co.) 1 50
Granville (J. M.), Secret of a Clear Head	(S. E. Cassino) 50
Harlan (Dr. G. C.), Eyesight, and How to Care for It	(Lindsay & Blakiston) 50
Hays (Mrs. W. J.), Princess Idleways	(Harper & Bros.) 75
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), Shakspere's Julius Cæsar	(Ginn & Heath)
Hunt (Mrs. H.), Letters from a Cat	(Roberts Bros.) 1 25
Keating (J. M.), With General Grant in the East	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Lamb (Mrs. M. J.), History of New York, Vol. 2, Part 1, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 50
MacLean (J. P.), The Mound Builders	(Robt. Clarke & Co.) 1 50
Masson (G.), Early Chroniclers of Europe—France	(Pott, Young & Co.) 1 50
Mays (Dr. T. J.), Consumption, and How to Prevent It	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Mildred at Roselands	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 1 25
Molière, Dramatic Works, Translated by C. H. Wall, 3 vols	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 4 50
Oort (Dr. H.), Bible for Learners, 3 vols	(Roberts Bros.) 6 50
Osgood (Dr. H.), Winter and its Dangers	(Lindsay & Blakiston) 50
Penley (A.), Water-Color Painting	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 50
Reade (C.), Christie Johnstone, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 30
Renton (W.), Jesus	(William Renton)
Richardson (C. F.), The Cross	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 60
Richardson (Dr. J. G.), Long Life, and How to Reach It	(Lindsay & Blakiston) 50
Rydberg (V.), Magic of the Middle Ages	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 75
Sanders (Prof. D.), Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten in der deutschen Sprache, swd	(G. Langenscheidt)
Shelton (H.), In Prison and Out	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 1 00
Skin and its Troubles	(D. Appleton & Co.) 40
Smyth (N.), Old Faiths in New Light	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
Vaughan (Rev. R. B.), Science and Religion, swd	(John B. Peet)
Vivien de Saint-Martin, Nouveau Dictionnaire de Géographie Universelle, Vol. i., -C, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Waring (G. E., jr.), Tyrol, and the Skirt of the Alps	(Harper & Bros.) 3 00
Williams (Prof. S. W.), Chinese Immigration, swd	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 25
Wilson (Dr. J. C.), Summer and Its Diseases	(Lindsay & Blakiston) 50
Woodhouse (F. C.), Military Religious Orders	(Pott, Young & Co.) 1 50
Young (J. R.), Around the World with Gen. Grant, Parts 9, 10, swd	(Am. News Co.) 50

WILL BE READY SATURDAY.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 27, 1879.

The Week.

THE volume of business at the Stock Exchange during the week was unprecedented, and the extent of the fluctuations in prices has only been equalled in the great panics of the past. The business was so large that only an imperfect record of it could be made, but this shows that about 3,500,000 shares of stocks changed hands, the par value of which is $350,000,000. On one day the recorded transactions were nearly 700,000 shares, of the par value of $70,000,000. Prices fell during the early part of the week, the largest decline having been on Friday from 3 to 29 "points"; the fall by percentage was much larger. Of this decline there was a recovery on Friday and Saturday afternoon of 1 to 18 points; a good part of this, however, was lost on Monday and Tuesday, although there was comparatively little excitement after Saturday. If speculation had been confined to the narrow limits of the last few years it would have burst long ago, but several times before have the professional and semi-professional speculators sold out only to see the outsiders, who have been aptly called the "lambs," carry prices higher by their purchases. The class called the "lambs" are numbered by tens if not hundreds of thousands, and almost every town in the country of ten thousand inhabitants contributes one or more representatives to their number. The story of their latest misfortune has been fully narrated in the daily press. The enormous growth of business reported from all parts of the country makes any prolonged depression in the stock market unlikely. The foreign-specie imports during the week amounted to about $4,000,000, which makes the total for the year about $72,000,000, all except about $6,000,000 having arrived in the last three and a half months. The market for foreign exchange advanced so that no new imports can be made. The advance in sterling exchange was caused by the rise in the prices of exportable products so as to prevent exports, and therefore diminish the supply of commercial bills. Silver in London was steady at 53¼*d.* to 53⅜*d.* per ounce; here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was $0.8933.

The panic in the market is ascribed on all hands to a combination of speculators owning what is called "the Wabash System" of railroads, in company with Mr. Jay Gould, who had sold the coal stocks "short" heavily and had to depress the market on pain of great loss. Their *modus operandi* is said to have been the propagation of a story that Mr. Vanderbilt had sold to the "Wabash System" an enormous amount of New York Central stock, and then, when alarm about the Erie stock had thus been created, throwing a large "block" of the latter on the market. The necessary preliminary feeling of uneasiness, however, was created by the rumor of the sale by Mr. Vanderbilt, but whether it had any, and if any what, foundation, we are unable to say. The story was produced in a very positive form in the New York *Tribune* the very day of the panic. It has since the panic acknowledged that it was untrue. The New York *Times* charges it with complicity in the raid. We do not; we know of nothing on which such a charge can be based; but we do say, and in no unfriendly spirit, that having been instrumental in helping an operation by which thousands of innocent people have been stripped of their money, and which on the surface is in no respect morally distinguishable from the worst tricks of a gambling-house, the *Tribune*, like any other great newspaper, owes the public an explanation of its course. If it has been imposed upon by the jobbers, it ought to give them up to public indignation and rid itself, at any cost, of all appearance of an understanding with them. The only defence of the public against the unscrupulous men who now "manipulate" railroads is the press, and the press cannot afford to allow its fidelity to be suspected for a moment.

The official canvass of the votes cast at the late election in this State was completed Friday. The *Times*—which has direct reports from the county clerks of the various counties, except four whose returns are taken from the local publication of the official count—gives the following results: Cornell's plurality is 42,782, but his vote is 34,768 behind the combined vote of Robinson and Kelly, and his actual minority under all candidates 59,423. Kelly's vote reaches 77,550. The following are the pluralities of the rest of the successful candidates on the State ticket: Hoskins, 188; Wadsworth, 5,927; Carr, 2,029; Wendell, 2,683; Ward, 4,426; Seymour, 14,051. Hoskins's plurality is the smallest by which the head of a ticket—as virtually he was in this instance—was ever elected in this State, we believe.

The Scratchers' Committee have issued an address to the public giving an account of what they believe to be the result of their labors. They say that without the help of the 75,000 Kelly votes Cornell would have been defeated by above 30,000 votes; that he ran behind his ticket 3,820 in New York City, 2,837 in Brooklyn, and "correspondingly in nearly every part of the State"; that Mr. Secretary Sherman estimates those who scratched Mr. Cornell at 30,000, but that this is likely to be an overestimate, as probably many Republicans voted for Robinson; that "it is probable that 20,000 Republicans rejected Mr. Cornell, some such votes being offset or obscured by Tammany and Canal votes." Mr. Soule, they say, was (in spite of his "vindication" by the Organ on the eve of the election) buried under a "9,000 minority." The Committee throw the responsibility of "endangering the pivotal State" on Mr. Conkling, and congratulate the Independent Republicans on the significance of the result. "'Fair notice has been given to the Machine that the party must rule it, and not it the party." It appears plain, they add, that the balance of power in 1880 will lie with the Independent voters, and "the 'strong man' needed to carry New York is a candidate who will attract and not repel Republicans of conscience, intelligence, and memory." The New York *Times* points out, however, that they do not explain satisfactorily why the vote of the Republican candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, whom the Independents profess to have supported, added to that for his opponent, was less than the total vote cast for Governor. It also draws attention to the fact, which the Organ ought to discuss and explain, that ever since 1875 the Republican strength has been steadily declining. It had nearly 49 per cent. of the vote cast in 1875, and only 46 per cent. this year. What is the use of very old men as managers, if they cannot do better than this? The Scratchers raised by subscription from Republicans $5,215 95, a fact of some moment when it is considered that Gorham, the late Secretary of the Senate Committee, testified before a committee of Congress, last August, that of the $106,000 he raised for the whole Republican canvass two years ago $90,000 came from unfortunate office-holders by means of "assessments," and only $16,000 from the general public.

There is a most painful doubt spreading among the Stalwarts as to whether General Grant is a Stalwart after all. The *Evening Post* has put together some very strong documentary evidence showing that he is not really hostile to the South. But Stalwartism is a term which covers more than hostility to the South. It also includes indifference or hostility to civil-service reform, and a willingness to let "the boys" have a good time with the offices. The Stalwarts do not demand of their champion any line of action towards the

South, for they know that none is possible. What they require is that he shall occasionally shake his fist in that direction and give no offices to Southern Democrats, and no countenance to "molly-coddle" schemes at the North for keeping office-holders out of electioneering; so that it is possible that Grant might satisfy them without any denunciation of the South at all. He apparently stands by his old friends as firmly as ever, in spite of the reports of the change worked in him by European travel. Belknap was warmly received by him at Chicago, and was in the procession. Boss Shepherd is said, on excellent authority, to have ha da special invitation to go on and meet him there. We have no doubt that they will all turn up gradually, if fortune favors them, and be again the happy circle they once were, and enter on their political duties with their old war-cry: "Glory to God! regards to Babcock."

Mr. Sherman's admission in New Jersey that at State elections people may cheat as much as they please for all the Federal Government cares, is not the only sign of modification in Stalwart ideas about State rights. We drew attention last year, at the time of their promulgation, to the extraordinary doctrines of the Illinois and Iowa Republican platforms, without attracting any notice from Stalwart papers, so unobjectionable did these doctrines then seem. Our reference to them now, however, has called forth several denials or disclaimers and explanations. The Stalwart papers say the resolutions must have been "garbled," or construed too "technically," or separated too much from the "context" (*i.e.*, another resolution in which the State is mentioned as a participant in the Government). They will not admit that the Republicans of two prominent States can have really entertained such strange ideas. The ideas, however, were by no means strange, even a year ago. They sprang naturally from the feeling, of which the true Stalwart has never entirely rid himself, that the South is conquered territory, and the Union therefore not restored. It was this which led Mr. Boutwell to report three years ago in favor of the reduction of the Southern States to military districts governed by martial law. It is found still lingering in such phrases as the President's "leniency" towards the South, and the South's "ingratitude" towards the President, both terms borrowed from the nomenclature of military monarchies. There is, we need hardly say, no such word known in American polity as the "leniency" of an executive officer to anybody but a convicted criminal. Towards all other persons and corporations he does his *duty* by executing the law. Nor is there such a term in American polity as "gratitude" towards an executive officer. The law prescribes his duty, and he is sworn to obey it. If he excites "gratitude," it must be by some unlawful course. By his use of these two terms one can always detect what is passing in the mind of a Stalwart.

The Comptroller of the Currency tells in his report a tolerably well-known tale as regards the refunding of the public debt and the resumption of specie payments. But he produces some novel and interesting facts with regard to the currency. He estimates the total amount in existence on November 1 at $1,165,000,000, or $380,000,000 more than at any time between the suspension and resumption of specie payments. But he does not believe that much addition has been made to the amount in circulation by resumption—not more than $120,000,000, and of this he thinks a large amount is, and has long been, hoarded, and that the amount of coin and paper now in circulation is not greatly in excess of the average of the last five years, there being, it must be remembered, $158,000 of gold and $50,000,000 of silver in the Treasury, and $30,000,000 of coin in the bank-vaults. He emphatically recommends the withdrawal and destruction of the redeemed greenbacks, on the ground that the Treasury cannot keep them afloat, and as long as they lie in its vaults they furnish a constant temptation to extravagant appropriations by Congress.

The annual report of the Secretary of War places the present strength of the Army at 2,187 officers, 24,262 men, and 388 officers retired. Of this force a portion, however, is employed in detached or special service, and the Secretary joins "most heartily" with the General of the Army in recommending that the effective force of the line of the Army be raised to 25,000 men exclusive of these detachments. "Most if not all the disasters attending Indian hostilities are the result of inadequacy of force on our part," he says. Other recommendations of General Sherman, already published, are approved. The estimates for the year ending June 30, 1881, are $40,380,428 93. An increase in the clerical force of the civil establishment is urgently requested, and, among others, an appropriation of $50,000 is asked for the purpose of preparing maps of the unexplored areas of the country which is likely to be traversed by the troops and hostile Indians—a work eminently worth the small sum mentioned, we should say.

Mr. F. C. Morehead, President of the Mississippi Valley Cotton Planters' Association, delivered a fortnight ago an address to that body which will be given, and deserves, a very wide circulation. The main object of it was to show that the planters do not stand in need of greater capital, but have it in their power to become independent by making cotton not the only crop, as at present, but a "surplus money crop." For example, Mr. Morehead says that raising the provender for their own teams would save the planters $32,000,000, or nearly double the amount of their net profit on the cotton, which is $18,000,000. In other words, so small and inconsiderable an addition to their labor as this implies would swell the return on their invested capital from 4 per cent. to nearly 13. But he contends, with perfect justice, that wheat and corn can be raised in the cotton States as well as the feed for their stock, in quantities more than sufficient to meet their own needs, and the same is true of horses, mules, sheep, and hogs. A still further economy would result from manufacturing on the spot, and from improved machinery for gathering the crop. On this point Mr. Morehead was able to make two very important announcements—one, of a cotton-picking machine almost perfected "which, with one or two mules and a man, will pick ten acres a day," and another of the so-called "Clement attachment," which is actually engaged in spinning yarns direct from the seed-cotton, thus doing away with gins, gin-houses, and presses, and permitting bales of yarn to be shipped in place of cotton. The advantage of these improvements will be shared by the laborers, who, being lifted out of debt, will develop new wants to be supplied. Mr. Morehead urges on the Association the systematic promotion of immigration and opposition to repudiation, and there can be no doubt that in the vigorous pursuit of the objects which the planters have in view, the South has the best guaranty of moral and material restoration yet held out to it by any single instrumentality.

The trial of Mud-Scow Superintendent Isaac O. Hunt by the Police Commissioners last week furnished an interesting illustration of municipal government under a reform administration. The accusation preferred against Mr. Hunt by Commissioner MacLean was that of incompetency. His duties are to superintend the mud-scows and send them out to sea. On examination by Mr. MacLean he testified, according to the *World's* account, that his position was one of great difficulty and embarrassment; that when he took office he found no record of what had been done by his predecessor; that he could not get any information whether the scows were loaded or not; that he could not understand who were his superiors or his subordinates. On being asked what the tug *Burke* was doing last week, he said that she was doing nothing because the captain was drunk; that he had made no formal charge against him because he had repeatedly applied to Mr. MacLean for instructions as to his duties, and had never received a satisfactory answer. He stated that he had not been to the dumping-ground for a long time, thinking it useless to do so, as he was "not a navigator." He says that

he does not complain of persons who interfere with him, because "there is no telling who is boss. Things are awfully mixed." This is no doubt the reason why, as he further testified, he had not thought it necessary to find out whether the work certified by him as having been performed had actually been done. In one branch of his duties he seems to have been most efficient, however. On being asked as to his occupation on November 4 he said: "I worked and voted that day for Cornell. I worked hard for him. I did the same for Cooper a year ago, and see what we have got for it now!" According to another witness's testimony, Mr. Hunt's only absence from duty was for two days when he was "at some convention." The accused superintendent also charged Mr. MacLean with "conspiring against him before he ever saw him," and putting obstructions purposely in his way; he also casually remarked to Mr. MacLean that he had "held positions which you [MacLean] could not fill to save your soul." On a vote being taken the Republican Commissioners voted unanimously that the charges were not sustained, and Mr. Hunt will, therefore, still continue in charge of his department.

The Irish rent troubles have at last reached the "seditious" stage, and three orators have been arrested and committed for trial for language inciting people to violence and illegality. This stage in Irish agitation is always one of prodigious excitement, as it gives the leaders the martyr's aureole, and the trials will probably be the finest entertainment which Sligo, a dull western town, has seen for many a day. There is, of course, but little chance that the jury will agree; but the mere proceedings usually shake a man's nerves and those of his family, and interrupt his business so much that the prediction of the London press, that the talk of the other agitators will now become comparatively tame, is probably well founded. There is no doubt about the sufferings of the farmers. Their crops are greatly deficient, and the calamity is aggravated by a failure in the supply of peat through the same cause—the wetness of the season. Lord Beaconsfield's remedy for this last affliction is said to be a supply of coal at cost price.

The great conflict in London between Mr. Labouchere, of *Truth*, and Mr. Levy Lawson, of the *Telegraph*, has taken an unfortunate turn for the former. Labouchere is before the police court on a criminal charge of libel, and has indulged in a prolonged cross-examination of his opponent with the view of showing that he was justified in calling him "a disgrace to journalism." The magistrate after a while said he had had enough of this, but agreed to adjourn to enable Labouchere to apply for a mandamus to the Queen's Bench to compel him to hear more. This the Queen's Bench has refused, and Labouchere will probably now be committed and have to justify himself before a jury. The discussion of the question, What constitutes "a disgrace to journalism"? will be interesting if not fruitful. There are nearly as many kinds of "journalism" as there are journalists. In fact, nearly every journalist makes his own "journalism," and it would therefore be difficult to prove that any given journalist was a disgrace to anything but human nature. There are, however, great numbers of journalists who everybody feels are a disgrace to something or other, without knowing exactly what. The times are bad in England for "society papers." Rosenberg's successor in *Town Talk* has been brought up for libel and compelled to make a most humiliating apology. He hinted in his paper that a brother journalist named Townsend had passed six months in the penitentiary, but confessed in court that what suggested the insinuation was his having passed six months in that institution himself.

The war between Chili and Peru has made considerable progress since the loss of the *Huascar*. The Chilians have landed a force at Pisagua, captured the place, and then marched against the combined Peruvian and Bolivian forces who were concentrated near Iquique, and there, according to despatches received in Paris, totally defeated them. This will probably end the war, which has been marked on both sides by pluck and skill on sea and land; but, considering that it is waged between small states of the same faith and language and lineage, who are still sorely behindhand in most of the essentials of material and moral well-being, is one of the most pitiable spectacles of recent times. The women of such communities as Peru giving their jewels to buy ironclads is a sort of grim satire on civilization. The cause of the quarrel lies in the exploitation of mines of nitrate of soda and borax in the desert of Atacama, which lies between Chili, Bolivia, and Peru, and belongs in part to each and in part to none. A Chilian company worked some of the mines on Bolivian territory, under a contract with the Government as to its rights and dues, and constructed a railroad to Autofagasta for the transport of its produce to the sea. A new government established by revolution in Bolivia first broke the contract and imposed fresh taxes on the company, and then seized its mines and railroad, and refused all redress. The Chilians then interfered with armed force for the protection of their citizens, and Peru formed an alliance for resistance with Bolivia—with the result we all see. The bottom fact, as they say in Brooklyn, of the whole affair is probably the envy and disgust excited in two turbulent and ill-governed communities by the sight of Chilian success in developing resources which they themselves had equally easy access to, but could not turn to account.

Mr. Delane, for many years editor of the London *Times* during the period of its greatest influence, has just died after a long illness, superinduced by overwork, at the early age of sixty-one. He was the first of its editors to become a prominent and well-known figure in London society. Not many years before his accession Sir Robert Peel, in writing to thank Edward Sterling, the then editor, for his powerful support, confessed that the editor of the *Times* was an unknown person to him. Mr. Delane preserved the best traditions of the "Thunderer" period while giving up the editorial mystery or obscurity, and the *Times* probably never thundered so vigorously and efficiently as during the Crimean War. With Mr. Delane, however, the fierce editorial independence of the paper passed away, and it now reflects more distinctly than ever the cautious and somewhat tepid views of the chief proprietor, who is a great landowner and Conservative. The present Ministry gets a feeble support from it, and it attacks nobody with any vigor. Its propriety of utterance is very great, and is probably only approached in this country by the Boston *Advertiser*, to which the *Times* bears a striking resemblance editorially. In news-gathering, in which it was once pre-eminent, it is now beaten by more than one of its contemporaries, but its foreign correspondence, taken as a whole, is probably unequalled for solidity and trustworthiness, and it is, of course, still the favorite vehicle for distinguished persons who wish to communicate with the public. Mr. Delane's one great mistake was his position with regard to the civil war in this country, which was at one time ascribed to the West Indian connections of his family, but was more probably the result of enormous deception at the hand of its American correspondent after Dr. Russell's departure.

There is little Continental news of interest beyond continued reports of an approaching reconstruction of the French Cabinet, M. Waddington being about to retire. His position has never been a strong one. He is not a good speaker, and weighs on the Ministry in some degree in their *Culturkampf* by the fact that he is almost an Englishman, having been born of English parents and educated in England. There are statements and counter-statements as to the Ministerial policy with regard to the Ferry bill, the prevailing opinion being, however, that they will eventually abandon the seventh section. They have no other real difficulty before them except the conduct of the returned Communists, whose defiant attitude brings some discredit on the policy of clemency. It probably has killed the prospect of a general amnesty. Prince Napoleon takes on himself more and more of the air of a pretender, and has apparently secured the adhesion of Paul de Cassagnac. But there is no real revival of the Bonapartist cause, and Madame de Rémusat's book is a severe blow to the Napoleonic legend.

THE DUTY OF REPUBLICAN ORATORS TO THE SOUTH.

IT is greatly to be regretted that Mr. Blaine and Mr. Sherman have found it impossible to go down to Louisiana and take part in the State canvass as they have been earnestly urged to do by the State Republicans. Secretary Sherman has declared that the proper conduct of elections at the South was a more important matter than labor or money or credit, and Mr. Blaine has now for several years made it the chief subject of his attention and his speeches. In fact, it would not be unfair to suppose that almost any prominent Republican politician at the North would just now grasp eagerly at any excuse for going down to the South to stump on the Republican side. It is almost certain that he would not be killed or maltreated, and if he were not he would be enabled to apply his balsam to the very wound itself. Instead of talking about the wickedness of the Southern Democrats to people at the North who live fifteen hundred miles away from them, and never see one in the course of their lives, he would be able to get at the very sinners themselves, and describe and characterize the Southern enormities to the very men who commit them. More than this, he would be able to describe at Northern meetings through the winter things which he himself saw or had personal cognizance of, and thus be able to give his charges against the South that spice of specification, the absence of which does so much now to prevent their being effective.

It is the more to be regretted because an effort is being made in Louisiana to give the State good government, such as we have not seen since the war. The Republican party there is now headed by men with whom no Northern politician need be ashamed to associate. Its candidates are unimpeachable and its principles sound. The Democrats, on the other hand, can be assailed down there at this moment with a force and effectiveness to which they have not laid themselves open since the war. From the close of the war until now the charge has been brought against them that they murdered and intimidated the colored voters; but to this they have until recently been able to make answer that, being in a minority, this was the only way in which they could rid themselves of corrupt government. They now have the government in their own hands, and have had it for over two years, and although there are undoubtedly fewer crimes of violence than there used to be, the corruption, even if half what is told of it be true, is as bad as it ever was. The State credit, which rose to 92 after the Nichols government came into power, has, partly by gross jobbing with State securities and partly by threats of repudiation on the part of the dominant party, fallen to 38 as regards the consols, and to 48 as regards the premium bonds. The correspondent of the New York *Times*, who has been throwing a good deal of valuable light on the situation, though not writing in a very judicial tone, shows that the machinery of elections, as created by the party now in power, is in no respect an improvement on the old machinery devised by the carpet-baggers. The difference between them seems to lie mainly in the fact that, while the carpet-baggers doctored the returns in New Orleans, by means of a central board, the Democrats doctor them on the spot in each parish by means of local officers called police juries. Owing to the perfection of this machinery, the correspondent says, intimidation has been abandoned. He admits that, "as a rule, the Democrats have not attempted to break up Republican meetings or maltreat the negroes," and the reason he gives is that "Judge Beattie and the majority of those associated with him on the Republican ticket are not men to be trifled with," in addition to which the emigration movement has frightened the planters, who are dependent on the negroes for labor, into protecting them.

The situation is, in fact, more favorable than any which has existed since the war for injecting into Louisiana a strong expression of Northern opinion as to the way in which power is exercised by its present possessors. For bringing home election frauds to those who perpetrate them, there is no place like the spot on which they are perpetrated. Speeches delivered in Maine and New York about frauds in Louisiana cannot be delivered with half the force or point or knowledge of the facts of speeches on the same subject delivered in Louisiana. The condition of the State credit is something about which there can be no dispute. It was used powerfully by the Democrats against the carpet-baggers, both in South Carolina and Louisiana. The market price of bonds is a kind of proof which no Congressional Committee is needed to supply, and the place to use it is where the bonds are held, and where the people who hold them have been ruined by them, as has been largely the case in Louisiana. That there would be any personal danger for a Northern speaker in Louisiana no one pretends. That he would be quietly listened to, and, if a man of prominence, eagerly listened to, there is no sort of doubt. That he would, if an able speaker, produce some impression, we must believe, unless we conceive that the Southern whites are irredeemable barbarians incapable of being persuaded, and so far below even the most savage races of the world as to be insensible to oratory.

Moreover, the educating influence on Northern politicians just now of addressing Southern audiences on the Southern question would be invaluable. Everybody knows what a temptation to violence, exaggeration, and distortion lies in the habit of denouncing people who are absent and far away, and who are sure not to reply to you. There is in a Northern meeting absolutely no restraint of any kind on an orator talking about the South. No matter how extravagant his charges or how wild his distortions, they are sure to meet with toleration if not with applause. No one corrects or gainsays them; no one is offended by them. Before a Southern audience he would, in spite of himself, when discoursing on Southern questions be more careful and moderate and accurate, and absorb, as it were, some appreciation of the special difficulties with which Southern whites are contending. The time has, in fact, distinctly come when it is the solemn duty of those Northern politicians who are impressed, as most prominent Republicans seem to be, with the moral responsibility of the North for the condition of the South, and especially for the safety and welfare of the negroes, to go down to the South and reason face to face with those who in their opinion now stand in the way of a more perfect Union. Far-off and ill-informed denunciation has done all that it can do for good. It has now reached the point at which it simply breeds impotent sectional hate. There never before has been such a spectacle witnessed in political history as a body of statesmen making a specialty of the feelings and interests of a region which they never visit, and know nothing about except what they learn from partisan newspapers. If the old anti-slavery spirit animated the Republican leaders to-day, Messrs. Conkling, Sherman, Blaine, and half a dozen others would be spending most of their time at the South, going to the bottom of the question which they consider by far the most important of the day and which is the principal subject of their thoughts. Louisiana, too, has, as we have said, peculiar claims on their attention. The whites have split, and a highly respectable body of them have joined the Republican party, and are working, not simply to furnish votes for the next Republican candidate, but to furnish their own State with good government. Surely these men have, after all that has been said and done, the strongest claim on the support and encouragement of Republican leaders, not through distant "words of cheer," but through their appearance on the same platforms and before the same audiences, so as to bring home to the Southern people that they are in real moral and intellectual connection with the rest of the Union.

THE ANTI-RENT AGITATION IN IRELAND.

THE Beaconsfield Ministry no sooner get out of one trouble than they are plunged in another. The Zulu war was hardly over when Irish discontent entered on a new phase and a very much more serious one than the Home-Rule agitation, and one which is more difficult to deal with. The combination not to pay rent without heavy reductions, which showed itself a couple of months ago, has passed, or is very rapidly passing, into a combination not to pay any rent at all—in fact, to claim the proprietorship of the land for the tenantry. This is, as we pointed out not long ago, a natural

outcome of the present condition of the land question in England. The grievances of the tenants and the misfortunes they are suffering from the failure of crops are of much the same character in the one country as in the other, but the remedy proposed is, as might be expected, much more radical in Ireland than in England. In England nothing more serious is called for than a change in the law regulating the transfer and settlement of land, which will give the life-tenant more complete control over the estate, or, rather, prevent the formation of any life-tenancies or any property in it short of the fee. However, the notion that there is anything wrong with the land-tenure, that it is not, in fact, the best ever devised, is a new notion, and one which has never obtained recognition by practical politicians until the present year, and probably would not have obtained it now but for the overwhelming blows inflicted on the existing régime by American competition. In Ireland, however, the existing landlords may be said as a general rule, except in Ulster, where solid Scotch and English colonies were planted, never to have obtained from the tenantry a recognition of the moral validity of their titles. If any one wants to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the reason why, he has only to read that most careful and instructive work, Prendergast's 'History of the Cromwellian Settlement in Ireland,' which describes one of the most remarkable episodes in the history of the British Empire. Prescription would probably have long ago covered up the original defects in these titles if the new-comers had been of the same creed and race as their tenants, and if a century of ferocious religious persecution had not kept the breach between them open almost down to our own time, and if—what is, perhaps, more important than all—the native Irish had got beyond the tribal notions of property in land when the English system was imposed upon them. The old Celtic chief whom the Cromwellian Stalwarts dispossessed did not own the land in fee. He never thought of driving people off from it. He might kill a tenant whom he disliked, but he never thought of ejecting him. The English tenure and the social structure based upon it might have succeeded if the native chiefs had survived the conquest and gradually adopted it, as they did in so many cases in the Scotch Highlands; but the last persons in the world to recommend it were the Cromwellian Stalwarts, who got their estates for doing the Lord's work among the Irish heathen. Not that all the tenants who settled on these estates afterwards were of Celtic blood by any means; but the Irish view of land-tenure gradually permeated them all, and even penetrated into the Scotch plantations in Ulster, so that it may be said, without exaggeration, that the Irish people of both races have never really accepted the English legal view of real property, and never submitted to it except as a matter of physical necessity, and never ceased to protest against it after one fashion or another—more frequently by murder and outrage than any other. It is not surprising, then, that when the English themselves show signs of losing faith in it the flames of Irish hostility to it should shoot up with greater force than ever.

Nevertheless, we doubt if the agitation of which Parnell has made himself the head is likely to have any immediate result beyond producing a considerable reduction of rents and greatly lowering the value of the fee of Irish estates. Land has already fallen heavily in England, and there are a good many reasons why the fall should be still greater in Ireland than the mere diminution in the value of the yield would call for. The Tory Government is pledged on every side not to yield on a question of this kind. They may make what concessions they please as regards the suffrage and education, and they may afford considerable relief by public works, but they can hardly venture to attack landed property, or to countenance peasant proprietorship, even if they had the legislative ability to deal with any such scheme. They will probably meet the crisis, as they have begun to meet it, by troops and prosecutions for sedition; and all experience of Irish agitation supports them in believing that a steady application of force will put an end to the anti-landlord movement in its more violent form. To this all Irish agitation except the tithe agitation has hitherto succumbed rather ingloriously, and there is no reason for supposing that organized resistance to rent-paying will form an exception to the rule.

This brings us into the presence of one of the most curious phenomena of modern politics, which appears to have long had a fascination for Mr. Froude, and which he discusses with characteristic extravagance and inadequacy in the last *North American Review*—the prodigious growth and pertinacious political self-assertion of the Irish race. Mr. Froude's treatment of Irish questions furnishes, in spite of Mr. Freeman's charges in other directions, the most serious blot on his character. The apologist of "Flogging Fitzgerald" would not deserve ordinary literary civility if his coming over here to refute O'Donovan Rossa before American audiences did not show a fatal want of perception, both as to the limits of his own rôle and the true proportion of the subjects which interest him. That Mr. Froude enormously exaggerates the influence of the Irish as propagandists of Roman Catholicism there is no question, but it is none the less true that religion has been a powerful, in fact the most powerful, agency, not only in keeping alive the flame of patriotism at home, but in keeping the Irish separate in interest and feeling from the people among whom they settle in England and America. There is but little in Irish history to touch the imagination apart from religion. The story of intestine dissensions, diversified by foreign conquests, ending in crushing subjugation by an enemy who despised as well as hated them, would have nothing very enlivening about it if it were not for the fidelity with which the Irish clung to the Church through all their misfortunes. It is this which gives the "six hundred years of wrong" its touch of poetry and glory, and gives the Irish peasant in England and the United States something to be proud of in the midst of a civilization to which he knows he has contributed nothing, and in the midst of a population which dislikes him both peremptorily and for cause. It is probably, too, the agency which makes it difficult for men of any other race or faith to sympathize deeply with his passionate patriotism.

The Irish emigrants now hold the balance of power in so many of the English boroughs as to make a serious impression on the opinions of English members of both parties on Irish questions. The dalliance of both Liberal and Tory representatives of English constituencies with Home-Rulers, or any other Irish sect which happens to be uppermost, has become a very common phenomenon in English politics, though one which twenty years ago was unknown. The influence of the Irish vote in this country is something with which everybody is familiar, though few thought it as formidable as the recent result of the Kelly bolt in this State has shown it to be. The passion of the Irish, too, for the government of municipalities, and their success in getting hold of them, is one of the most notorious facts of American politics. Not long ago we heard of a small town in Canada, with a population, mostly French, of five thousand, and among them only twelve Irishmen; but these twelve had secured and divided among themselves all the local offices. Curiously enough, too, they seem remarkably impervious to the opinion of their neighbors of other races and creeds. They have a press and a code of morals and manners of their own, on which the criticisms of Protestants and persons of Teutonic origin make little or no impression, and, in spite of their reputation for humor, they manifest that want of the sense of the ridiculous in politics which has worked so much evil in France, and which makes the trade of the demagogue very easy among them. They voted almost solidly for Butler in Massachusetts, and in his canvass he apparently found it impossible to be too absurd to suit them. They have been in every age of their history a fighting people, and have produced more than their share of the great soldiers of the world, but they listened with emotion to his telling them at one of his meetings that his failure as a general, in so far as he failed, was due to his unwillingness to order an advance because it would probably lead to the death of some of his staff.

What makes the Irish influence in Anglo-Saxon politics to-day so serious a problem is, however, chiefly the difficulty, if not impossibility, of divining its precise aims or extracting from its utter-

ances its political ideal. Nobody can guess from the speeches or writings of the Irish agitators on either side of the water the kind of Ireland they would make if Ireland were independent, or the nature of the influence which is dominant in Irish councils. One result of this is that English legislation, no matter how well meant, has thus far missed its mark, and failed to allay Irish discontent. The nearest approach to a solution would seem to be the radical one suggested by the London *Daily News*, apropos of the present difficulties—the concession of a very large measure of local government, county and provincial. The county government is at present completely oligarchical, being that of grand juries made up by the sheriff from among the great landed proprietors. There is no provincial government at all. If there were local assemblies charged with considerable powers they would, at all events, be almost sure to bring out in some palpable form the Irish political and social ideal, and this would be a great gain both for Irishmen themselves and for the people who have to carry on government in conjunction with them. At present one is puzzled to know whether they would like a restoration of the ancient kings, attended by corps of harpers; or the rule of a council of Catholic bishops, or of the Pope himself; or that of a single pious Boss, advised by his confessor; or of a parliament of great orators, rich enough to pay handsome assessments to the "workers"; or whether they would like a society composed of tenants with fixed tenure, under popular landlords, or one of peasant proprietors solely. The precise position of the average Irish Catholic layman about Church establishments and popular education is veiled in like obscurity. For this reason, if for no other, the meeting of the convention of three hundred proposed by Mr. Parnell might do a great deal of good by bringing out some expression of dominant opinion on the questions which make the Irish race all over the world so restless.

MEMOIRS OF MADAME DE RÉMUSAT.

II.

PARIS, November 10, 1879.

I HAVE shown, from the 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat,' how Napoleon, in his relations with women, placed himself above all the common rules of propriety; the laws of society did not exist for him. He probably had but one sincere passion in his life—his passion for Josephine—and he loved her chiefly as the unconscious instrument of his first ambitions. There is an episode in the 'Memoirs' which has long been familiar to me, but which hitherto has never been told in any book: it is the history of the relations of Napoleon with the mother of Count Walewski, who became the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Napoleon III. I hesitate to translate this episode, and must refer your readers to pages 121 and 122 of the volume. Madame de Rémusat tells the whole story; she forgets only to say that the young Polish woman who is the heroine of it had been chosen by her compatriots as a sort of ambassador. She was charged to reconcile Napoleon to the idea of a resurrection of Poland. She accepted this mission as a sort of sacrifice. She was very brutally received and treated, but she made in the end a lasting impression on Napoleon, who continued to see her till 1815.

In his relations with men Napoleon was more interesting to study. He was, in one sense, a great moralist, in so far that he constantly studied human character. He took no high view of it, and constantly looked for the hidden causes of the actions of men, and tried to find these causes in the most selfish instincts. His pulse was remarkably slow, and though he often affected violent anger he never really felt it. "My anger," he once said to Madame de Rémusat, "never rises higher than this"—showing the line of his neck, and meaning that the brain, the intellectual force, constantly remained undisturbed. The contact of Napoleon and of Talleyrand, whose brain also was always undisturbed, was a remarkable phenomenon. Talleyrand had the indestructible character of what we call a "grand seigneur." His silence was disdainful; his politeness had a tinge of patronage. His whole nature was factitious; he had a light and easy way of treating the most serious matters as if they were nothing to him. He held a singular position in the court of the First Consul: he belonged to the *ancien régime* by his name, his manners, his deep-seated aristocratic instincts; he belonged to the Revolution by his offences against the Church, his renunciation of his ecclesiastical character. Napoleon saw at once that Talleyrand would be an invaluable instrument in his hand; but Talleyrand was too proud to be a mere instrument. When Bonaparte was on the point of starting for Egypt he made a visit to Talleyrand, who was then Minister of Foreign Affairs for the Directory.

"I was in my bed," said Talleyrand, in a conversation with Madame de Rémusat; "Bonaparte sat by me, and opened to me the vistas of his young imagination. . . . He spoke to me of some money embarrassments. 'Well,' said I, 'open my secretary—you will find in it a hundred thousand francs which belong to me. They are now yours; you will give them back to me on your return.' Bonaparte embraced me, and I really enjoyed his satisfaction. When he became Consul he paid me back the money I had lent him. But one day he asked me, 'What interest could you have in lending me this money? I have a hundred times tried to find out, and I have never well understood what your motive could be.' 'Well,' said I, 'I had none. I felt very ill; it was possible that I should never see you again. But you were young; you made an impression on me, and I was drawn to render you this service without the slightest afterthought.' 'In that case,' answered Bonaparte, 'if it was really without any prevision, you were acting the part of a dupe.'"

The two men show themselves completely in this conversation; only Talleyrand shows himself a shade better than he was, and Bonaparte a little worse than he was. During the negotiations which preceded the peace of Amiens, in 1802, Bonaparte was expecting the diplomatic courier with great impatience, as there had been some difficulties between the plenipotentiaries. The courier arrived, and brought to Talleyrand at the Foreign Office the long-expected signature.

"Talleyrand put it in his pocket and went to see the Consul. He appeared before him with the impassive visage which he kept on all occasions. . . . He remained a whole hour explaining to Bonaparte many important affairs, and when the work was done, 'Oh!' said he, with a smile, 'I will now give you a great pleasure: the treaty is signed. There it is!' Bonaparte was stupefied with this way of announcing it. 'And why did you not tell me this at once?' 'Ah!' answered Talleyrand, 'because you would not have listened to a word of the rest. When you are happy you are not *abordable*.' This capacity for silence struck Napoleon, but did not displease him."

One day, when Napoleon was already emperor, the conversation between them fell on Berthier, who was the chief of staff, and whose devotion to Napoleon was passionate and almost canine. "In truth," said Napoleon, "I cannot conceive how between Berthier and myself a relation which bears any semblance of friendship could have established itself. I don't amuse myself with useless sentiment, and Berthier is so mediocre that I don't know why I should amuse myself with liking him; and still, when nothing draws me away from it, I believe that I am not quite without some leaning for him." "If you like him," answered Talleyrand, "do you know why? It is because he believes in you."

There is, as everybody knows, a chapter in Napoleon's life during which his relations with Talleyrand became terribly intimate: I allude to the assassination of the Duc d'Enghien. This question is treated *in extenso*, and with a view of clearing Talleyrand's character, in the famous Memoirs of that diplomat, which unfortunately cannot yet be published. Let us see what Madame de Rémusat has to say about it. She was a personal friend of Talleyrand, and when she wrote her 'Memoirs,' it was at a time when Napoleon was fallen and when she herself had taken her place again among the Royalists. She tries, therefore, to throw most of the odium on Bonaparte himself. "The enemies of Talleyrand," says she, "and Bonaparte himself have accused him of having counselled the murder of the unfortunate prince; but Bonaparte and Talleyrand's enemies can hardly be believed on this point. The well-known character of M. de Talleyrand does not admit of such violence. He told me several times that Bonaparte had advised him, as well as the two Consuls, of the arrest of the Duc d'Enghien, and of his fixed determination; he added that all three had perceived that words would be useless, and that they had all three remained silent." This silence is perhaps significant enough.

The way to the arrest of the Duc d'Enghien was paved by an article which appeared on the 21st of March in the *Moniteur*: "The Prince of Condé," said this short article, "has prepared a circular to summon the *émigrés* and assemble them on the Rhine. A prince of the house of Bourbon is for this purpose on the frontier." Talleyrand, who was in the Foreign Office, sent to all the members of the diplomatic body copies of the secret correspondence of Drake, who was Minister of England to Bavaria. This correspondence, which had been stolen, was full of attacks on France and the Consul; these were the preparations for the great event. Napoleon wished to persuade the world that England was conspiring with the *émigrés* and the *Chouans*. Pichegru was in France, concealing himself, and it was rumored that he had secretly seen General Moreau. On the 17th of February, 1804, Madame de Rémusat arrived at the Tuileries; she found the Consul in Josephine's room; Josephine had been weeping, and Napoleon was playing with the eldest son of Madame

Louis Bonaparte (who became afterwards Queen Hortense). "Do you know," said Napoleon to Madame de Rémusat, "what I have just done?" "No." "I have given the order to arrest Moreau."

"I probably made some motion. 'Ah! you are surprised; this will make a fine noise, will it not? They will certainly say that I am jealous of Moreau, that it is an act of vengeance, and a thousand things of the sort. I jealous of Moreau! He owes me the best part of his glory; I left him a fine army and only kept in Italy raw levies. I was willing to live in harmony with him. I feared him not; I fear nobody, and Moreau least of all. . . . He is weak and proud; women have directed him, parties have pressed him.' In so speaking Bonaparte had risen, and going towards his wife, he took her by the chin, and lifting her head: 'Everybody,' said he, 'has not a good wife like myself. You cry, Josephine; why? Are you afraid?'"

On the 29th of February Pichegru was found and arrested; but the police could not find George Cadoudal, the chief of the conspiracy in which Bonaparte tried to implicate Moreau. Many Legitimists were arrested, and it became by degrees apparent that George's conspiracy had a royalist character. It was then, probably, that Bonaparte resolved to strike a great blow at the royalists; he was already meditating the suppression of the Republic, and it probably seemed necessary to him to prove that if the French wanted a monarchy they could only have his own. In striking the Bourbons, Bonaparte reassured the Jacobins; the murder of the Duc d'Enghien gave him the regicides. "This calculation," says Madame de Rémusat, "entered for much in the condemnation of the Duc d'Enghien, and I continue persuaded that what was done at that time was not done under any violent impulse, any blind feeling of vengeance, but was simply the result of a Machiavellian policy which was determined to clear the way at any price."

On the 18th of March Madame de Rémusat was beginning her week with Madame Bonaparte. After Mass she set out with her in the same carriage for the Malmaison, where Madame Bonaparte was to spend the week. "'I will tell you a great secret. This morning Bonaparte has told me that he has sent M. de Caulaincourt to the frontier to seize the Duc d'Enghien; he will be brought here.' 'My God! Madame,' said I, 'what will they do to him?' 'It seems that they will pass judgment on him.' These words gave me the greatest sentiment of fear that I have experienced in all my life." Madame de Rémusat felt instinctively that the Duc d'Enghien was lost. Madame Bonaparte herself had no illusion. "'I have done all I could to make him promise that the Prince shall not die, but I fear that his determination is taken.' 'What! you think he will put him to death?' 'I fear so.'" The two women were both attached to the old régime by many ties. Madame de Rémusat was related to one of the last ministers of Louis XVI.; some of her relations had been in the household of the Condés. It is easy to imagine in what state she arrived at the Malmaison. She found the Consul perfectly calm, and playing at chess. He affected some gaiety during the days which followed; he played with the little child of Louis Bonaparte; he would turn suddenly to Madame de Rémusat: "Why did you not rouge? You are very pale." Madame de Rémusat said she had forgotten her rouge. "Ah," said he, "a woman who forgets her rouge!" and, bursting with laughter, "this will never happen to you, Josephine." Then he added, "There are two things which suit women peculiarly well —rouge and tears." He had no measure in his gaiety; his manners with Josephine, when he felt amiable, were garrison-manners. Madame de Rémusat was obliged to play chess with him; he whispered to himself the famous "Soyons amis, Cinna," of Corneille, and at other times the words of *Gusman* in "Alzire":

> "Des Dieux que nous servons connais la différence :
> Les tiens t'ont commandé le meurtre et la vengeance ;
> Et le mien, quand ton bras vient de m'assassiner,
> M'ordonne de te plaindre et de te pardonner."

Madame de Rémusat, who watched him with a painful curiosity, was beginning to hope that it would all end in some great scene of clemency. They were still at play when a carriage was heard:

"The First Consul threw back the table vigorously, rose, and entering in the gallery near the drawing-room remained the rest of the evening with Murat, Hulin, and Savary. He never reappeared. I went to my room more tranquil. I could not persuade myself that Bonaparte should not be moved at the idea of having such a victim in his hands. . . . The night, the terrible night, passed. In the morning early I went down to the drawing-room. I found Savary alone, excessively pale, and, I must do him the justice to add, with a troubled countenance. His lips trembled as he spoke to me, though he uttered only insignificant words. I asked no question. . . . Madame Bonaparte entered; she looked sadly at me, sat down, and said to Savary: 'So, it is done?' 'Yes, Madame,' said he, 'he died this morning, and, I am forced to confess, with a fine courage.' I was thunderstruck."

If Madame Rémusat had at that very moment ordered her carriage and gone home to Paris, she would have been very different from what she was. She did not pretend to be a heroine; but, as a *femme d'esprit*, I wonder how she could ever forgive Bonaparte his "Soyons amis, Cinna," and the quotation from "Alzire," at the very moment when he knew that the work of death was being done.

MATTER FOR ART MUSEUMS.

Bassano, October 16.

How far art is to be stimulated by the formation of exemplary collections is perhaps a question to be decided by various schools of the day according to their definition of art. In the naturalistic sense, which has so marked a dominance in many of the European schools, and which furnishes all the technically good work of the time in Germany, Italy, England, Spain, and the Low Countries, with a large proportion of that of France, it is doubtful if the art of the centuries prior to this has been of material advantage, for the reason that the modern painters have, in starting from a purely naturalistic basis, been necessarily led to reject the methods and traditions of the early subjective schools, which were those in which all the great idealists (*i.e.*, the followers of a purely artistic purpose) were trained. Every great school of pure art has grown out of systematic and long-sustained pursuit of some ideal—has, in fact, been an evolution from the most childish forms of expression of that ideal through successive stages of development—and, as soon as it reached the highest attainable expression of its ideal, began to decay with a rapidity out of all comparison with that of its development. The naturalistic painter no more requires the training of the old masters than a modern stump-speaker or revivalist preacher needs to study Demosthenes and Cicero, or a modern actor requires to know the proper reading of Æschylean verse and the use of flutes and the chant. The greatest master of naturalistic painting the world knows anything of now—Velasquez—is, in his methods and ways of seeing, completely *sui generis;* as are the lesser, yet not little, masters, Rembrandt, Reynolds, and Gainsborough, and the still smaller realists of the French school, Meissonier, Gérôme, etc., who have got as far from art as anybody can go and be within the limits of its control. Properly speaking, these last are not in the true sense of the term artists, but more or less artistic naturalists, between whom and Denner, Van Os, etc., there is only difference of purely *intellectual* capacity, which must never be confounded with *artistic*. The great art schools all agree in certain points—they begin with earnest, simple, and even childish attempts to tell something of which nature is merely a vehicle of expression, and proceed in gradually and consistently increasing power and definiteness in this expression, so that whole schools move together so closely that the determination of the author of a particular work is sometimes impossible, and only chance has at times preserved the name of an artist whose work would otherwise have passed for that of his master. These schools continually tended to a more and more exact truth to nature, but the moment that direct study of superficial nature was reached the school died. Any pursuit of realistic representation, however able, has invariably marked the moribund period of a great school; while the weakest man who was capable of following the training of the great men, left behind him work technically so great that he always keeps his place in the school, and would, if he were painting to-day, be a giant in executive powers.

I never felt the truth of this so strongly as in going through the gallery of this the native place of Jacopo da Ponte, surnamed of Bassano, and seeing collected the best works of himself, his father and brothers. Few of my readers are aware that Bassano had brothers painters or that his father was a painter; yet there is in this gallery a Madonna with saints, by the old Francesco, quite worthy its place in the early Venetian school, while the best work of Jacopo is so powerful, so masterly in all that pertains to execution and manner, that I know no modern work which approaches it, though in intellectual calibre it is so weak that one wonders what led him into art by the side of men like Tintoretto, Veronese, and Titian. There is an "Assembly of Saints" which is superb in general color, rapid and masterly in execution, but which throughout betrays such a vulgarity in selection of form and want of grace that a hasty sketch for a picture by Veronese which hangs near it seems quite Raphaelesque in line in comparison. Certainly, if Jacopo came to me to-day for advice as to choice of profession, I should by all means and with all my powers urge him not to adopt painting. All there is of him worth keeping came from his training, the traditions of his school. Yet from his day to this not one of the most devoted students of the work of his master, Titian, has ever done a stroke of painting to compare with Jaco-

po's, *as painting;* and of living Frenchmen, the only one I know of who can compare with him as *wielder of the brush* is Monginot.

When we are considering the formation of a museum for the development of art, the history of Jacopo da Ponte has a peculiarly valuable moral as an example of what good training may do with mediocre individualities; and, indeed, it is all that training can do, for the sense of beauty is innate and the poetic vision incommunicable—a truism which any child comprehends, but which older people sometimes forget. And looking at Bassano's work, I was forcibly reminded of a conversation with Delacroix on the subject of art education. I asked him what was the main deficiency of our modern art. He replied, "Execution," and went on to say that, conscious of his own deficiencies in this respect, he had done what he advised all young painters to do—copy, copy, copy; and he pointed out to me on the walls bits copied from various masters, of which he had done many as training of the hand. He never succeeded in arriving at thoroughly good execution himself as judged by the Venetian standard, but a study of a few of the inferior painters of the great schools, such as Bassano, shows us exactly what he meant when he said that the modern deficiency of art education was in execution, the power of expressing vigorously, clearly, and solidly (with reference to permanent retention of the quality of color and execution) whatever pictorial idea the painter had to express.

If the painter wishes simply to give us nature, as do such men as Holman Hunt, Brett, Meissonier, etc., the ideal of execution is simply the most facile, broadest, and exact rendering of the visible qualities of the material they deal with, and all the galleries of the old masters in the world will hardly help them, for not one of the old painters painted with such an object. If they are able to attain the largeness of treatment of their theme of Velasquez, Mieris, or of Teniers, they will find nothing more congenial or useful in old art; and nature, their best guide, is still nearer to them. But for that better and higher art which does not spring, or which, at least, never has sprung, from naturalistic studies—that of which Phidias, Michael Angelo, Raphael, Titian, not to speak of Giotto, Fra Angelico, and all the line of purely religious painters are the exponents—there is something which must precede and interpret nature, and which is acquired by tradition and the study of all preceding art. Nature forms their alphabet-vocabulary, perhaps, but is never their master. What we ignorantly call their want of fidelity to nature is simply the using of that alphabet and vocabulary to express in the clearest and most direct way what they wanted to tell, but there never was any hesitation about taking any liberty with any fact of nature which made their work more forcible. To understand them and acquire their language we must not only go back to the beginnings of their schools and study their growth, but look into the details of their methods, see their drawings and sketches; and ascertain as best we can from contemporary literature and internal evidence the manner of painting. I have heard Millet, the greatest of modern purists and, with few to question his supremacy, one of the greatest of modern painters, lecture by the hour in the most enthusiastic manner on a portfolio of fac-similes of Raphael's drawings, which to him were the *ne plus ultra* of instruction in art. No one in this generation knew better the worth of a line or the rendering of a form, nor the relation of the ideal to the actual, than Millet; no man has ever gone so near to the reconciliation of the two. Take his teaching and that of Delacroix together, and you could hardly find more competent direction as to what should compose the aims of a modern school—copy to learn large, facile, and solid execution such as the Venetian school gives us the highest type of in the brush-work of even its lesser men; and draw as Raphael and his contemporaries taught their pupils to do. But the drawing must precede the painting; and if we will but study deeply enough the methods and relics of the Venetian school, especially of Titian and Veronese, we shall find not only that all the great qualities of style are contained in the preparatory drawings and sketches in chalk, but that the largeness of the brush and purity of the color were to a very large extent dependent on this previous preparation of all the material and determination of all the forms with absolute conclusiveness before painting was begun—a determination so positive that I cannot remember in any picture of Titian a *repentir*, but the forms are always laid in largely, boldly, and with the greatest evident deliberation, and that first painting is never lost through the subsequent work. It would be hopeless, then, to attempt to follow Titian's style in the finished picture without having first learned his large way of drawing his figures. It is doubtful if he himself could have attained it in any single one of his great pictures without this thorough preparation. Good painting, as execution or color, is impossible to a hesitating and undecided hand.

As material for education, therefore, while the work of secondary masters of any good school and the drawings of the great masters of it are most valuable, even the best masters of a secondary school are of very doubtful value, and an art museum, to be of use in developing a high standard of artistic purpose, is not by any means necessarily a complete historical selection or a collection to popular taste; on the contrary, the pictures which captivate most certainly the popular suffrages, and even those of the mass of mere amateurs, are certainly those which are worthless for the purposes of art education *for artists*. A picture by Bassano is worth more than one by either of the Carracci or by any Dutch painter except Rembrandt, and yet neither Bassano nor Rembrandt can be properly understood except by referring to the Bellini and Van Eyck, just as no one can properly estimate or study a picture of Titian without having studied the preliminary work which was the basis of all the greatest qualities of the finished work.

The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries furnish us with the material of the highest value for serious art education, taken, however, as models with frequent reference to preceding centuries. A collection of original drawings such as that which Mr. Jarves secured last winter in Florence is of estimable value to the beginnings of a school, just as the possession of a few original pictures by the painters of the great schools are indispensable to the perception of what execution and style should be. In the former we find how the great artist looked at his subject—what to him were the salient qualities in it and the dominant points and forms to be marked; we find how he classified and subordinated facts, and how the artistic logic selected the essentials from the chaff. For, in spite of what Ruskin or any one else may say, "Nature foists on us a great deal of rubbish," and the difference between a Denner and a Michael Angelo begins with the power of selecting the vital and essential facts from those which are merely the accidents of geology and epidermatology—the facts by which we can classify and arrange our ideas of things, from those by which we can merely recognize the things themselves. I remember hearing some one ask Emerson, "What is a genius?" "A man who can generalize from a single example," replied the sage. To learn to generalize largely and at first sight is the gift of the great artist, but a gift which, like all other great qualities, requires diligent and deliberate development, and the proof and examples of it we find in these drawings of the great masters of the great schools, as we see the result of their system of thought and work perhaps more clearly in such pictures as those of Bassano and Tiepolo, who mark the decadence of the vital powers of the school and still preserve the manner and mien of the great men on whom they formed themselves.

There is no great probability of our ever being able to draw to America the best examples of the great Italian masters, and copies of them for the purposes of study are of very little—I am disposed to go further and say absolutely no—use to students of art; but genuine drawings can be obtained and should form the basis of our art study, and then a few pictures by even secondary masters, well trained in the great schools of Venice and Tuscany, are worth to us a whole ship-load of Dutch, German, Belgian, and modern realistic pictures for all the purposes of higher education, in which I include the elementary training of whatever hopes to become high art. For purely naturalistic painting the life-schools of Antwerp and Paris are the only ones worth attending, and until we can import them we shall never develop even great realistic art or keep our best art students at home through their preliminary studies. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

FOOD SUPPLY OF THE EASTERN UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with especial interest the part of your Kansas City letter on Western cattle-raising and its relation to English land questions published November 13. May not questions of supply for our own growing population modify the conclusions to be drawn from the writer's facts? I had occasion last year to look very carefully over the census returns in connection with the food supply of the United States, with the result here shown. With the exception of New York and Delaware, each State east of Indiana had fewer cattle in actual number in 1870 than in 1860, while every State except Maine had gained in population. New York, Delaware, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin are the only States east of the Mississippi in which the actual number of cattle increased, and of these Wisconsin alone shows an increase in proportion to

increase of population. Hogs increased only in Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin. Sheep only in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, east of the Mississippi. The food animals in the total States east of the Mississippi are in actual decrease. West of the Mississippi cattle diminished in number in Missouri, Oregon, California, and even in Texas. Sheep also diminished in Texas. Hogs diminished in Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas. Between 1860 and 1870 Illinois gained 142,200 cattle, 221,000 hogs, 201,035 sheep ; but the gain in population was 800,000, or more than the gain in food animals. New York gained 80,000 cattle and 800,000 people in the same decade.

The value of these comparisons was greatly modified by the occurrence of the war in that decade, and the census of next year will not conform to it altogether, but in a general way the country east of the Mississippi will be a large consumer of the surplus raised to the west of that river. The food grains have a similarly suggestive record. A large part of the farmers of Illinois buy flour made of wheat raised west of the Mississippi, and for use in its towns so small an item as eggs is gathered to some extent in the same region. For local markets the Eastern farmer, or the English farmer, will find his land important to provide fresh articles and articles not readily transported.—Yours truly,

JAMES H. BLODGETT.

ROCKFORD, ILL., Nov. 15, 1879.

MARYLAND BULL-DOZING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: I have just noticed in your issue of the 6th inst. that you say that "according to Republican newspapers" there was "Democratic slaughter of negroes" in Maryland at the recent election. I shall be obliged if you will give me space in your columns to say that this does not rest on partisan or doubtful authority in the least. Of one of the outrages—that at Elk Ridge Landing—I was myself a witness; but lest you should think any Republican authority prejudiced I can give you the name of a Democratic witness, Colonel Charles Marshall, who was on General Lee's staff, acted as his aide at the capitulation at Appomattox, and is still a strong Democrat. He saw the same affair as myself, and it was principally owing to the firm stand he took that the roughs hired by the Democratic committee to assault the negroes and carry out the rest of the programme by repeating were driven off.

You are mistaken, however, in thinking that "bull-dozing" is something new in Maryland. Anne Arundel County, which has a fair Republican majority of 400, is regularly roughed every year to give from 900 to 1,700 Democratic; and in 1875, when a reform movement had brought the Democratic nominee for governor to the brink of certain defeat, Baltimore City was roughed from one end to the other, and to that were added registration frauds, ballot-box stuffing, repeating, and an illegal count to roll up a majority of 15,000 that should overcome the counties. In the Ninth Ward even, through an excessive zeal, a majority was returned by the judges of election larger than the entire number of voters living in the ward. So far from this year being exceptional, Maryland yearly adds a long chapter to the list of Democratic opposition to a free ballot.—Yours truly,

EDWARD J. SHRINER.

62 WALL STREET, NEW YORK, Nov. 18, 1879.

THE ARMY AS IT IS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: In your issue of October 9 you remind your correspondent "R." that the American and English armies are filled exclusively by volunteers, and, therefore, by men who may be said to have failed or to have despaired of success in civil life. Now, sir, it is not a fact that the United States Army is filled by men who could not make a living in civil life. There is no doubt that such men do come into the Army, but they do not remain long, for they very soon either desert the service or are discharged for worthlessness. I have been nine years in the Army myself, and I speak whereof I know when I say that no man who has not energy enough to make a living in civil life can serve in this Army and be discharged honorably.

Your correspondent "R.," whom I sincerely thank for his good intentions toward the enlisted men of the Army, makes a great mistake when he thinks that the Army would not compare favorably with any corporation or institution in the country in the line of promotion. The fact is that it would compare more than favorably, and if "R." does not believe me let him look at the 'Army Register' for this year, and he can see for himself.

As regards the social difference between officers and men, it exists in a purely military sense—that is, no officer will attempt any superiority over a good and intelligent man other than that required by military etiquette, and I presume the same thing obtains in the Seventh New York, which is supposed to contain the best material.

I do not wish it to be inferred that I mean by the foregoing to say that there is no room for improvement, for I well know that there is. Of course it is plain to everybody that an act of Congress was nullified by the recent appointment of civilians, but I pass that by and come to that which I am better qualified to speak upon. The mode of selecting non-commissioned officers is the worst and rottenest that could be devised, and this in the face of the fact that the discipline of a company depends almost entirely on the character and efficiency of its non-commissioned officers. To remedy this evil the vacancies in a company should be filled by competition, and not by the order of seniority or favoritism, as they now are ; then the meritorious private would not have to suffer the humiliation of having a man appointed over him who is less competent and far more ignorant than he is himself. The non-commissioned officers at present in the Army should be compelled to qualify for their warrants, and those who failed should be compelled to step down and out.

Yours truly, PATRICK SHERIDAN,
Sergeant Co. "I," Twentieth U. S. Infantry.

FORT BROWN, TEXAS, Nov. 5, 1879.

WESTERN FLUNKEYISM TO GRANT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : It may appear captious and ill-natured to utter a word of criticism against a movement in Louisville to give General Grant a grand reception which is just now exciting our population and provoking no little rivalry among those who seek the foremost places on the committees, and are pushing to approach as near as possible the divinity that doth hedge the person of the distinguished guest. But it must be admitted that these demonstrations have their dark side, the darkest shade of which is not merely the disgusting exhibitions of toadyism and snobbishness which attend them: they are certainly calculated to stimulate the efforts of his friends and to feed his own ambition for a third term, though such a result would establish a dangerous precedent and destroy what has hitherto been considered a wise provision of the unwritten law. Let the promoters of these receptions declare as often and as loudly as they please that they are non-partisan and have nothing to do with General Grant's political aims; they must of necessity have a tendency to promote them. General Grant is as much a candidate for re-election now as he was on the eve of his second term, and it is impossible, under present conditions, to separate entirely Grant the soldier from Grant the candidate. His personal partisans know this, and chuckle over the simplicity of Democrats who are contributing to the "boom" of their hero. There is reason to believe that his "managers" arranged for his travels and, as far as they could, the honors paid him abroad, timed his return, and calculated on the advantages of the receptions to be tendered him in this country. They could not, however, have expected their opponents to fall into their trap more blindly and stupidly, for it has surpassed the predictions of those who expect from the Democrats nothing but blunders.

But there is yet a stronger objection to these displays. Criticism upon General Grant's military capacity need not be attempted just now. History will fix his position among the successful captains; and, so far as his conduct during the war is concerned, there seems nothing in it which should excite the prejudice or hostility even of an ex-Confederate soldier. There is nothing in his military career which would prevent a brave and conquered enemy from shaking him cordially by the hand and sincerely joining in a demonstration to his honor. But, unfortunately, his record was not closed at Appomattox. For eight years he was at the head of the most corrupt administration this country has ever known. He shielded peculation and many other forms of fraud in his official and household intimates after the most damaging proof of their guilt had been adduced, and in spite of the loudest public clamor for their removal. He upheld a brood of corrupt adventurers in the South, overturned legally-constituted State governments with soldiers, and sheltered the culprits from the consequences of their robberies and usurpations. Public meetings of protest were held in many cities, and several rousing gatherings were called in Louisville, denouncing his conduct as in violation of his oath and subversive of the Constitution of his country. He has done nothing since to atone for these wrongs, but to the end of his last term he persisted in rendering his administration disgraceful to his

country and odious to the better elements of his own party. Yet the same men who violently denounced his conduct then are now conspicuous and active in their efforts to do him honor.

It may well be asked if it is wise to deify such a man. Do not these superb receptions, at which over-dressed women smirk and men fawn and make fulsome addresses, tend to destroy the value of a pure and patriotic public life, and remove the odium which should attach to the debasement of our public service? The mayor of Chicago said that Grant would rank in history with Washington. The mayor of Louisville will, if possible, say something still more foolish. Indeed, most of the reception-speeches sound like a modern oriental "poem" addressed to some sublime majesty whose countenance is brighter than the sun and whose perfection is superior to that of deity. Western flunkeyism is fast rivalling that of the East, and any who may wish to see an exhibition of its most disgusting arts should be with us when our thane of Cawdor comes. C. E. S.

Louisville, Nov. 20, 1879.

NORTHERN PROVINCIAL CONCEIT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion of purely political questions we are altogether accustomed to hearing the South accused of all sorts of political and moral enormities, and spoken of as a sort of conquered province or dependency which it is the duty of the Nation—meaning the North—to admonish, correct, and generally keep in order. You have frequently commented on and rebuked this tendency in Republican speakers and writers, and I do not now seek to occupy your space to add my protest to yours, but to ask attention to another manifestation of this same tendency which indicates that the view you oppose is held by others than mere politicians.

Has not this idea that the North is the Nation taken possession of the minds of many outside the ranks of the professional political agitators? I think there are numerous evidences that it has, but have seen none more complete than is offered by a letter from Kansas City which appeared in No. 750 of the *Nation*. The object of the writer is simply to show the probable effects of Southwestern cattle-herding on the land question in England, and there is not a thing in his letter going to show that the alleged preponderance of Southern influence in Kansas City in any way affects the increase of cattle on which the predictions of the article are based; yet, under cover of describing the town mentioned, the writer manages to give a marked exhibition of the idea I am commenting on. As a matter of fact, Kansas City is distinctively a Western rather than a Southern place, and its growth, which did not fairly begin till after the war, has been almost fiercely rapid, and marked by that eager absorption of all concerned in efforts for individual gain which leaves, as is the case also in mining towns, little time or care for public comfort or outward appearances. Added to these general causes, operative to like effects in many another Western town, are the natural disadvantages of the city's site, which would make its proper grading a work from which a rich and leisurely community might shrink.

But it happens that Kansas City is just inside the line of one of the former slave States, and in this fact alone your correspondent sees the sufficient explanation of whatever does not please him. To the wonderful business energy and individual enterprise in the place he pays willing tribute, and adds, "all this is Northern"; but seeing that the place has ill-graded, pig-infested, dirty streets, untidy street-cars, few public buildings, and no public squares, he declares "all this is due to the presence of the old Southern element," which he confesses constitutes a small minority of the present population. Could the warping effects of a one-idea prejudice be more thoroughly illustrated!

But the feeling that the North, and even New England, alone, is America, crops out in articles entirely free from any political allusion. A writer in the Contributor's Club of the June *Atlantic* amusingly defends the much scoffed-at spring poet, declaring that his abused verses are but the natural outburst of joy at the ending of the bleak New-England winter. "Do you see such poetry in Southern papers? Who cares about bluebirds in Florida?" he asks; and adds, "It is the maddened crowd who have buffeted five months with the fierce blasts and snows of New England, who have found the heavens brass and the earth iron, and been tossed from the scorched fury of the national stove into the deadly gripe and glare of *the national climate*, like human shuttlecocks, who 'drop into poetry' at the whistle of the first bird, or the breath of the first south wind." Here we find that it is New England that even fixes "the national climate," and the utter unconsciousness with which the idea is let out but shows how completely it holds possession of the writer's mind.

Those of us who live in the border States see this provincial conceit manifested by both Northern and Southern people, but usually it is only the more ignorant Southerners who still affect a contempt for "Yankees," while it is the educated and cultivated Northerners, having ready access to journals like yours and such magazines as the *Atlantic*, who unconsciously exhibit a narrowness akin to that which led the plantation boaster and his "poor white" allies in the ante-bellum days really to believe, to their bloody cost, that one Southerner could "lick" five "Yankees." Surely a people whose range of vision is so great that they sing they've "seen the glory of the coming of the Lord" ought to know there is a considerable America outside New England, while that breadth of culture which is denied to us of the border States as much as to the people further South should render the minds so happy as to have enjoyed it incapable of becoming imbued—even through much contact with "magnetic" orators—with the idea that the opposing poles of right and wrong can be discovered by the aid of a mariner's compass.

W. T. Croasdale.

Wilmington, Del., November 18, 1879.

SUFFRAGE AND THE HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When I read what Mr. Parkman had to say in the *North American Review* on Woman Suffrage I was tempted to ask for space in the *Nation* for a woman's comments. The recent editorial of the *Nation* increased that wish, and the two letters in the last issue make it hard to keep silence longer.

My experience coincides with the opinion of the *Nation* that there is less interest and fewer believers in Woman Suffrage than formerly. Eight years ago I was one of six or more vehement supporters of the doctrine. We now believe in higher education, and especially the help that higher education ought to give to a reform, "thorough, radical, and complete," in the rearing of children and in fulfilling the proper functions of social life. We appreciate the rough and thankless work done by the older Woman Suffragists which has made these things possible to us. We realize, too, the seeming ingratitude of having to say that, by their intense radicalism and fervid enthusiasm, the very means of their success in overcoming the objections to higher education and to "wider and more varied fields of usefulness," they have made it impossible for us to be further guided by them.

Mrs. Thompson speaks of the women students in Michigan University as recent disciples to Woman Suffrage. They are unfortunate selections if it is intended to give thoughtful men and women confidence in the movement. Right here I would say, so entirely do I believe in co-education as tried at Ann Arbor, that I have helped to influence six girls to seek their education there rather than at any woman's college in the East. I think, however, it is true that the young women in the University are as yet in all matters of social science raw. In history, also, an essential study for any woman, but indispensable for the prospective Woman Suffragist, they have conspicuously failed, many of them avoiding that course as far as possible. Their ultra opinions are the natural consequence of minds well trained in language and mathematics, but in all else crude from limited knowledge, reflection, and experience, suddenly at large as pioneers in a new and immense field. They are at the mercy of a self-confidence holding itself able to dispose of important questions at once and for ever. In spite of this, I think it as probable that they may develop into the ideal woman as their more lovable but less thoroughly trained sisters. So far as I am aware, the professors, while generally in favor of co-education, regret the radical tendencies of some of the women students; but they are hopeful that as these students grow more used to higher education, they will be as earnest and as competent as they now are, but less self-assertive. In fact, I know that the conservative element is gaining ground in the literary department of the University.

For ten years I have studied as intelligently as I could women in home and social life. The result has led me to the same conclusion as "A. L. E."—that there is little calm, steady, earnest belief in the necessity for improvement. The woman who cautiously ventures a discussion on specific questions has to face the charge of "youth" or "eccentricity," and the question is quickly disposed of by some witticism upon "theory versus practice." I have had intimate personal knowledge of perhaps fifty young women of more than average ability and earnestness who had

planned in certain definite ways to improve their lives somewhat upon most of those which they had known. Only one of these has yet shown that she has the breadth of mind and the steadfastness of character to do this as a life-work. The tendencies given by Mr. Parkman as rendering women unfit to enter into political life are, I think, precisely the causes for these failures of women grown and women ungrown to make continued and intelligent progress in home and social life. It is not pleasant, but I am compelled to accept the analysis of our mental and moral tendencies as given by Mr. Herbert Spencer and Mr. Lecky; to accept Mr. Stubbs's "feminine quality of irresolute pertinacity," and Mr. Parkman's expressions in the same vein: but I am not yet willing to believe these characteristics are fixed and unchangeable. It is vexatious and discouraging to observe how many men clearly foretell the influence of women in politics, but are blind to the possibility that these very tendencies, though more hidden, may be preventing most of us from doing any but random, incomplete work in a sphere in which the consequences for good are practically limitless. I cannot see that wifehood and motherhood are in themselves more noble than the mere fact of being a minister or a school-teacher. They are high or low in the degree that we perform the duties intelligently, unselfishly, and successfully. I felt that it was no tribute to my womanhood when told by an intelligent man that a woman's place was "to rock the cradle."

Want of reasoning capability, impetuosity in forming judgments, "irresolute pertinacity," all these and more of our characteristics are as unlovely and as pernicious in our position as wives, in our training of children, in our social life, as they would be in politics. The step in progress that now seems practicable is to give our daughters the mental discipline and the breadth of outlook which young men get in a good college, that first they may somewhat realize the importance of their position in the development of the race, and that their training may be more adapted than was that given to us to overcome the difficulties which they will meet, however modest their attempt. E. L. S.

Indianapolis, Nov. 15, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May Wright Thompson writes, in a letter to the *Nation* of November 13th on the Woman's Suffrage question, that she "is informed that at Ann Arbor most of the lady students are believers in suffrage." She has been wrongly informed. Since reading her letter I have learned what fifty-three lady students think on this question, and the following is the result: Two will give no opinion whatever, five are undecided; fourteen are in favor of Woman's Suffrage, and thirty-two are more or less decidedly opposed. The figures speak for themselves. They represent the literary department only. But the lady students of the law and medical colleges, whatever their convictions, are greatly in the minority in numbers. Therefore I think the above figures indicate the temper of the University.—Respectfully yours,

Eliza Darling.

Michigan University, Ann Arbor, Nov. 21, 1879.

"A LITTLE BALM."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While Boston, in the person of "J.," threatens to repudiate your paper as intolerably hostile to Stalwartism, and Mississippi, through its Natchez "Subscriber," declares it to be almost intolerably Stalwart, it may be a crumb of comfort to you to learn that, at a great distance from both Boston and Natchez, there is an individual holding a more friendly view of the same publication. That man is the writer of the American section of the article "Zeitungen und Zeitschriften" in the just completed twelfth edition of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon.' Speaking of the "*Nation* (seit 1865)," etc.—excuse my copying the original, which may be less offensive to some orthodox American sensibilities, both in Boston and Natchez, than a translation might be—he characterizes it as "nicht nur das beste amerikanische, sondern eins der besten kritischen und polit. Wochenblätter der Neuzeit, und bis jetzt von keinem andern Lande erreicht." Of course that writer is outvoted by the opinions of the two Americans, who ought to know better, and who so wonderfully agree in condemning your journal; yet minorities have their rights, and convicted editors deserve the charitable application of a little balm to the wounds inflicted by impartial judgments. A. B.

New York, Nov. 21, 1879.

[Such praise from so high an authority is of course very flattering, but it would be more welcome if accompanied by an explanation of that mysterious phenomenon, our "somersault" or "fall from grace," referred to by our correspondents last week. We venture to say, with all modesty, that this deserves the investigation of the best German minds.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Houghton, Osgood & Co. announce 'The Army of Virginia,' by Gen. George H. Gordon, of which our readers have had a foretaste in the discussion of the Fitz John Porter case in these columns.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready the 'Life of Gladstone,' by George Barnett Smith.——Robert Clarke & Co. have published in pamphlet form Mr. Stanley Matthews's address at the unveiling of Ward's equestrian statue of General Thomas in Washington last week. We have also received from them a supplement for 1879 to their 'Bibliotheca Americana' (Nos. 6,888–9,171 inclusive).——The Topographic, Hypsometric, and Meteorologic Report of the Princeton Scientific Expedition has just made its appearance. It is a beautifully printed pamphlet of upwards of eighty pages, and the illustrations of natural scenery (by the Artotype process) are superior to any we recall in similar publications.——Very interesting, too, are the autographic views of scenery (generally after photographs) in the important "Report of Progress for 1877-78" of the Geological Survey of Canada (Montreal: Dawson Bros.) A series of maps accompanies the full volume.——The Fine Art Publishing Company of this city have just issued in quarto form 'The Doré Bible Gallery,' which consists of reproductions of one hundred of Doré's well-known Scriptural illustrations, each of them accompanied by an explanatory and highly eulogistic page of letter-press.——Mr. J. W. Bouton sends us the first volume of *Le Musée Artistique et Littéraire*, which is *L'Art* for the corresponding period minus the etchings, the wide margins, and the fine paper, and whatever of the text the editors chose not to select; and plus a lighter and miscellaneous text also at the editor's discretion, and which completes the distinction between *L'Art* and *Le Musée*. This experiment of cheapening the parent journal (the price is but $2 50 in paper) is a bold one, and the effect, of course, on most of the illustrations is more or less disastrous, in an artistic sense; but on the whole we believe in the wisdom and the popular advantage of it.——The *American Antiquarian* is entering upon the line of conduct which we had hoped to find pursued from the first number. The recent quarterly issue, vol. ii. No. 1, is richly freighted with reviews, correspondence, proceedings, and bibliographical material. It forms a useful epitome of the work done in the field of archæology during the past three months. The performance is marked by much ability, and an organ conducted in this special line, and which leaves the issuing of so-called original articles rather to the care of the learned societies, cannot fail to gain a large subscribing public both in this country and in Europe. Mr. Bandelier's review of the "Anales del Museo Nacional de México," abounding as it does with valuable material combined with critical investigation, will no doubt attract the attention of those readers by whom the solution of the historical problem regarding ancient Mexico is considered of higher interest than that in which her modern progeny appear to be involved. ——Parts 8 and 9 of the new edition of Stieler's Hand-Atlas (B. Westermann & Co.) embrace maps of the German Empire, Plate 4; Inner Russia, Greece and the Archipelago; Spanish Peninsula, Plate 4; Scotland; and the lands adjoining the Baltic. The most striking side-map is a fine one of Berlin and vicinity. The two naval harbors, Kiel and Wilhelmshaven, are also given on an enlarged scale.——The October number of the Paris *Polybiblion* contains the beginning of a bibliographical notice of the Luxembourg idiom and literature by Eugène Beauvois. From the same number we learn that the first volume of the Deschamps-Brunet 'Supplement to the Bookseller's Manual' has appeared, and that the whole work will shortly be completed; also that a brief inventory of the MSS. of the libraries of France whose catalogues have not been printed, has begun to be issued by M. Ulysse Robert (Paris: Picard & Champion).

—Mr. Moses King, of Harvard, who has a proved aptitude for that kind of work, has prepared a 'Hand-book of Cincinnati,' of 88 pp. 16mo, which describes the most important features of the city, and will be found very useful. The author rightly gives a special paragraph to "Sunday" in Cincinnati, in respect to the observance of which day Cincinnati is somewhat European—*i.e.*, Continental. "Smoke" ought to have another paragraph, for Cincinnati is as famous for its smoke as its Sundays. Walnut Hills should also be specially described with the other suburbs,

deservedly praised for their attractions. The Unitarian Society is lost under First Congregational Society. But the work is undoubtedly accurate, although the striking apparatus connected with the chimes of the cathedral does not strike four strokes for each quarter, but one for the first, two for the second, etc. The reader is, perhaps, likely to be misled by the description of the noted painting in the dining-room of the St. Nicholas. This picture is inscribed, "Pauline Bonaparte, by Devonge, 1811." The author says it represents Madame Bonaparte, life-size, almost nude, seated on a sofa, and is said to have belonged to Joseph Bonaparte, and was sold upon his return to France, etc. Pauline Bonaparte, the favorite sister of Napoleon, celebrated for her beauty, is Princess rather than Madame, by which title the Baltimore Bonaparte is usually designated, and she should be called Princess here unless it is intended to hint some connection of Madame Bonaparte with the figure represented, for which, however, we suppose there is no authority.

—The *American Art Review* will be published by Messrs. Estes & Lauriat, of Boston, its editor being Mr. S. R. Koehler. Mr. William C. Prime, of New York, and Mr. Charles C. Perkins, of Boston, are named as assistant editors, and a long list is added of possible contributors. The first number comes to hand bearing the date of the present month, containing 48 pages of the size of our own, but printed with larger type and a wider margin, and three full-page etchings, besides woodcuts and "process" pictures in the text. The numbers will appear monthly, at the price of a dollar each. The three etchings promised for each number ought to be worth the money. Certainly there is no reason why they should not be as good as the illustrations of the *Portfolio*, which journal, although it deserves very great credit and has earned the gratitude of all of us for its energy in pushing the art of etching into popularity among English-speaking people, is not always equal to its own requirements in the matter of pictorial illustration. The present number of the *Review* contains an original etching by Mr. Robert Swain Gifford, "The Path to the Shore," a bit of New England coast scenery; an etching by Mr. Jas. D. Smillie after that very fine picture by Mr. Charles Jacque, the property of Mr. Belmont, of which we spoke when it was shown with the Decorative Art Society's Exhibition; and, thirdly, an etched head by Mr. Rajon, from Murillo's own portrait of himself. Whatever is to be said about each of these must be deferred until another occasion, when other modern work can be compared with them. Each is interesting, and deserves regard and repays study.

—The other illustrations are not so good. They are, to be sure, illustrations of the text, and answer that purpose, even as outline diagrams "illustrate" a geometry book; but in so far as they ask admiration or respect as works of art, their claim on the reader is slight. The greater number are produced by some patent process, and of these we can best receive the purely outline memoranda of works of sculpture in Mr. Davidson's article. The ornamental head-pieces and initial letters are the least satisfactory part of the decoration, the worst of all being the "Council of the Gods, from Preller's Illustrations of the 'Odyssey,'" a senseless and impertinent design if there ever was one. For the text, it would seem that we are promised a great mass of information upon many subjects connected with art. The diligent reader of the *Review* will find himself greatly advanced in knowledge. The body-articles, present and set down for the future, are upon subjects much needing elucidation; and, at the end of each number, the Chronicles, native and foreign, and the Bibliography will give to the public the monthly posting-up that it requires. As to freshness of thought and real insight into art, and the critical spirit, and such rare excellences as those, we shall see. The first number is not to be taken as final demonstration in the case of any periodical.

—It is a little disappointing to find the December *Lippincott's* less well written than it is edited, but nevertheless the number is easily the best for some months. Two descriptive papers, excellent of their class, though of the class now grown somewhat hackneyed, are, "Among the Biscayans," by George Catlin, and the sixth chapter of Dr. Oswald's "Summerland Sketches," which latter we have always found readable; both are illustrated. "The Backwoods of Carolina," by Louise Coffin Jones, "Foreign Education for Young Republicans," and "The Impressionist School of Painting," by L. Lejeune, promise rather more than they fulfil. A paper on "Poisoning and How to Treat it," by Dr. C. W. Dulles, is worth reading and even cutting out for consultation in emergencies. The most valuable article of the number, perhaps, is a description of the system of treatment for the insane pursued at Gheel, in Belgium, which is the centre of a system of villages to each of which is assigned a certain class of disease, and where the lunatics live as unrestrainedly as sane people live elsewhere. The English "Coffee-palaces," as they are called, established by the Duke of Westminster, Mr. Gladstone, and others, to take the place of "Gin-palaces," are described entertainingly by Wirt Sikes. There are two stories: "Rose," which is a tale of English life of no particular merit or interest; and the conclusion of "Aimée," by G. H. Pierce, which treats a rather difficult problem for the story-teller very easily and gracefully. "Monsieur le Charmant" is a historical sketch of the Marquis Létorières and d'Olbreuse, by M. Mather, which is brief, entertaining, and well told.

—Mr. Stedman concludes in the December *Scribner's* his two papers on Bayard Taylor, his poetry and literary career—a critical task in which he has reconciled frankness with delicacy, and friendship with a perspective which the judgment of later times will not find greatly in need of adjustment. In "Nature and the Poets" Mr. John Burroughs both agreeably and usefully calls attention to the defective epithets and false attributions in natural history of which even some of our truest and most observant American poets have been guilty. On the other hand, the general correctness and aptness of Emerson, Lowell, and Whittier, in especial, are given their meed of praise. Mr. Burroughs's examples are mainly ornithological; but the times of budding of flowers, their colors and those of autumn leafage, the sounds of the farm, the various appearances of the sky, also come within the range of this good-humored writer. At the close he briefly turns Principal Shairp's position as to the poetic interpretation of Nature. Perhaps the most amusing article in this number is Professor Boyesen's account of two visits to Victor Hugo, whose portrait, by the way, as here cut in wood by Cole, fairly rivals, if it does not surpass, the etching from the same original from a recent number of *L'Art*. A massed collection of poems by American women—a score of them—scarcely furnishes one permanent contribution to our anthology. A woman tells in a rather inadequate sort of way of the aims and organization of the Johns Hopkins University. Mr. Smith describes the coffee culture of Brazil. An elaborate and beautifully-illustrated paper, by Mr. Montgomery Schuyler, on the new capitol at Albany, condenses skilfully the long story of mismanagement and attempt to retrieve a commonplace design which makes this building so instructive to boards of public works as well as to the profession, who receive rather caustic treatment from Mr. Schuyler. His views on the completed Assembly room and Court of Appeals room, the corridors and staircase, the mural paintings of the late W. M. Hunt, seem to us intelligent and generally discriminating; but the capitol is so far from completion that one hesitates to agree altogether or disagree with some of his eulogy. Of Mr. James's "Confidence" we are to see the end in one more instalment, so that it behooves us to say less about it than heretofore. Mr. Cable's "Grandissimes" proceeds gaily, and in the ever-increasing number of its *dramatis personæ* affords a striking contrast to the slender company who figure in "Confidence."

—The suitableness of Ireland for grazing, and the consequent likelihood of its becoming a great stock-raising country, have of late often been dwelt upon, but in the *Contemporary Review* for November the reasons for a change of this kind are given with unusual force and clearness by Mr. E. S. Robertson, who describes himself as an Irishman who has returned to the country after an absence of twenty years. His opinion is "that the soil and climate of Ireland render the country utterly unfit to maintain a considerable body of peasant proprietors," and that "natural conditions mark it out as a pastoral and cattle-breeding country—the destined home of *latifundia*. It is not merely that cattle require large spaces of pasture, but the trade in cattle requires capital. An attempt to breed or deal in cattle by a class of peasant proprietors acting singly could only end in ruin. . . . Another product for which Ireland is eminently fitted is timber. This also obviously requires spaces of land and intervals of idle capital utterly incompatible with any system of small holdings." Nevertheless the writer thinks a certain quantity of peasant freeholds should be allowed and, if need be, created by the interference of the Government, and for the reason that "the peasant farmer will never cease to believe ownership a panacea for all his ills until he shall have tried it and failed. . . . If all the holdings of fifteen acres and under (there are two hundred and eighty-five thousand of them) were turned into peasant properties to-morrow, I believe they would in thirty, or at most fifty, years be recast into large cattle farms, owned probably, for the most part, by joint-stock companies. . . . But those who might be compelled to part with their lands could no longer ascribe their ruin to the tenure by which they held. It would be made clear to them

and to all concerned that it is the laws of nature and not of England which hinder Ireland from maintaining a dense agricultural population." In the same number of the *Contemporary* Professor Max Müller writes on "Freedom" (to think and teach) and Mr. Lenormant on the Deluge; and Professor Sybel reviews critically, but favorably and agreeably, Taine's 'Old Régime.' Professor Sybel does, indeed, find that Taine is "more than just in the sentence he passes on the nobles and prelates of 1789"; the truth being "that there were doubtless among the emigrants many who won respect and regard in the regions whither their flight led them. But the great majority, by their thoughtless arrogance, mutual bickerings, and shameless frivolity, left behind them a bad reputation, whereas a hundred years before, the exiled Huguenots, by their unity, earnestness, and industry, won, wherever they went, the respect and gratitude of their new countrymen." In the *Fortnightly* Mr. Hamilton Lang, once consul in Cyprus, describes Bosnia as he saw it in August last. What struck him most was the folly of still keeping an enormous body of troops in the country, the cost of which allows but very slow progress in public works and administration. The political policy of the Austrians is to favor the Mohammedan landowners as their natural support against the Slavic tendencies of the Christian population, but the customs regulating land tenure, which forbid the owners in fee to till the soil, reserving this right to the Christian peasants, prevent any increase in general prosperity. A railway (gauge two and a half feet) has been built from the boundary of the province for one hundred and twenty miles towards Serayevo, and from there on there is now an excellent carriage road.

—Last week's performances of the Italian opera introduced nothing of particular interest. "Aïda" was repeated before a crowded house with the same brilliant success; "Faust," "Trovatore," and "Marta" were reproduced with the same casts as before. The thirty-eighth season of the New York Philharmonic Society opened on Saturday last with a particularly brilliant and interesting performance. A more numerous and appreciative audience than that which crowded the Academy of Music on that evening has not been seen at these concerts for many years. Mr. Thomas's name evidently possesses an attraction with our concert public superior to that of any conductor now living in this country; for the programme, although of sterling artistic merit, did not contain any composition which has not been heard here before. Berlioz's overture to "King Lear" is one of the earliest works of the master, and one in which he may be said to have first attempted what is now known under the name of programme-music—namely, an endeavor to represent by musical effects dramatic actions and situations, which no composer before him had ventured to do, and which after him Liszt has brought to a high degree of perfection. Mr. Rummel gave a very vigorous and artistic rendering of Tchaikoffsky's pianoforte concerto, Op. 23, with which Von Bülow, to whom it is dedicated, made us familiar some years ago. The concerto does not improve on acquaintance. It is commonplace in conception and inartistic in construction. The immense technical difficulties, which were mastered by Mr. Rummel in admirable style, are no compensation for the absence of graceful melodies and artistic instrumentation and phrasing. In the two numbers from Wagner, "Ride of the Valkyries" and "Siegfried's Death," the greatest interest of the evening was concentrated. It is impossible to speak too highly of Mr. Thomas's admirable performance of this wonderful music. With an orchestra composed of seventy-two string instruments and with most of the wind instruments doubled, he produced, with his band of over one hundred musicians, effects such as have never been heard in the Academy of Music. The "Ride of the Valkyries" is familiar to everybody; it only need be said that it was rendered with all the weird passion and fire which Wagner's highest ambition could desire. The scene from the "Götterdämmerung," "Siegfried's Death," is a composition of truly colossal dimensions. The mournful funeral measure, lamenting the death of the hero, interwoven with lovely motives, recalling earlier and happier scenes of his life, is at times almost overwhelming. There exists perhaps no composition in which every effect that can be produced by instruments invented by man is brought out with such astounding impressiveness. Will it be considered blasphemy to say that Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, which concluded the concert, sounded, as regards instrumental effects, tame and domestic after the overpowering phrases of Siegfried's funeral march?

—The production of the "Octoroon" is always a theatrical event in its way, for the play has now held the stage for a generation, and is probably the best of all the serious plays of American life and manners. The only drama with which it challenges a direct comparison is "Uncle Tom's Cabin." The difference between them, however, is the difference between a clever novel clumsily dramatized, and a real work of melodramatic art. *Salem Scudder*, *Jacob McCloskey*, *Uncle Pete*, *Wah-no-tee*, and the *Octoroon* herself are all dramatic characters representing actual types—representing them in a melodramatic way no doubt, but in a dramatic way that is interesting. The situation round which the play centres has strong dramatic points. To the generation which has grown up since the war, slavery and all its consequent social complications are so utterly non-existent that it is hard to imagine the position which a girl like *Zoe* might have had in a planter's family forty or fifty years ago. But once granted that the illegitimate daughter of a white planter might have become established in his family after his death, almost as a member of it, and yet remain under the laws a slave, and everything that follows is natural, and at the same time intensely tragical. Boucicault has, with advancing years, become terribly kind-hearted, and if he were writing the "Octoroon" now would probably make it end happily in the marriage of *Zoe* and *George Peyton*, and the discovery that *Paul* was still alive and well. But, fortunately for the play, when he did write it it was perfectly clear to him, as it must be to any one who considers what the situation is, that the death of *Zoe* was the only possible ending, and that if *Wah-no-tee's* introduction as the avenger of *Paul* were to be justified at all, it must be as the avenger of a real murder. *Wah-no-tee* the avenger is, of course, a stage Indian, though *Wah-no-tee* the inebriate, as he appears in the early part of the play, is an Indian from real life. Taken altogether, the *Octoroon* is a thoroughly well-constructed play. There is no drag in the action; the plot is developed necessarily by the characters out of the situation in which they are placed; the tragedy and the humor are not thrown in pell-mell, but are closely connected throughout, so that there is no harsh incongruity between them which jars upon the feelings, and *Zoe's* story is worked out with a coherence and continuity that is masterly. It is a pity that Boucicault's passion for sensational effect should have misled him into making the identification of the murderer of *Paul* turn upon such an impossible piece of clap-trap as the accidental photographing of the murderer's face. Everybody, for his sins, is to a certain extent an expert in photography, and to attempt to persuade an ordinarily intelligent audience that a recognizable image of a man engaged in the extremely active and rapid operation of murdering a boy and rifling a mail-bag would be reproduced on the slide of a casually-exposed camera, is to rely too much on their credulity. It would be curious, by the way, to trace through the long list of Boucicault's plays the gradual growth of his reliance on sensational mechanical or scientific effects, from the time when he wrote "London Assurance" to his present electro-locomotive-drawbridge method, as shown, for instance, in such a play as "Rescued." In the "Octoroon" there is no necessity whatever for the camera business. It is injected into the play apparently for the purpose of trying the effect. The means by which the murderer is identified are of no sort of importance. The company which is now playing the "Octoroon" at Haverly's Theatre do their work fairly well. Mr. Gotthold does *Salem Scudder*, a part which used to be acted by Joseph Jefferson; Mr. L. R. Stockwell is a capital *Uncle Pete;* Mr. Losee a good villain, better at the bowie-knife, however, than dramatic dialogue; while Mr. Duffield brings out the strong points of *Wah-no-tee* very well. Miss Elmore's *Zoe* is good as far as it goes, but she has hardly tragic force enough for the part. The slaves are done by a troupe of real negroes, which we think is a mistaken sacrifice to realism; that the corked Caucasian is, for theatrical purposes, a far better negro than the African, seems to us hardly to admit of a doubt.

—The "Yorke Prize" was founded by a bequest of Edmund Yorke, a Fellow of Cambridge, and is offered annually for an essay on some subject relating to "the Law of Property, its Principles and History in various Ages and Countries." The first topic assigned was "The History of the Law of Primogeniture in England, and its Effects upon Landed Property." On this topic the prize was awarded last year to two essays, pronounced to be of equal merit, which are now published in book-form, under the title 'Two Essays on the Law of Primogeniture.' They may also be had separate. The first essay, by Mr. C. S. Kenny, contains 71 pages; the second, by Mr. Perceval M. Laurence, 156 pages. Both essays are scholarly and well written, and the subject is wide enough to admit of independent treatment from two different points of view, neither of which interferes materially with the other; yet it is surprising how little they repeat each other. Both essays are at once historical and legal, and at the same time deal with the practical question of the present day; neither of them can be fairly said to neglect either of these points of view. Nevertheless the special merit of Mr. Kenny's essay is in its

thorough treatment of the history of primogeniture; it is an almost complete history of the law of real property, especially in the Norman and early Plantagenet period. Mr. Laurence begins his historical sketch even earlier, in the primitive Aryan institutions; this is, however, the least satisfactory part of his essay, the weightiest portion of which is in the history of the law of entail and connected subjects. In regard to the present problem neither essayist takes a position so hostile to the law as Mr. Brodrick in the Cobden Club essays. Mr. Laurence, indeed, has been led by his studies to a conclusion at variance with the ideas with which he began his investigation, and does not favor any immediate change in the law; while Mr. Kenny proposes some modifications rather than its abolition outright. Mr. Kenny's essay has a full table of contents, Mr. Laurence's an index. We see announced a new treatise by Mr. Kenny—"History of the Law of England as to the Effects of Marriage on Property"—but cannot say whether it is another "Yorke Prize."

CHARLES LEVER.*

ALTHOUGH it is only a few years since Lever died, his popularity as a novelist had been at the time so long waning that his death had not the effect, as in the case of Thackeray and Dickens, of bringing to an abrupt termination a brilliant career; but rather of reviving for a brief time a reputation already almost extinct. And yet there was a time when instalments of a new novel by the author of 'Harry Lorrequer' were almost as eagerly awaited as those of the authors of 'Vanity Fair' or 'Oliver Twist,' and there was never a period during his long literary activity when Lever's ready wit and fertile imagination were not equal to the task of producing fiction far more deserving of attention than nine-tenths of the successful novels of the present time. And after he had had his day as a novel-writer he still continued to be a popular contributor to the periodical press, and as long as he lived he wrote, and wrote well. Nevertheless it must be admitted at the outset, in any consideration of Lever's literary career, that he belongs to a completely bygone period, and that his reputation, whatever may become of it in the future, is almost as completely dead for the time as if he had never written a line. The explanation of this fact is, we take it, a double one. Within the past twenty-five or thirty years English fiction has taken on itself an introspective hue, and the taste of readers of fiction is all for analysis of character and motive, while the taste of the period immediately preceding was entirely for the display of character and motive in action. It is difficult to imagine an introspective novel-reading public caring much for the earlier romantic method, or *vice versa*. It was absolutely necessary for Lever and James, and all the literary descendants, imitators, and remote kin of Sir Walter Scott, to pass away before such fiction as that of George Eliot could gain an audience; and introspection once given its way romance has become impossible. In connecting the name of Lever with that of James we do not mean to compare them, nor in tracing a literary connection between both of them and Scott do we mean that the connection is anything more than a very remote one; but there was a connection, as there is a connection between all these and even Continental novelists of the romantic school such as Dumas. They all write about life from the outside, and all tell stories in which romantic adventure plays a principal part. It is surprising to think to how late a date this was the only recognized system of novel-writing. Thackeray first made it ridiculous in his 'Prize Novelists,' and it is interesting to find that Mr. Fitzpatrick attributes the marked change of method in Lever's later novels to the effect upon his mind of Thackeray's ridicule of his earlier style. But there is another reason for the decay in Lever's popularity than a mere change of fashion. The novels by which he gained his reputation had very little thought or reflection behind them, while his later ones, which certainly had these merits, lacked the strength of narrative and the flow of animal spirits which made the earlier stories successful. Of course a writer of stories of action and adventure will put into them just as much experience and observation as he possesses; but Lever, when he began to write, knew very little about life except that it was a very pleasant thing, and when he had really found out what it was he had ceased to be able to write novels.

There is a certain amount of satisfaction to be derived from an examination of a career like Lever's from the fact that it is so easy to understand. There is no sort of mystery or secret about the style of the man. There are no "problems" of any kind connected with or suggested by him. He told stories because he was a born story-teller; his heroes were Irish, because he was himself an Irishman and intensely fond of his country; he plunged them in desperate adventure, because he liked adventure himself. If they loved wine, woman, and song, it was because Lever did so too with his whole heart. He was apt to be in straits for money because he had, as he complained of himself, no head for thrift, and to attempt to save caused him more anxiety and trouble of mind as well as expense, to judge by his own account of the matter as quoted by his biographer, than even the unpleasant results of recklessness. He was fond of society, and got as much of it as he could; of travelling, and travelled whenever he could; of whist, and played whenever he could. He was brave and generous, fond of his friends, convivial, changeable in purpose, and consequently always lived the life of to-day without much thought of the morrow. In fact, as is very apparent from Mr. Fitzpatrick's 'Life,' the character, tastes, and mind of Lever could be easily reconstructed from one or two well-known characters in his books, if all other record of him were to be totally lost.

Mr. Fitzpatrick's book is very badly put together; it is, in fact, an ill-arranged collection of all the information he could obtain as to the novelist's life, hung upon the thread of a very halting narrative of his own. Nevertheless we have found a great deal that is interesting and amusing in it, particularly the account of Lever's early education and youth. The Levers were an English family, whose first appearance in Ireland appears to date from the Cromwellian invasion. Charles Lever's father, James, however, was himself of English birth, and from Mr. Fitzpatrick's account it seems that Lever's Irish blood came from the maternal side. He was born in 1809 in Dublin, when Dublin was part of an antique social world which has long since wholly ceased to exist. The Union had only been effected a few years before, and the fierce passions which had divided the country on that question still survived; the enmity between Orangemen and Catholics was a part of the atmosphere of the place; popular feelings found vent sometimes in street ballads, such as "Lilliburlero" and "Shan Van Voght," and sometimes in riots. Quiet, order, and prosperity there was none; every young Irishman was born a soldier of fortune. Lever's lines—

> "For 'tis the capital of the finest nation,
> Wid charming peasantry upon a fruitful sod;
> Fighting like divils for conciliation,
> And hating each other for the love of God"—

are no bad description of the Dublin and Ireland of Lever's childhood. Of the social influences by which Lever was surrounded early in life we do not get a very clear idea, but his father was a well-to-do builder, or architect, who evidently made a point of giving his children advantages which he had not had himself. Lever was early sent to school, where he received his share of the instruction and flogging that was administered. It may be worth suggesting to sociologists and reformers, by the way, that one reason why the men of the early part of this century seem to have got so much more enjoyment out of life, to have had so much higher animal spirits than their descendants of the present generation, may have been that their education was such a hard one, and the repression exercised by parents so severe, that the reaction on being admitted to the full rights and privileges of men lasted for the remainder of their lives, and colored their whole existence with what Mr. Mallock would call "prismatic hues." Certainly our enjoyment of life is not so keen as our great-grandfathers' was, and we are flogged far less. A great many of the amusements of the young men of that period point in the same direction. There was no greater pleasure known among high-spirited and well-bred young men of Lever's early days in Dublin than the sport of beating a watchman; but it is difficult to understand what satisfaction this can have afforded, except that of a violent and ostentatious assertion of independence from all authority, made delicious by the remembrance of a long state of infantile servitude. Whether this explanation is sound or not, there can be no doubt of the fact that Lever arrived at man's estate with a fund of animal spirits which displayed itself first in practical jokes, and later in such rollicking tales as 'Charles O'Malley' and 'Harry Lorrequer,' and his songs, full of a true Irish humor, are just as amusing to-day as when they were written. The reader will find in Mr. Fitzpatrick's pages a very detailed account of his student-life at Göttingen, of his return to Dublin and professional practice there, and of his subsequent wanderings, and constant literary activity. We have not space to do more than call attention to one or two of the more interesting parts of Mr. Fitzpatrick's volume, which have not attracted the notice they deserve owing to the extraordinarily unattractive manner in which the book is put together.

One of the oddest things in Lever's life is the account of his visit to this country. It is difficult to make out which part of it is pure legend and which is fact. That he came here we are willing to admit, and even that he met a man who told him that he felt sure he was an Irishman,

* 'The Life of Charles Lever. By W. J. Fitzpatrick, LL D., M.R.I.A.' New York: Harper & Brothers (Franklin Square Library). 1879.

because all the Irish were "such damned ugly men"; but that he was habitually treated with such rudeness that he finally determined that life with an Indian tribe would be preferable to the barbarism of American society and accordingly joined the Red Men, this is, we confess, more than we can quite believe, as are also his subsequent Indian adventures and final escape to civilization. It is impossible to read this story without suspecting that, as he grew older, Lever's habit of story-telling got the better of his memory, and that he sometimes himself became confused between what had actually happened to him and what he imagined might, under given circumstances, have occurred. The most interesting part of the book is "Major D.'s" account of Thackeray's visit to Lever in Ireland. This is really a valuable picture of both men, and throws a curious light on Thackeray's manners and habits of thought. Mr. Fitzpatrick gives in great detail the history of the later years of Lever's life, passed almost altogether on the Continent, and most of this is worth reading for one reason or another. It is a career over which it would be easy to moralize. Why is it that the men who after all have done most to contribute to the amusement of the world—the great race of English novelists of this century—have spent, whenever we come to examine their careers closely, such anxious and care-worn lives? Some have been thrifty and some unthrifty, some have led active, some quiet lives; but the careers of nearly all the greater ones have been full of unhappiness. In Lever's case the explanation is simple enough; but what is not so simple is to see how, if he were to write the novels he did write, he could have been a man in the least different from the man he was. This is not a literary question. It is a riddle for educators and moralists which we must leave to them to solve. For ourselves, we confess a warm sympathy for Lever, whether in his gay and careless youth or in the anxious and harassed years of his later life. His child-like naturalness and simplicity, his honest love of everything noble and generous, please us in his character, just as his imagination and wit please us in his books. Throughout his long life they seem fortunately never to have failed him.

The Life and Epoch of Alexander Hamilton. A Historical Study. By the Honorable George Shea, Chief-Justice of the Marine Court. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.)—This book, as the author informs us in his introduction, "had its first step in a monograph on Hamilton as an historical study." It was "the prosperity of that first step" which induced him to undertake "an elaborate exposition" of Hamilton's "early and least known years, and of the great epoch to which he belongs." The volume, therefore, only brings the life down to 1777, the year in which Hamilton was appointed aide-de-camp to Washington. The author, however, does not despair of being able to continue his work. He says: "I purpose, but do not promise, to continue my work, so that it shall ultimately include every incident and phase of his memoirs in their private, professional, and public aspects." The volume is divided into nine chapters, of which the first three are introductory, and the remainder historical and biographical. The introductory chapters are rather designed to excite an interest in readers "who are not acquainted with the epoch and the man," and in them have been collected by the author "some of the testimonies of the most celebrated of his [Hamilton's] contemporaries, in America and in Europe, to the creative faculties of his mind and to the grandeur and permanence of his labors." We had feared, in noticing the author's judicial position, that his legal training and professional habits might have disqualified him for biography. He himself hints that the book was written in a brief period of relaxation from public duties which must be arduous. But his style shows nothing of the judicial pedant; it is as easy and fluent as if Mr. Shea had never cited an authority or charged a jury, and it is, moreover, an original style, a style which cannot be passed by without notice. It is, indeed, the most original thing in the book, and as such deserves our attention first. The chief peculiarity of Chief-Justice Shea's method of writing English is that he has a profound belief in the value of words as words. Everybody knows, of course, the value of words as representatives of ideas, but it is only now and then that a writer recognizes the inherent power of words themselves and avails himself of it. Judge Shea is master of this secret, and many of his most telling sentences and paragraphs appear to have been constructed mainly with a view to their verbal effect upon the ear. To give two or three examples: "The United States of America became and are, by natural induction, a Republic: constituted by the States in empire." "The fasces of Roman symbolism has, at last, found in statesmanship the truth of which it is the emblem" (p. 15). "As the single drop of pure dew resembles its crystallized similitude, the diamond, so did the clear intellect of Hamilton resemble that of Talleyrand. The one, full of life and lustrous; the other, fixed and brilliant" (p. 30). "Annotation also assists us to the sense of the text, as intelligible gesticulation explains the meaning and spirit of the orator" (p. ix.) We need not multiply instances of the freshness and vivacity of Mr. Shea's style; to appreciate it fully it is necessary to read several pages of it consecutively.

Apart from the style, Judge Shea's book is not a very notable addition to the biographies of Hamilton. It does not contain much that cannot be found elsewhere; indeed, it is doubtful whether the most industrious research into the early years of Hamilton's life will be repaid by any new discoveries of facts or of materials for forming a judgment of his character. Judge Shea tells the story of his boyhood and youth with great detail, and gives us the benefit of a good many reflections by the way. These are generally of a somewhat commonplace character, though they are expressed in a manner that is the reverse of commonplace. As an instance we may refer to the following passage:

"It is not always edifying to attempt an estimation of the comparative degrees of culpability: yet there are often evolved thereby significant essentials which give light and shade to the truer understanding of human character. There is certainly an obvious distinction between hypocrisy and a gross sin—it is a difference not favorable to hypocrisy and guile. There is a distinction between the insidious allurements of seduction and the indulgence of impurity; and the difference is not favorable to the first named. It is pernicious to believe that 'vice itself loses half its evil by losing all its grossness.' There is no sense in which it can be true in fact or in morals" (pp. 406, 407).

Taken apart from the context, the casual reader might say of these reflections that they were true but trite. When we find, however, that they are introduced in reference to the comparative morality of Burr and Hamilton in their relations with women, we see at a glance that they are such as few men would have thought of making. The same thing may be said of a good many other observations of the author. It is his opinion that "the social and political history of those times which preceded, and by a series of evolving events developed, the revolutionary spirit which brought about the separation of the American Colonies from the crown of England has, in its controversial literary phases, yet to be written." It is a pity that Judge Shea could not undertake this. His biographical task and his judicial duties probably make it idle to hope that he will ever do so, yet we cannot help suggesting that before he goes on with the biography proper a prefatory volume tracing the development of the evolving events here referred to ought to be written. A thoroughly judicial account of it might be even better than having it presented in its controversial literary phases.

Gleanings from the Natural History of the Ancients. By the Rev. W. Houghton, M.A., F.L.S. Illustrated. (New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin.)—It is a pleasant thing to open a book by a Christian divine and to find it dedicated to Sir John Lubbock, and concluding with these words: "Among many great men who, at different ages, have directed their minds to zoölogical questions, especial mention may be made of Aristotle, Cuvier, and Darwin, of whom the greatest is Darwin." It is equally pleasant, on glancing over various parts of a book of two hundred and fifty very small pages, to discover that it contains as much varied and interesting information as many a learned and pretentious quarto volume; and pleasanter still to find, after perusing it, that not a single one of its pages ought to have been skipped over, and that most of them fully deserve to be read a second and third time. After saying so much, we almost hesitate to add that the little work is, perhaps, equally interesting to children and ripe naturalists, to friends of classical literature and students of Biblical, Assyrian, and Egyptian antiquities. But let the 'Gleanings' of Mr. Houghton, the aged author of the 'Country Walks of a Naturalist with his Children,' of 'The Ages of Christendom,' etc., speak for itself; one or two extracts may suffice, though it is hard to make a choice:

"The Ostrich was hunted by the Egyptians for the sake of its plumes, which were highly prized for ornamental purposes, and also because an ostrich's feather had a religious signification: it was an emblem of truth, and is occasionally represented as placed in the scales of Justice, being weighed against the actions of a departed soul in the presence of Osiris. . . . The ostrich was well known to the Jews, and is often mentioned in the Bible. The character of cruelty is attached to this bird in the Book of Job and in the Lamentations: 'The daughter of my people has become like the ostriches in the wilderness.' In Job xxxix. 13 our translation is in fault; the verse should be rendered thus: 'The wing of the ostrich moveth joyously, but has she the plume and feather of the stork?' Here the ostrich is instanced as the very opposite in character to the stork,

which was proverbially celebrated for its affection to its young. . . . Stupidity and want of affection have long been attributed to the ostrich by the Orientals. The Arabs have a proverb, 'Stupid as an ostrich,' and they give the following reasons for their belief: The ostrich will swallow iron and stones. When the bird is hunted it thrusts its head into a bush, and imagines that the hunter does not see it. It neglects its eggs. It has a small head and few brains. . . . The character of cruelty attributed to the ostrich is accounted for in this way: The ostrich is polygamous; the nest, which is a hole scratched in the sand, is filled promiscuously by several hens; the eggs are then covered over about a foot deep and left to the heat of the sun, which in the daytime acts as an incubator. . . . Figures of the ostrich occur on the Assyrian monuments, upon cylinders and utensils. There is no mistake about the bird denoted, though the drawings are grotesque; indeed, the Assyrian artists are far from happy in their delineation of bird-life generally."

"Pigeons.—The domestication of the pigeon dates from very early times. The prophet Isaiah apparently alludes to these birds when he asks: 'Who are these that fly as a cloud, and as the doves to their windows?' (lx. 8). In Egypt their domestication goes back, it is said, as far as 3000 B.C., and even before that time the pigeon appears in a bill of fare. The Egyptians used the pigeon as a carrier, as appears from a coronation scene of the time of Rameses III. . . . The Romans, in the time of Varro, bred enormous numbers of pigeons, as many as 5,000 sometimes occupying a single dove-cote, which was called by the Greek name *περιστεροτροφεῖον*, and was lofty and large. . . . Besides this tame breed, there was another, called *agreste* or *saxatile*, which was wild, or partly so. This breed dwelt in high places, and flew about at will; its color was checkered (*varius*), and there was no admixture of white. The tame kind (*clementius*) was generally of a white color, which was always preferred. These two breeds crossed. What is this wild or half-wild pigeon of which Varro speaks? He must, I think, refer to the Rock-pigeon, the *Columba livia*, the undoubted parent of all the various domesticated breeds, notwithstanding he says that it has no white (*sine albo*); . . . the Roman writer must have forgotten the small patch of white on the back. . . . At the present time letters are fastened under the wing of the carrier-pigeon, when the bird is required to act as a messenger. The Romans tied them to the feet. During the siege of Mutina (the modern Modena) Decimus Brutus, who was shut up in the town, held a communication with the consuls by means of letters fastened to pigeons' feet. . . . The pigeon was employed also as a messenger in affairs over which Cupid rather than Mars presided. We find Anacreon thus making use of the bird as early as B.C. 500."

And the author devotes no less attention to the ox than to the ostrich, to the pig than to the pigeon. The illustrations, taken from Assyrian and Egyptian monuments, are well selected and well executed. All we find to blame in the work is an occasional looseness in historical statements and in the spelling of Oriental words. This statement, for instance, "We do not read of elephants being employed in war before the time of Pyrrhus, who in B.C. 280 made use of these animals in the war with Tarentum against the Romans" (p. 180), would be correct only if limited to the use of war-elephants in Europe—which it is not; for elephants were thus employed, and in large numbers, by Porus against Alexander of Macedon, half a century before Pyrrhus's Italian campaign. Nor is it quite correct to say that the Accadians, from "their highland and wooded home of Elam, . . . migrated southwards down into the Mesopotamian plains," and there considered the horse as come "from the 'East'—that is to say, from Media and Armenia" (p. 89); for Elam was east of the Mesopotamian plains, and Media and Armenia were north-east and north of them. Of course, the Accadians may have thought only of Media, and that of its southern parts, in thinking of the east; but this explanation is wanting. "*Ôchîm*," "*akh*" as the singular of the preceding (p. 167), and "*dukîphath*" (p. 207) are badly-conflicting Hebrew words, and the second is incorrect in itself; they ought to be spelled *ô'hîm, ôa'h, dúkhîphath;* or, if the German *ch* be admissible, *ôchîm, ôach, dûchîphath.*

A Pocket Classical Dictionary, for ready reference. By Frederick G. Ireland. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879. 12mo, pp. 144.)—The very small size of this book is a sufficient indication that all that can be justly required of it is a judicious selection from the materials which usually go to make up a classical dictionary. Smith's 'Classical Dictionary,' published under the supervision of Dr. Anthon by the Harpers in 1851, itself an abridgment, contains 950 large, double-columned octavo pages. It is clear that we must make very moderate demands upon a little book of 144 pages, three inches by five. There is no indication of the plan upon which the author has made his selection, and hence the book must be judged upon general principles. The title, 'Classical Dictionary,' conveys to the mind of the classical scholar the notion of a book containing information as to the mythology, chronology, history, and geography of the ancient Greeks and Romans, and incidentally of the peoples with whom they had relations, arranged in alphabetical order under the names of persons, peoples, and places. The proper orthography and pronunciation of the names are also important requisites. Opening at the first page of this little book, we find, among other names, the name of a town, and the name of a river, and on page 3 the name of a promontory. These are properly spelled, the pronunciation is sufficiently indicated for those who understand the rules of Latin accentuation, and as much information is given as could reasonably be expected. The purchaser of the book would, on using it, probably be a little disappointed at finding that for other geographical names than these three he must have recourse to some other work. The names of peoples are also omitted, though the names of a few of the barbarous tribes whom Cæsar subdued are inserted, while others, apparently equally entitled to mention, are excluded.

Under the title *Musæ* the names of the nine Muses are given, but any one looking for *Calliope, Terpsichore*, and the rest in their alphabetical place will not find them. Under *Mœræ* the names of the Fates are given. *Parcæ*, their Latin name, is given in its alphabetical place with the proper cross-reference to *Mœræ*. *Lachesis*, the name of one of them, is given in its alphabetical place, but with no cross-reference; while *Clotho* and *Atropos*, who are mentioned much more frequently than *Lachesis* in classical authors, have no separate articles. The names of the Graces are given under *Charites*, but neither their individual names nor their Latin name, *Gratiæ*, which frequently occurs (*e.g.* Hor. Od. I. iv. 6), are inserted in alphabetical order. These different ways of treating titles which apparently require one uniform method seem to indicate the absence of a fixed plan. The death of Plato is placed in 434 B.C., five years before he was born. He died in 348. The death of the younger Cyrus at the battle of Cunaxa is stated to have occurred 41 B.C. It should be 401. This is, no doubt, a printer's mistake, but it is the misfortune of the authors and publishers of books the value of which depends almost entirely upon their accuracy, that such mistakes are almost unavoidable and quite inexcusable.

The book, however, as a rule is accurate, is handy to have lying on the table, and would often be consulted when the inclination or the time might be lacking to refer to a more unwieldy volume. Its convenience and cheapness constitute its chief claims to favor, and to most students these claims are not small.

The Human Species. By A. de Quatrefages, Professor of Anthropology in the Museum of Natural History, Paris. (12mo, pp. 498. The International Scientific Series, vol. xxvii. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.)—The venerable author of this book has been an active worker in science for nearly half a century. He is a good representative of the elder school of *general naturalists*, whose knowledge is well-nigh encyclopædic in its kind, and who are therefore often esteemed better fitted for discussion of the broader scientific questions than are some of their younger successors, whose monographic devotion to special lines of research may sometimes limit their views to the exclusively botanical, or zoölogical, or geological standpoint. Hence it is not a little comforting for the present generation to witness the occasional radical disagreement of these scientific Nestors upon so vital a matter as the Origin of Species in general, and the Origin, Nature, and Antiquity of Man in particular.

Our author accepts as proved Darwin's propositions as to the Struggle for Existence and Natural Selection, but rejects his conclusions as to the mode of origin of organized beings. He admits the possibility that man may even have existed in Secondary times with the oldest mammals, but limits the post-glacial epoch to one hundred thousand years, and thinks modern computers "have begun to handle time with a strange laxity." He cheerfully assents to the statement that "from an anatomical point of view there is less difference between man and the superior order of apes than between the latter and the inferior orders," but ignores the extraordinary embryological resemblances which perhaps form the most potent weapon of the evolutionist. He ascribes to animals a degree of consciousness and a language—albeit interjectional—but enumerates as essentially human peculiarities, 1, the perception of moral good and evil; 2, the belief in superior beings; 3, the belief in a future life. He regards man as a single species, and favors the idea that his cradle was somewhere north of the Himalayas, but insists upon observation and experiment as the sole foundations of knowledge, and rejects all ecclesiastical tradition and authority. Indeed, like Agassiz, our author is liable to be called a sceptic by some and a bigot by others; but he seems to be not only prepared for this double condemnation, but even full of kindly consideration for his opponents. His cordial admiration for Agassiz and Darwin notwithstanding his objections to their opinions, is in pleasing contrast with the flippant abuse of the former by the author of the recently-published 'Evolution of Man.'

The language is usually clear and forcible, and there are many passages worth quoting. The author compares species to the *unit*, of which races are *fractions*. The "Yankees" are defended (p. 235) from the vague charge of physical degeneracy, and slavery is denounced (p. 86) as "an institution detestable indeed, but the results of which have been favorable to anthropology." The English will be interested by his idea that the Zulus are a mixture of negroes and Arabs, and all civilized nations may well stand abashed at his comparisons between savage morality and our own. Speaking (p. 350) of the fallacy of regarding certain features as evidences of degradation, he says: "If the Chinese and Egyptians had judged our ancestors as we too frequently judge foreign races, they would have found many signs of inferiority in them, commencing with the white skin, of which we are so proud."

On the other hand, one is almost ludicrously impressed by the repetition—on pages 368 and 369—of a very trivial statement respecting the Hottentot Venus, and any attempt to use the work with a view to the formation of an independent judgment is hindered by the total absence of exact references. The lack of an index is discreditable to both author and publishers, but the latter alone are probably to be held accountable for the non-intimation as to the date of the original work of which the present is a translation. The reader is allowed to infer that the present volume is of recent date, but had this been the case there would certainly have been references to publications such as the Reports of the Peabody Museum of Archæology by the Curator, the late Prof. Jeffries Wyman. The general appearance of the volume is good, but what sort of proof-reading can it be which passes over such words as *fossail*, Tanton (for Taunton), Witney (for Whitney), Wittlesey (for Whittlesey), Vrolick (for Vrolik), Daubenson (for Daubenton), Tiddemann (for Tiedemann), and Eskimas ?

Meditations in the Tea-Room. By M. P. (London : Pickering & Co. 1879.)—This is a little volume of some one hundred and fifty small pages, printed with the quaint attractiveness of text and marginal decoration familiar in the works of the Chiswick press. There is in this instance an entire conformity between the contents and their dress. The "meditations" quite suggest Lamb, although they are modern in both thought and statement, so as to be wholly free from the reproach of affectation, and they deal with politics in the main. They are well worth reading, and the sympathetic reader of them will probably have a comfortable sense of the fitness of their publication in such anonymous and unpretentious shape, instead of in the form of current discussion which the prominent English reviews now furnish. The "tea-room" is, of course, that of the Houses of Parliament ; and whoever "M. P." may be, he is evidently a person of mature experience, besides having the gift of humor and the art of expression. The character of his book is best explained, perhaps, by an extract or two, since it has no distinct drift, and is only a number of shrewd observations, each highly polished, strung upon the string of general satire. They are naturally of varied excellence, but we select quite at random :

"The greatest good to the greatest number imposes on the majority so severe a discipline that they are content to take less than their share.

"A civilized nation will not be respected of barbarians by reason of its civility alone.

"Honesty is disgusting to many men of fine feeling, because it is represented as a good investment.

"Respect is only an accidental liking for those whose interests are in conflict with our own.

"When we have all read and practised the theories of Mr. Mill and his followers we may, perhaps, be a very worthy people, and, like all of that class, play but a small part in the world.

"Whether the diadem of these realms fell among the gorse on the field of Bosworth, or whether we are to understand, as we look on the emblems of kingly power, that the thorns sprang up and choked it, you may—for you will—decide according to your prejudices.

"I suppose it was in the woods, where they had observed the good effects of having now a fine day and then a wet one, that our ancestors conceived the happy idea of governing by party.

"What most recommends party government is that it enables us to slander our rulers without sedition and overthrow them without treason."

We suspect the author of a lack of sympathy with what is known as liberalism in politics, and are bound to acknowledge that some of his apothegms, as well as some of his elaborate argumentation—examples of which we have no space for—are fantastic, not to say whimsical ; but for literary finish and flavor, as well as for a certain insight that only irony of the first-class can secure, we have met with nothing of the kind recently that equalled these "meditations." The book is manifestly not for him who runs, but its title gives fair warning to the impulsive and impatient who dread desultory reflections in which it is impossible to find syllogisms and credos.

Yellow Fever a Nautical Disease. By John Gamgee. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 207.)—When the "horrid hair" of comets or the mysterious dispensation of Providence was responsible for sickness and pestilence such supernatural causes necessarily carried epidemics out of human control; but with the study of the natural history of disease hygiene is becoming a domestic art and preventive medicine is elevated into an affair of state. Just now yellow fever, a disease whose literature is overwhelming and whose occasional interest for the public is excessive, especially engages our philanthropists and sanitarians, and the latest accession to the great flood of narration and argument is an essay in popular style by Professor John Gamgee. This sets forth that the disease is essentially nautical, generated in the tropical Atlantic; that it can exist nowhere on land except as freshly imported from infected shipping; and that its suppression is certain by disinfecting the contaminated ships with very cold air specially applied, and by excluding all old and rotten vessels from the fever zone.

Common and deadly as it is in certain regions, the general interest in yellow fever follows from its causes and its limitations not being clearly understood, and the voluminousness of its record is due to the succession of observers, to most of whom it is novel and alarming. Its history is chiefly a long discussion as to origin and propagation, whose decision is yet *sub judice*, and upon it is engrafted the vexed question of quarantine. The pendulum of opinion just now is swinging towards belief in the exotic character of the disease, although a respectable minority acknowledges its possible domestic origin; the whole question being complicated and trammelled by hypothetical views of germs, and by the natural unwillingness of communities to confess that their own homes may give rise to such a pestilence. A certain interpretation of the germ theory, which has secured so firm a hold on both the scientific and popular mind, compels every case of specific disease to have a genealogical dependence upon another like it, and this requires all American epidemics of yellow fever to radiate from a foreign centre.

The author is a well-known comparative pathologist, whose investigations into the epidemic diseases of domestic cattle have been of great public service in Great Britain and the United States, and his recent studies have been upon the antiseptic property of extreme cold. Enthusiastic and confident as he is, he probably has not solved the whole problem of yellow fever; but as it is a well-known fact that the extension of the disease is incompatible with very low temperature, it follows that if, as he proposes, infected localities should be thus refrigerated the disease will cease to spread there. The possibility of effectual artificial refrigeration of infected places remains to be demonstrated. But cleanliness as a preventive is more important than cold as a destroyer, for the presence of yellow fever implies sanitary filth, without which there will be no epidemic.

Legends of the Saxon Saints. By Aubrey de Vere. (London : C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1879.)—Aubrey de Vere, the devout Catholic poet, is well known in this country to lovers of refined and graceful verse. His latest work, in which he records the touching and noble legends of the early Saxon Church, is mainly marked by fervor and elevation of religious feeling, so far as its character is indebted to the personal qualities of the poet, to whose spirit and powers, indeed, the period he has chosen to illustrate is well fitted. His subject is that seventh century in which England became Christian, and the names of her heroes and martyrs were first inscribed on the illustrious roll of English saints, a century as glorious to England, he thinks, by virtue of its aspirations and sanctities, as the thirteenth was to mediæval Europe. He has borrowed the principal motive of his poem from the old legend that Mithradates, fleeing northward from the insulting advance of Roman dominion, became that Odin in whose worship and laws were moulded the fierce races which wrecked imperial, and made way for Christian, Rome ; in their creed of mingled heroism and horror he discovers a prophecy, of which the conversion of these races is the fulfilment, so that by becoming Christians Odin's kings, earls, and thanes seem to be only carrying on to its purified conclusion the truth of Odin. Subject to this controlling idea, he takes his narrative of the fortune and reverses of the Christ in England from Bede's history, which, as he reminds us, Cardinal Manning has compared to the exquisite *Fioretti* of St. Francis as an illustration of an age. He has thus woven a versified legendary history, enlightened by his own ardent devotion and adorned by his poetic thought, fancy, and allusion, which, as poetry, it

is true, is sometimes injured by merely historical statement, but is, nevertheless, a noble portrayal of conversion, battle, and martyrdom, of saintly and heroic living. The landing of St. Augustine, the consecration of Westminster Abbey, the story of Oswald, of Oswy, and of Ceadmon, the Pentecost of St. Cuthbert, and Bede's Last May, are all pleasant reading, but they do not submit easily to extract. Here is one short passage describing how the Thames looked the morning of the consecration of Westminster :

"Old Thames that day
Brightened with banners of a thousand boats
Winnowed by winds flower-scented. Countless hands
Tossed on the brimming river chaplets wov'n
On mead or hill, or branches lopped in woods
With fruit-bloom red, or white with clustering cone,
Changing clear stream to garden. Mile on mile
Now song was heard, now bugle horn that died
Gradual 'mid sedge and reed. Alone the swan
High on the western waters kept aloof:
Remote she eyed the scene with neck thrown back,
Her ancient calm preferring, and her haunt
Crystalline still. Alone the Julian tower
Far down the eastern stream, though tap'stries waved
From every window, every roof o'erswarmed
With anthem-echoing throngs, maintained, unmoved,
Roman and stoic, her Cæsarean pride;
On Saxon feasts she fixed a cold, grey gaze;
'Mid Christian hymns heard but the old acclaim,
'Consul Romanus.'"

Such sincere and deep piety as this volume evinces is rarely found in our verse to-day; the poet, standing thus alone, seems to feel discontent and to harbor gloom with regard to the work of his fellows in the art, and speaks of "that professed poetry of a materialistic age when the poet is tempted to take refuge from the monotony of routine life, either amid the sensational accidents to be found in the byways, not the highways, of life, or in some sickly dreamland that does not dare to deal with life, and belongs neither to the real nor to the ideal." In this he only re-echoes what others far removed from him in spirit have said—George Sand, for example—and the truth in it is to be laid to heart. But, while disagreeing with his reasons, we join in his regret. This record he has transcribed of high deeds and emotions, told with grace, sympathy, and reverence, is a very welcome gift.

Götzendienst und Zauberwesen bei den alten Hebräern und den benachbarten Völkern. Von Dr. Paul Scholz, o. Professor an der Universität zu Breslau. (Ratisbon. 1877. 8vo, pp. x. and 482.)—This is a systematized collection of Biblico-archæological treatises on idolatry and sorcery among Hebrews, Phœnicians, Syrians, Babylonians, Assyrians, Egyptians, etc. In regard to everything Scriptural connected with these topics, in their widest extension, it may be said to be exhaustive ; and it is brought up to the latest level of archæological research in Eastern fields. The erudition displayed in it is such as is only attained by devoting a great many years to the study of a single subject. All the stores of information available for the purpose, classical, patristic, rabbinical, or critical, down to the last number of the *Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, have been ransacked by the author with an almost prodigious assiduity. The mass of references is perfectly overwhelming, and, we may say, distracting, since the names of authors and titles of books, abridged and unabridged, and chapters and pages mingle with Hebrew, Greek, Assyrian, Egyptian, and other ancient words of strange spelling and strange meaning, forming mazes through which only the trained eye of the specialist can find its way. And only to specialists can we recommend the book, not only on account of the difficulty of penetrating through its intricacies, but chiefly on account of its peculiar character as a critical guide. A history it hardly pretends to be, and its critical decisions are in numberless cases the *dicta* of an orthodox conservatism carried to the last extreme. This is sufficiently shown in the preface, in which the theory is established that monotheism preceded polytheism and fetishism in the history of mankind, and idolatry arose from the abandonment or corruption of pure and divinely-revealed religion. This view is, in the first chapter, proved to be the correct one by a large number of quotations, beginning with one from the Book of Wisdom, which "assures us" (*versichert*) that "from the beginning there were no idols." The other proofs are equally strong. The defection from the true God, we are told, must have preceded not only the building of the tower of Babel, but even the deluge, "since of the seven commandments established, according to Jewish tradition, for the time of Noah, the first refers to abstention from idolatry." The often-debated question, "whether Abraham, before receiving his call, was an idolater or not," is, with equal conclusiveness, decided in the negative, as far as his life in Chaldea is concerned, by a reference to the Book of Judith ("5, 7, *seq.*"—we do not doubt the correctness of the reference); while Nehemiah (9, 7, *seq.*) favors a similar decision in regard to the patriarch's life in Mesopotamia, for we read that God, after bringing him out of Ur of the Chaldees, found his heart faithful before him. About the reappearance of Samuel to Saul, before the battle of Gilboa, Dr. Scholz quotes a number of opinions, the upshot of which is that it is safest to consider the affair at Endor as having begun in a trick of the witch and ended in a divine miracle—the apparition of an angel or another image personifying the deceased prophet. Such personages, however, as Abraham, Samuel, and angels play an unimportant part in the book, which is in the main devoted to the worst abominations of Semitic and Hamitic antiquity, to idols and worships equally shocking. The accounts are given with minuteness and fidelity, and nothing monstrous is covered with a veil. Bull-worship is treated in fifteen pages ; Moloch, in sixteen ; Baal-Melkart, in twenty ; the West-Semitic Baal, in twenty-two ; Astarte, in forty-two. And the pages are both long and crammed with learning.

The Amateur Poacher. (Boston : Roberts Bros. 1879. Pp. 240.)—This adds a third to the delightful volumes of R. J., and, like the two previous ones, first appeared in instalments in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. To any lover of sport, or one interested in just and accurate descriptions of the details of natural scenery given by one fully in sympathy with them, the book will not soon grow wearisome, and it is free from that minuteness of recital which made its predecessor, 'Wild Life in a Southern Country,' somewhat disappointing. The author begins by telling of his first experience in shooting, with an old gun, an heirloom in his family, a single barrel, "long, slender, and light as a feather," with "a groove on the barrel at the breech and for some inches up, which caught the eye and guided the glance to the sight at the muzzle and thence to the bird.' With this weapon he succeeded in hitting a wood-pigeon, but further sport that day was brought to an end through the untimely breaking of the ramrod. The first victim was, however, soon followed by others, and then comes a chapter or two on fishing, principally of wiring and shooting, by both which methods he was quite successful, especially with jack. One way of killing these fish which is practised in this country he does not mention, namely, by striking a heavy blow on the clear ice directly over the spot where they lie against its lower surface in sunny winter days. The great clearness with which R. J. writes, and the graceful transitions he makes from the pursuit of a hare or stalking of a pheasant to some charming description of a path he is following, the trees and plants growing beside it, or some trait or habit of the animal or bird shortly to be slain, are delightful and frequently recurring features of the book. It is pleasing to note the author's neglect to avail himself of the chance for sentimentalism and nonsense his topics afford. There is no affectation of a pity the sportsman never feels for the game he has fairly killed, no "marvellous effects" of clouds and sunshine and "blues and yellows and greens," but a straightforward, simple way of saying what is to be said in a manner which shows a true love of sport and nature, with a keen eye and discriminating taste for what is beautiful, and a thorough knowledge of just how to describe it. It is hard to make selections from such uniform goodness, and we can only heartily commend the whole book to every one who sympathizes with the writer in his last paragraph :

"Let us get out of these indoor, narrow modern days, whose twelve hours somehow have become shortened, into the sunlight and the pure wind. A something that the ancients called divine can be found and felt there still."

Studying Art Abroad, and How to Do it Cheaply. By May Alcott Nieriker. (Boston : Roberts Brothers. 1879.)—This little book has no preface, but its intent is declared on the first page as being "to report the actual cost of living, instruction, and rent of studio abroad ; and how one in search of such can most easily and economically obtain them." To a certain extent it does all this ; but only to a certain extent, so that the reader feels that the useful hints scattered through these pages fail of being a safe guide to life abroad, because they are so few, so disconnected, and so accidental. The book is written in the most careless fashion, like the private letters of a correspondent not over-vain of her epistolary style. But on pages 47, 48, and thereafter what is said about Paris studios is good, and calculated to set an enquiring pupil in the right direction, and the information contained in the volume is summed up in a list of teachers, *pensions*, and dress-makers likely to suffice for all the needs of a new arrival. Evidently it is the woman-student that the writer has in mind, and the title ought to say so.

A slight attempt is made to call attention to useful and easy trips out of the great cities ; but that sort of guidance might be carried to any extent, and it is perhaps to be regretted that in this little volume there is

given to a mere hint at the subject space which was much needed for the positive information about student life and study which it is the avowed object of the book to convey. One difficulty in the way of absolutely free art-study by women our author alludes to more than once—apparently with astonishment that it should exist: "It was found to be an impossibility that women should paint from the living nude models of both sexes, side by side with Frenchmen. This is a sad conclusion to arrive at." Substitute *young men* for Frenchmen, and *inevitable* for "sad," and we should agree with Mrs. Nieriker. The attempt has not the excuse of necessity to justify partly its indecency.

History of France. By Charlotte M. Yonge. [Freeman's Historical Course for Schools.] (New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 247.)—"Good wine needs no bush," and a history of France written by Miss Yonge and edited by Mr. Freeman has all the guarantees possible for accuracy and interest. We need only add that it is at once considerably thicker and in finer type than most of the other volumes of the series, so that we may no doubt pronounce it to be what has so long been desired—a readable short history of France. Except, however, for the necessity of making it correspond in outward appearance with its fellows, one would have wished to have it in two volumes, so as to allow larger print. The maps, twelve in number, representing France at that number of different epochs, are very valuable; but these too are on too small a scale. It is very hard to make out the boundaries, which are given in fine dots instead of colored lines; in the map of 1811, for example, one would not guess that the French Empire extended to the Baltic. The responsibility of the renewal of the war between France and England after the Peace of Brétigny must, we suppose, be divided between the two parties; and it is hardly fair to throw all the blame upon Charles V. of France, on the ground that he offered a gratuitous insult to the Black Prince "by sending him a challenge by the hands of a scullion" (p. 61). It ought to be mentioned that this was a fit response to the outrage committed by Edward some months before in seizing two envoys of the King of France and throwing them into prison. Again, it is unworthy of a modern historian to gloss over the cruelties of the Albigensian crusade by representing these people as utterly immoral (p. 33). No doubt they were so represented by their enemies, and no doubt there were bad men among them; but there is no reason to believe that their lives were worse than those of their persecutors. Wattenbach says of them that "their life was free from reproach, and exemplary"; and at any rate, however bad they may have been, it was not for their wickedness but for their heresy that they were exterminated. On what authority is Franklin called a Quaker? (p. 163).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
American Art Review, Vol. I., No. 1, swd.	(Estes & Lauriat) $1 00
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Farragut (L.), Life of David Glasgow Farragut.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Fausset (Rev. A. R.), The Englishman's Critical and Expository Bible Cyclopædia.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 4, 1879.

The Week.

THE opening proceedings in Congress fully justify what we have said below as to the unlikelihood that either party will touch the currency problem this winter beyond, perhaps, stopping the coinage of silver. In the House Mr. Price introduced a resolution declaring that in the opinion of the House no change should be made in the currency laws at the present session of Congress; Mr. Fort, a less sweeping one, declaring that any attempt to withdraw the legal-tenders or change their status at the present session of Congress would be injudicious and mischievous. Mr. Carpenter was to introduce one in the Senate on Wednesday declaring that any legislation during the present session of Congress changing the existing system of finance would be inexpedient. There appears to be a disposition on both sides to get rid of the legal-tender quality of the United States notes, but neither party is willing to take the responsibility of it, and each hopes that the Supreme Court will settle the matter by a decision in the Chittenden-Butler case. It is said, but we trust not correctly, that Attorney-General Devens will not have this pushed forward in the calendar, fearing that Chittenden's victory would injure the party. In fact, it is more and more plain that, although the Congress of the United States sits every year, it is only the two middle years of every Presidential term which are available for rational legislation. The year after the Presidential election is given up to distributing offices, and satisfying claims, and avenging wrongs; the year before to getting rid of all questions which are likely to embarrass the party in the campaign.

The President's Message takes very strong and clear ground on all the important topics of the day. He urges Congress to refrain from new legislation on the general subject of the coinage, pending the proposition for unity of action between the United States and the principal commercial nations of the world with regard to the relative value of gold and silver, but also to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to stop coining silver in order to prevent the expulsion of gold from circulation, which he anticipates as the result of unlimited coinage of the former. He says $45,000,000 of silver have been already coined, but only $12,700,344 of this is now in circulation—in other words, about the amount of the postal currency which has been withdrawn. He also recommends with much earnestness the retirement from circulation of the United States notes as "the policy and duty of the Government, and the interest and security of the people," and expresses his "firm conviction that the issue of legal-tender paper-money based wholly on the authority and credit of the Government, except in extreme emergency, is without warrant in the Constitution and a violation of sound financial principles"; and he declares that "the circulation of these notes for any protracted period after the purpose for which they were issued [the rescue of the country from imminent peril] had been accomplished was not contemplated by the framers of the law under which they were issued." He denounces the Mormon practice of polygamy; refers to the judgment of the Supreme Court affirming the constitutionality of the Prohibitory Act of 1862, and urges its firm and effective execution, but he offers no suggestion as to the means of meeting the difficulty of procuring evidence of polygamy when both parties to the offence are willing agents, though he recommends the deprivation or refusal of the rights of citizenship as a penalty of disobedience to the law. He draws attention to the proof afforded by the late State elections, and the discussions preceding them, of the deep interest felt in the more general and "complete establishment, at whatever cost, of universal security and freedom in the exercise of the elective franchise." He appeals to good citizens of whatever party all over the country to unite in compelling obedience to existing laws aimed at the protection of the right of suffrage, and urges Congress to remedy any defects in existing laws which experience has shown and which it is within its power to remedy, and for "this great purpose he invokes the co-operation of the executive and legislative authorities of the States."

He devotes more space, however, to civil-service reform than to any other one topic, and, in reading his clear and cogent reiteration of the arguments in its favor, one cannot help regretting that he should only have returned to the subject at the opening of the last year of his term of office, when both parties are occupied above all things with the election of his successor, and that there should have been so many things in his own practice which the opponents of the reform can cite in order to bring his exposition into ridicule and contempt. He announces the early production of a report by the Chairman of the Civil-Service Commission, giving the results of British experience in dealing with this problem; repeats his old objections to "the partisan-spoils system" of appointment to office and of office tenure; points out the distinction between the participation in party agitation of Cabinet officers, who must go out of office with the party to which they belong, and that of subordinate officers who ought not to do so; defends and explains the system of competitive examinations, and gives a sketch of the history of its working, and also of the history of the "Civil-Service Commission," for which body he again requests an appropriation. He makes remarks on the devotion to electioneering work by officers of the Government of time for which they are paid for devoting to the public service, which the illustrious Dutcher must read either with amusement or surprise, and about which probably no human power would induce Secretary Sherman to express his opinion, and, in passing from the subject, fires a parting shot at the odious and disgraceful income-tax levied on the unfortunate office-holders under the name of an "assessment" or "voluntary contribution." The remainder of the Message describes briefly the state of our relations with foreign countries, and gives the salient points of the reports of the heads of Departments.

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury has nothing in it that will attract much attention beyond his recommendation that greenbacks be deprived of their legal-tender quality, and then that $300,000,000 of them, redeemable in coin on demand, be kept constantly afloat. This is really a proposal that the United States should go into the banking business permanently under the superintendence of the majority in Congress for the time being. What this means, or would mean, we hardly need to point out after the experience of the past fifteen years. Every session would witness attempts to increase the issue in order to "meet the wants of trade," or to supplant the national banks; or proposals to suspend redemption in specie as unnecessary, or to suspend it practically by appropriating the gold in the Treasury for some other purpose. In fact, we should, were Mr. Sherman's suggestion adopted, enter on an indefinite period of wild-cat finance. We cannot help believing that so shrewd a man as Mr. Sherman sees all this very well, and that his scheme is simply a tub thrown to the whale. He knows that nothing will be done about the greenbacks this winter at all, and he therefore throws out this suggestion as something which will keep him on a good footing both with those who wish to see the greenbacks all destroyed, and those who wish to keep them all afloat. It is a kind of *via media*, in fact, in the construction of which he is a master. All speculation as to what Congress will do about the currency this winter is, we need hardly say, idle. Both parties are manœuvring for position in the Presidential canvass, and neither will commit itself to any affirmative policy or do anything beyond trying to get its opponent "on record" in some

damaging or disgraceful way. If the mode of counting the electoral vote is properly prepared we may be thankful. Neither party will attempt anything that looks like contraction, and the Democrats are quite capable of pretending to desire inflation, but without doing anything to bring it about.

The specie imports were again large during the week, and the total since the resumption of specie payments is now nearly $78,000,000, of which nearly $72,000,000 have arrived within the last four months. The market for exchange on London still rules in favor of gold imports, although the rate for sixty-day bills was advanced one-half during the week. The New York money market continues easy, and the banks have advanced their surplus reserve to about $7,250,000. The event of the week, so far as the Stock Exchange is concerned, was the sale by private negotiation of 250,000 shares (par value, $25,000,000) of New York Central and Hudson Stock. The seller was Mr. Wm. H. Vanderbilt, and the buyers were a syndicate of bankers represented by Messrs. J. S. Morgan & Co., of London, and Messrs. Drexel, Morgan & Co., of New York. The members of the syndicate include a half-dozen of the leading foreign bankers, and the managers and chief owners of the Wabash system of railroads, to wit: Cyrus W. Field, Jay Gould, ex-Governor E. D. Morgan and his partner, Solon Humphreys, Russell Sage, and Sidney Dillon. The price paid for the stock was 120 per cent., and the payments are to be made in monthly instalments, the first of $5,000,000 having been made on Friday, the 29th of October. The members of the syndicate have entrusted the right to sell the stock to a joint committee in London and New York for one year, so that no individual member of the syndicate can control his share of the total holdings of the syndicate for that time, at least. The first effect of the authorized announcement of the transaction was a rapid advance in the price of the stocks of all the companies represented in the transaction. This was of short duration, and was followed by a decline as great as the advance. The President's Message and the Secretary of the Treasury's Report had considerable effect on the Stock Exchange markets on account of their recommendations respecting the legal-tender notes. Silver declined in London to 53*d.* per ounce, presumably because Congress has been urged by the Executive to discontinue the coinage of 412½-grain silver dollars. The bullion value of this dollar at the close was 88¾ cents.

The New York Central sale has been widely and variously commented upon, and Mr. Vanderbilt has been "interviewed" with great assiduity. For once Mr. Vanderbilt has shown a disposition to take the public into his confidence, telling the Froudes and Macaulays of the press that he was moved by the double purpose of dividing with others the brunt of legislative attacks upon the Central Railway, and of giving to the public everything they could justly demand. The former is an intelligible reason; but it is difficult to see how the public are benefited by the fact that Mr. Vanderbilt owns fewer shares of Central than he did last week, and Mr. Field, Mr. Sage, and Mr. Morgan own more. The rational explanation of the matter is that the parties to the contract believed there was money to be made out of it. The "Street" refuses to take any other view of it, and the "Street" is undoubtedly right. Whether the money is to be made by turning the traffic of the Wabash system of roads into the New York Central's channel, or by selling the syndicate's stock at an advance in London, or otherwise, is of interest to speculators and to the shareholders of rival railroads, but is immaterial to others.

The Organ is very angry because the *Nation* said that he "produced the story of the sale of the New York Central stock in a very positive form on the very day of the panic, and after the panic acknowledged it to be untrue." Unhappily, what the *Nation* said was strictly correct. On the 21st of November, the very morning of the panic, the Organ announced that "the most sensational stock transaction of the season *is the sale* of twenty millions of New York Central by William H. Vanderbilt, at 120, to a syndicate composed," etc. On the 22d, the day after the panic, when "the lambs" had been shorn, he declared "that it is now understood that there is an obstacle in the way of the completion of the arrangements for the sale of twenty millions of New York Central stock by Mr. Vanderbilt." In other words, he acknowledged that the sale had not taken place. We believe both statements were honestly made, and that their discrepancy was easily explicable, but, when first made, appearances were against him, as his enemies were not slow to point out. We invited him to make a little explanation of the facts, like a gentleman, before we knew that the sale had positively taken place. Instead of doing this, he fell into a senile fury (against which his doctors must have often warned him), and began to curse and call names. It is probable, however, that he forgot on the 22d what he had said on the 21st, and now forgets what he said on both days, through a not uncommon infirmity of old age. We therefore do not blame him, but we think he ought to have his proofs revised by a younger man, and try to get more sleep. His increasing irritability since the Scratchers attacked him in his "bark" and wet him with his own "reform" spray, is not surprising, but it is a bad symp om. If he cannot control himself, the State Committee will have to give him a Coadjutor, as the church does the aged and infirm bishops.

Secretary Schurz's report takes a cheering view of the Indian question. Of the 252,000 Indians in the United States there has never, at any time since the pacification of the Sioux, been any but an insignificant fraction engaged in hostilities. Less than a thousand are now making trouble—some 800 Utes in Colorado and 150 marauders in New Mexico. As a rule, we have peaceable conduct, and that, in a very large majority of Indian reservations, without the restraint of any coercing force. Mr. Schurz also remarks that of the four disturbances which have occurred during the past two years three broke out in the immediate presence of the military. He declares the policy of his department to be to set the uncivilized Indians to work as farmers or herders, and render them self-supporting; to educate the young in civilized notions; to allot parcels of land to Indians in severalty, making the fee inalienable for a term of years; afterwards to dispose, with their consent, of the unsettled portion of their reservations, using the proceeds as a fund to relieve the Government of the burden of annual appropriations; and finally to merge the Indian in the common citizen. He makes a very interesting showing of the numerous employments in which the Indians already show industrial and mechanical aptitude, dwelling with special satisfaction on the complete success of the experiment of letting them carry the supplies to the Sioux agencies of Southern Dakota: the service was never so well and faithfully performed. Nearly a thousand more children of the uncivilized Indians are at school this year than last—7,193 in all; and not only are some being educated at Hampton, Va., but the disused barracks at Carlisle, Pa., have, by permission of the Secretary of War, been converted into a school, which begins with an attendance of 158. Mr. Schurz points out the necessity of making the law more stringent in regard to the sale of arms and ammunition to the tribes. He thinks the Utes had no ground for their outbreak. The Poncas, from personal inspection during the recess, he knows to be better located and housed than they were in their old home on the Missouri, and he regards as mischievous the attempt to obtain a judicial decision as to their rights.

General Woodford, greatly to his honor, has gone down to Louisiana, and has been making the best Stalwart speeches we have yet read to crowds of Democrats in New Orleans. He has been neither mobbed, insulted, nor interrupted, but has been cordially received and listened to with attention, and he has given them what even Mr. Conkling would admit to be the pure milk of the word. That he should have gone alone, reflects great discredit on the old "bloody-shirt" men of the party, and gives an air of plausibility to the story that they have discouraged each other from going to the South, lest their being peaceably received should destroy some of

the oratorical material they are keeping in store for the next canvass at the North.

The Atlanta (Ga.) *Constitution* has a shameless story purporting to give the returns from the Controller-General's Office in that State, showing the amount of property now held by negroes. The valuation of all taxable property has fallen off $1,000,000, but the returns, this lying rebel sheet says, show that the property of negroes has gone up to $5,182,398 this year, from $5,124,875 last year, which means, it says, that, taking the depreciation into account, it has increased about $100,000. They have added, too, 39,309 acres of land to their holdings within the year, making a total of 341,199 acres owned by negroes in the State. In order to give a plausible air to this audacious invention, the editor adds that, as there are only four negroes in the State worth more than $10,000, his figures show a considerable distribution of property among the colored race. As we have the authority of the Secretary of the Treasury and of more than one Senator for the statement that the negroes pass a large part of their time "hiding in the swamps," and otherwise eluding white murderers and robbers, there is something almost disgusting in these attempts to persuade us that they are acquiring farms and saving money. What gives a darker hue to the tale is, that it is evidently intended to be spread through the winter for political effect, when the writer well knows that what the country needs for real peace and prosperity is circumstantial accounts of the murders which he and his friends are daily committing.

The *Herald* improved the opportunity of Thanksgiving Day to publish some graphic statistics, compiled as a chart by Mr. Edward Atkinson, showing the comparative areas of the several States and Territories, and of the European states, Russia excepted; showing also the relative areas occupied by the nine crops, cotton, corn, wheat, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, potatoes, and hay. The obvious lesson of these lines and figures is that we ought to be thankful for Texas, which not only reckons more square miles than the Austrian Empire, or the German, France, Spain, etc., but could grow, at the rate of a bale to an acre, the world's supply of cotton on less than a tenth of its cultivable soil, which is equal in extent to the total area under cultivation for the crops above enumerated. Less than three thousand square miles (2,825) were in 1878–9 devoted by Texas to the growth of cotton, and produced nearly a million of bales (950,000) of 480 pounds each. Mr. Atkinson was led to gather these facts, which are much more striking to the eye than when simply related, and to group them about a single State, by the erroneous idea which some Englishmen have formed of the condition of our territory on learning that the Government has parted with almost the entire public domain. This was taken to be equivalent to settlement and cultivation up to the ordinary capacity of the land, and an exhibit of the resources of Texas in particular seemed a ready and striking way of proving the contrary.

There was a report in the early part of last week, which excited some sensation, that the priests in New England had been directed by the bishops to refuse the sacraments to the parents of children attending the common schools, and that this action of the bishops was taken under instructions from Rome. It now appears that no directions have been given to the priests, and that no such instructions have been received from Rome. It seemed very unlikely in view of the fact that the Pope had disapproved of the violent proceedings of the Belgian bishops in this matter. The policy of the Church in this country will probably continue to be what it has been both here and in France—to fight hard for money from the state for the support of sectarian schools; to take what it can get in default of getting what it wants; to put the public schools under ecclesiastical control wherever this is possible; to set up parochial schools wherever the money can be raised for the purpose; and where none of these things can be done to make the best of the schools as they are, all the while warning parents of their danger to faith and morals. But it is quite certain that no severe strain on ecclesiastical authority will be attempted as a general policy, though zealots like Father Scully may here and there be guilty of excesses.

The Genevans, in their first attempts to deal with Ultramontane aggression after the Council of the Vatican, undertook, like the Germans, to encourage or take under protection of the state, as it were, the Old-Catholics. In fact, they went further than Bismarck a good deal, for they made the Old-Catholic Church a state church. The excitement of the conflict has since then greatly diminished, and it has become plainer every day that Old-Catholicism was not worth state patronage. In 1878 the Radicals, who founded the connection, lost their majority in the Grand Council, though they retained it in the Council of State. In the elections which have just taken place the Democrats, or Liberals, as they are called, have carried the Council of State also, and their policy is embodied in the formula that the state must be "neutral and lay, as it is, for example, in the United States." Hereafter, therefore, the government of the Canton will take no part whatever in ecclesiastical quarrels, but confine itself to seeing that neither party encroaches on the rights of the state.

The rumors of an approaching ministerial crisis in France continue to grow stronger. The Government has been compelled to offend the Extreme Left by the measures of repression adopted against the returned Communists who resumed their old trade of agitation, and by its refusal to remove judges suspected of royalist or reactionary sympathies and opinions. The result is that the Left has drawn up a programme, which it intends to submit to the Ministry for adoption, which includes, according to the cable, liberty of meeting and association and of the press, and gratuitous and compulsory education. This programme the Ministry, of course, cannot adopt without giving free rein to the Communists and rousing the country against them. The matter will probably have been debated before this reaches our readers. If the Ministry fails to receive a vote of confidence the succession falls inevitably to Gambetta.

The relations between England and Turkey are reported to be easier—that is, the Turks have made a concession by appointing Baker Pasha commander of the 60,000 gendarmerie who are to begin the reform in Asia Minor. The selection of Baker, on the demand of the British Minister, for such a mission is, considering the circumstances under which he was dismissed from the British service, one of the oddest incidents of the Beaconsfield policy in the East. The Government at Constantinople seems to be steadily falling to pieces, and it is not at all unlikely that before long the British Minister may find the actual administration of Asia Minor on his hands, through Baker's corps. The world is still wondering over the reticence of the Premier at the Lord Mayor's dinner, and the latest explanation of it is that he did not wish to furnish ammunition to Mr. Gladstone, who is now stumping vigorously in Midlothian, in what promises to be the fiercest electoral conflict which has been witnessed in Great Britain for many a day. He is attacking a great Tory magnate, the Duke of Buccleuch, in his stronghold.

There is a story from Russia that the Czar is about to announce the formation of an advisory council, partly elected and partly nominated by the Crown, but without any legislative power. This move is said to be due to the Tzesarevitch, who has hitherto been set down as a violent Old Russian and Conservative. If the report be true of another attempt on the Czar's life, it is questionable whether his nerves will not be too much shaken to carry out any scheme of reform even as mild as this one. The *Golos*, the ablest and most prominent of the Russian newspapers, has been suspended for five months, but the nature of its offence is not stated. The rumors of trouble with Germany are dying out, owing, probably, to the determination of the two Emperors—especially the Kaiser, who, on this point, is well known to be divided from his Chancellor—to keep up the *entente cordiale*.

THE NEW YORK PRIMARY AS DESCRIBED BY A "WORKER."

IT has been for many years a constant subject of reproach against the more respectable and intelligent voters of this city, and especially those of the Republican party, that they would not attend primary meetings, and by their presence and influence bring about the choice of pure and upright delegates to the conventions. The respectable and intelligent defended themselves for a while by saying that it was no use, that when they reached "the primary" they invariably found it "fixed" or "controlled" by persons who made attendance on primaries and preparation for primaries the principal work of their lives, and who treated them as non-professional intruders—very much as the doctors would treat laymen who tried to take part in the discussions of the Medical Association, though of course with much less courtesy. Of late years they have ceased to defend themselves at all. When you ask one of the respectable and intelligent, nowadays, why he does not attend primaries in this city, he feels at once that you are joking, and answers you with a smile.

One of the severest critics of those who refused to avail themselves of the primaries was Mr. George Bliss, the late United States District Attorney, and always an active and skilful politician. Writing in the *Nation* of Sept. 7, 1876, in reply to some enquiries of ours on this subject, he was very emphatic in expressing his sense of the value and purity of primaries, and gave us to understand in caustic terms that attendance on them would cure us and others of the habit of "grumbling" about politics. Said he:

"Since I have had any influence in such matters, I have attended no primary at which there was even an accusation of unfair dealing. In the district in which I reside, which is the only one in which I ever attended a primary, I have procured the adoption of a practice which does away with all secret or close caucuses. Every member of the association is invited to every caucus, and can make himself heard.

"No Republican has, to my knowledge, ever been refused admission to the association. From the indefiniteness of your word 'fixing,' I can only meet it by repeating that neither in primary, caucus, nor convention have I ever been concerned in anything which prevented, or was intended to prevent, the fair expression of the views and wishes of all. I have usually had my own candidates and my own opinions, and have urged the one and expressed the other freely. Sometimes I have succeeded and sometimes I have been beaten. When overruled I have concluded I was wrong, for, not being the editor of a weekly reform newspaper, I have never claimed omniscience. I may add I do not believe that Republican caucuses or primaries or conventions in this city are often 'fixed,' if by that you mean the prevention of the fair expression of opinion."

In the number of Sept. 14, 1876, he further testified that there had up to that time been few, if any, cases of abuse in the working of the primaries. The associations were not "close corporations," he said, but formed as large a proportion of the total Republican voters of the city as those who take part in the organization in any other part of the State. No persons desirous of joining the organizations were excluded; and, finally, the associations were not controlled by office-holders.

We were much surprised, though much edified, after this by a long letter from Mr. Bliss, dated November 12, 1879, addressed to General Arthur, the chairman of the Republican State Committee, and published in all the city newspapers, giving the writer's experience as to the present working of the New York primary. He says that the present plan of Republican organization in the city was adopted (some time in 1871) on the report of Mr. Jackson S. Schultz and Mr. William Orton, and the prediction was made in Mr. Orton's presence, and concurred in by him, that "the usefulness of the organization therein established would last not more than ten years, for the reason that everything degenerates in New York, and nothing so fast as a political organization"; so that Mr. Bliss's attention was called at the very outset to the weakness of man's nature in this particular field of activity. The theory of the organization is very simple. Twenty-four district associations, composed of enrolled Republicans living in the district, meet at the proper times and elect delegates to the nominating conventions, after the kind of deliberation described by Mr. Bliss in the passage we have quoted above from his letter in the *Nation*. The actual situation is depicted by Mr. Bliss in his recent letter to General Arthur. The rolls of the associations contain 13,335 names, representing the 50,000 Republican voters of the city. This would be a small representation even if honest. But, alas! it is not honest. Mr. Bliss says that of the 13,335 names nearly half are those of dead men, of men who have removed, and of men who have turned Democrats. "Not 6,000," he says, "should be there." The rolls, too, are full of the names of "avowed Democrats—names or men used by the managers to perpetuate their control of the associations." "Desirable members, good Republicans, are excluded." "Sometimes this is done by direct rejection, but oftener by a refusal to act upon names presented by hanging them up in a committee which never reports." Against these proceedings there lies an appeal, it is true, to the Central Committee; but this Committee, Mr. Bliss says, "is sure *not* to act against the 'henchmen.'" He gives other details, equally flagrant, of the tricks resorted to to keep the respectable and intelligent away from the meetings. One is to refuse to show the roll of members; another is to "drop" persons whom the "henchmen" do not like; another is to expel them on frivolous charges; another is to send them notice of the meeting by postal card about two hours before the hour named, and then admit no one who cannot show the card. A constant remark of the "henchmen," when any one opposes them at an election, is: "What's the use of his fighting? We've got the inspectors." It seems, too, that these hardened villains "know full well that they commit all sorts of frauds."

Mr. Bliss confesses that "this is a dark picture of the Republican organization of this city, and that it goes far to sustain those who assert that we have a machine, and not an organization." Indeed, it is hard to see how it could be darker. What is a body containing 6,000 names—mostly or largely those of rascals, "committing all sorts of frauds" and managed by "henchmen"—and professing to represent or control 50,000 votes, if not a machine?

But the saddest part of Mr. Bliss's letter is that in which he says "that he has tried in vain, in his weak way, to bring about that 'reform from within' which he believes to be essential to the usefulness or long continuance of the organization," but that "he has accomplished little except to receive the sneers and slurs of those who glory in fraud because they profit by it, and whose approval is a disgrace to any honorable man." We confess that Mr. Bliss is much dearer to us in this character of a soured, disappointed, and grumbling reformer, sneered at and slurred by the shrewd and wicked, than he was in the halcyon days of 1876, when, according to his own account, the primaries were the seats of purity and integrity, when "every member was invited to every caucus, and could make himself heard"; when "no Republican was refused admission to an association," and when "nothing occurred to prevent, and nothing was intended to prevent, the fair expression of the views and wishes of all." There is only one thing needed in his present miserable situation to secure him the undivided sympathy of all good men, and that is an explanation of the circumstance that the predicted degeneration of the organization did not show itself at all between 1871 and 1876, and has advanced with such terrible rapidity in the last three years. By what process was the serpent kept out of the Eden in the former period, and by what lapse of vigilance has he been allowed to enter in and set "the henchmen" to work in the latter period? Moreover, though Mr. Bliss uses the word "henchmen" freely, he forgets apparently that it is a relative term, and that a henchman must have a chief. Now, whose "henchmen" are they whom he has been manfully fighting on our behalf? They can hardly be Senator Conkling's; for in his caustic letter in the *Nation*, heretofore referred to, he expressed much admiration for that statesman, and intimated that he needed no henchmen, and stood high above all his critics, present and to come.

Mr. Bliss's fate has a moral which we earnestly commend to the

attention of Independent Republicans. He does not himself draw it, and apparently knows of no remedy for the state of things he describes but an appeal to General Arthur, who, it appears, is "the Strong Man" of the occasion. "A word" from this potent personage would, according to Mr. Bliss, purify all the associations and "consign to deserved retirement some men who have brought disgrace on the Republican party." This means of redress may suit persons like Mr. Bliss, whose nature retains the childlike simplicity of their earlier years. Most men in this city who are really interested in good government, and think it means something more than a frequent distribution of offices, are more hardened and sceptical than he, and cannot be persuaded when they are cheated at a primary to go, like him, and weep in General Arthur's bosom over the depravity of "the henchmen." They have discovered a better, manlier, and far more efficacious remedy. The time which would be wasted at the primaries in doing the work of a detective—that is, discovering and circumventing the tricks of a gang of scoundrels—can be far better spent in creating and maintaining an organization which will watch what the conventions do, and give the men whom the primaries send up fair warning that they must not carry their little games to the polls, and that the election of "henchmen" to public offices will not be permitted. In no way can the primaries be reformed so effectively as this, as far as the mere action of the voters is concerned. To put a complete stop to the abuses which Mr. Bliss exposes one thing more is necessary, and the mere mention of it makes Mr. Bliss's plan of an appeal to General Arthur seem a little ludicrous: we mean the exclusion of officeholders from active political management, and the release of officeholders, either as regards getting or retaining places in the public service, from dependence on party tests or party activity. Most of the six thousand tricksters who evolve "the people's will" for the Republican party in this city would probably no more devote themselves "to fixing primaries" than to carrying on the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor, if they did not expect thereby either to earn office for themselves or their friends, or to make sure of keeping offices they already hold. Do away with this expectation and fear, and they would be governed by the same motives as other men of their class and choose the same kind of pursuits. If they were out of the way—that is, if political work did not involve associating with them and making a study of their criminal practices—there would be no difficulty whatever in finding thousands of business men of good standing and character to give the necessary labor to enrolling Republican voters and obtaining a full and fair expression of their wishes at the meeting of the associations. The recent work of the Independent Republican Committee proves this. There is no deep mystery about the matter, as professional politicians try to persuade people, any more than about the charitable work which is done on so large a scale by volunteers of the highest respectability. What it needs most of all is industry and honesty, the two things in which the class who now make a business of it are lamentably and notoriously deficient. But few respectable citizens will undertake the task of watching and foiling such a class merely as a piece of preparation for a nominating convention, for this is essentially a policeman's task and not that of a politician.

SIMPLIFICATION OF THE TARIFF.

NOT long since the daily newspapers gave an account of a search extraordinary on the White Star steamship dock. Mrs. G., a resident of New York, arrived at this port with her child and maid. Her husband and sister were at the landing waiting to meet her. Mrs. G. was suspected by the customs officers of having dutiable articles concealed upon her person. She was accordingly taken into a private room and searched. No such articles being found upon her, the husband and the sister (who were not passengers at all) and the maid and child were successively taken into private rooms and searched, with like results, no dutiable articles being found upon any of them. So convinced, however, were the officers that they were on the right track that they took a high-spirited Englishwoman, who had been seen conversing with Mrs. G. in the steamer's companion-way, and searched her—with no other result, however, than to leave her speechless with indignation, Mrs. G. meanwhile being bathed in tears and Mr. G. "swearing mad." No dutiable goods being found, there was a reaction in Custom-house circles, and for a month or more a feeling of lassitude verging upon despondency was observed in their ranks at all the steamship docks. The event was duly commented upon by the organs of the effete monarchies of the Old World, one of which remarked jeeringly that it was dangerous for an American citizen to approach within a mile of an incoming steamer lest he be seized by the customs authorities and searched.

Much indignation was vented upon the luckless officers who in this instance executed a bad law. They had the right—that is, the lawful power and authority—to send every man, woman, and child coming from the steamer's deck into the searching-rooms, and cause them to be divested of all their clothing, before allowing them to proceed upon their several journeys. By neglecting to do so in all but half a dozen cases, in this particular instance, it is not improbable that several yards of lace, and perhaps sundry diamonds and watches, were smuggled on shore, and that the United States revenue suffered the loss of a few dollars. The whole amount of revenue collected from passengers' baggage is only $100,000 per annum (average) at all the ports, and the expense of collecting it is probably greater than that sum; but, of course, the value and importance of the searching must be measured, not by the amount of money collected, but by the amount of smuggling prevented. It is generally perceived and acknowledged that there has been a marked improvement in the moral tone of the customs service as regards passengers' baggage since Gen. Merritt came into the office of Collector of this port. Mistakes like the one described are calculated to call forth public animadversion, while the acceptance of a bribe by the inspector in lieu of any search at all is unnoticed by anybody except the briber, who generally keeps the transaction a close secret. It is pretty safe to say that there is now little bribing on the docks or after leaving the docks, and that the errors in dealing with passengers are rather on the side of too great severity in executing a law which leaves much to the discretion of the officer and much more to the conscience of the passenger. Secretary Sherman in his current annual report says that "the law does not define any limit of quantity or value in regard to either household or personal effects which may be admitted free of duty." In the absence of any such law the inspectors make a mental calculation as to how much a passenger ought reasonably to travel with, varying according to the time he or she has been abroad, and according to wealth, occupation, and social position, so far as these can be ascertained in a series of hasty "interviews" on the dock. Anybody travelling with more than this "reasonable" amount, although strictly within the letter of the law, is liable to have his baggage detained, and all are liable to be searched—even persons who are not passengers, if they have been on board the steamer before she has discharged her cargo.

The United States tariff embraces some two thousand articles, from which varying amounts of revenue are raised. The article of imported tripe has yielded in one year as much as 40 cents, and sugar as much as $40,000,000. Between these extremes we find that water from Lourdes (we suppose it may properly be classed as "holy water") yielded 90 cents to the Treasury in the year 1876 on an importation of $9 worth; that palm-leaf produced 87 cents, acetate of magnesia $1, putty $2 40, prepared insects $6 80, bladders upwards of $9, locust-tree seeds $12 80, and plum-pudding the magnificent sum of $50 60. Turning to articles likely to be concealed on the person of a traveller of smuggling propensities we find that laces, cords, braids, gimps, galloons, insertings, and lace trimmings yielded altogether $950,795 60 in an average year; that diamonds, cameos, mosaics, gems, pearls, rubies, and all other precious stones yielded $240,962 83, and that watches yielded $330,800 28. When passengers are sent into the searching-rooms and asked to take off their clothes it is expected that something embraced in the three foregoing items of revenue will be discovered

Although the duties on gloves, silks, and velvets are needlessly and viciously high, these articles are too bulky in proportion to their value to be concealed to any great extent on the person. Any measure or policy which should effectually prevent the smuggling of laces, jewels, and watches would make an end of personal searching, which is always an indignity and often an atrocity upon the traveller. The examination of trunks is a different matter, and is unobjectionable when conducted under a definite set of rules and with clear ideas on the part of the examining officers.

The surplus revenue for the fiscal year 1880–81, after applying $39,000,000 to the sinking fund, is estimated by the Secretary of the Treasury at nearly $10,000,000. That amount, and probably more, can be spared from the national tax-bills. It would seem to be the dictate of wisdom, first, to abolish the duties on tripe, holy water, prepared insects, and all other articles the proceeds of which are ridiculously small, being less than the cost of collection; and, second, to repeal those levied upon articles so small in bulk that they are easily concealed in people's pockets and smuggled. Both these propositions are among the commonplaces of political economy, and are recognized and acted upon in other countries. Tariff reform, which cannot be long postponed, should begin with tariff simplification. The monstrous jungle of two thousand or more articles should be first cleared of the parts which are merely nonsensical in order to reach those which are debatable. Let bladders, glauber-salts, children's dolls, and their mothers' enamel be stricken out as summarily as quinine was expunged last summer. And let all the microscopic things, which must needs be searched for as one searches for a flea in the seams of his clothing, be stricken out at the same time; or, as an alternative, let it be ordained by law that all persons arriving on our shores shall be impartially stripped naked without regard to age, sex, or previous condition, and let notices to that effect be posted in all our consular offices abroad, so that the perils of navigation may be fully understood before the passenger takes ship for this land of freedom.

Simplification of the tariff is needed in other directions. Duties ad valorem, duties specific, and duties both ad valorem and specific, market value and invoice value, appraisements and reappraisements, importers' affidavits and consuls' certificates, have fallen into dire and exasperating confusion, which is but feebly commented on in Secretary Sherman's report. The remedy he proposes, that in cases of dispute between importers and customs officers the Government shall take the goods at the invoice value plus ten per cent. allowed for expenses and profit, is not adapted to our political system, since it proposes that the Government shall go into the dry-goods and grocery trade on a large scale. Civil-service reform has not reached the acme of perfection among us that would warrant such a venture. Nevertheless something must be done to lift us above the level of Turkey in our customs department, and we commend the problem to the Committee of Ways and Means, whose efforts hitherto to bring about any change whatever in the tariff, although Congress was evidently favorable to a change, have been as unfortunate as the late Henry C. Carey or any of his disciples could have wished.

IS ÆSTHETICS A SCIENCE?

BERLIN, Nov. 10.

WHAT is the origin, nature, and highest form of æsthetic pleasure? For many artists this now unfortunately seems a purely metaphysical question, the discussion of which is as irrelevant as for a mason to fall to discussing the *rem per se* of his brick and mortar. For many connoisseurs of art it is a purely individual question, because we are reminded there is no disputing about taste. For many philosophic writers the question is sufficiently answered by the formulæ of Hegel. Art, they tell us, is the absolute idea immediately presented to sense. In symbolic art, typified, *e.g.*, in Egypt, matter preponderates and the ideal struggles through it, and attains only an imperfect expression; in classic art matter and ideal are mutually expressive, adequate and befitting; and in romantic art the ideal preponderates and the material is able to serve only as a hint or allegory of what to it is inexpressible. Thus, the first and lowest forms of art are gardening and architecture; then follow sculpture, painting, music, and lastly poetry, which merges by insensible gradations into religion, the doctrines and institutions of which, though in very different senses, were made the supreme form of æsthetic expression by Schleiermacher and Strauss. Others still find a ray of light in Schopenhauer, who said that when we contemplate a work of true art we not merely find the only possible surcease from the universal anguish, but lose ourselves, not in the particular object contemplated, but, through it, in the platonic ideal, or purest objective form of will, which it illustrates. Vague and intangible as are such answers, they have at least given us glimpses of the vastness of the problem and the depth of our ignorance about it.

The philosophy of Evolution next attempted to explain pleasure as a sense of usefulness, and pain as a feeling of the diminution of vital functions. The sweet taste of sugar-of-lead really augments the vitality of the organs of taste, though it happens to be poison in the stomach. A pleasant sound favors the nutrition of the auditory nerve, a beautiful picture that of the visual organs, etc. This, again, seems to me ingenious, and as such provisionally credible enough, but almost purely hypothetical and unproven. Are the terms convertible, and is nutrition æsthetic? If so, sleep is higher than art.

In Germany the subject has been approached in two other directions with at least very hopeful results. Zeising, and later and more fully Fechner,* starting with the simplest forms of geometric figures, have enquired, first, how must a horizontal, and, secondly, how must a vertical line be divided in order to give most pleasure to the eye, and, thirdly, what is the most symmetrical way of uniting both in the form of a cross or a right-angled quadrilateral. The opinions of scores of people of different nations, degrees of culture, etc., were collected and averaged, and the result, given with much unanimity, was that when the whole of a straight line was to its longer as the latter to its shorter section the most pleasing impression was produced. This "golden section" determines the position of the horizontal on the vertical arm of a cross, the long to the short sides of a parallelogram, etc.; this, it was said, corresponds nearly to the side or ground forms of the most pleasing architectural structures, a number of which have since been built on that pattern, and it has been developed with great ingenuity into real or fancied coincidences with the relations between ground tones and harmonies in music. Here again we cannot forget that the average opinions only approximate without exactly giving this relation, nor can we believe the subtle influences of association are escaped, as is asserted, by dealing with such simple visual forms. These at least, as well as the almost infinite complication involved, would come in to prevent the extension of this method to more compound forms, colors, sounds, etc., as is suggested.

The other direction is best illustrated by the psycho-physical analysis of the sensations of sound, which has shown that the accepted intervals between notes in an octave are not mathematical, and that the purest harmony is only relatively perfect, certain natural overtones belonging to each ground tone being discordant with those of the other series, and suggesting to speculative minds the question whether the music of the future will not be written on a reconstructed scale. Hence three varieties of harmonium have been constructed, in which the octave is divided into notes with equal intervals—Bosanquet's has fifty-three—or in which vibrations give only the ground tones, and the accordant overtones may be played and the rest omitted. The sound produced by these instruments is certainly a new and exquisite sensation. There was a strange purity and ringing clearness about the tones and chords, which I heard for the first time in another room without knowing the instrument, and thus without expectancy or association. The immense number of keys increases greatly the manual labor of playing, and makes quick music impossible, while the labor of composing, writing, and reading must be immensely increased.

The question whether such instruments foreshadow a new sort of music of the future, or belong simply to the curious demonstrative apparatus of the scientific lecture-room (like Castel's *clavecin oculaire*, or visual harpsichord, by which a symphony of colors, divided on the color scale by the same mathematical relations of wave-lengths as notes in the scale, was flashed over the field of vision soon after the laws of complementary colors were developed, and which threatened at one time a new chromatic dispensation), is the question of practical interest. It is a generic question—viz., Is practice still so far ahead of theory in the domain of æsthetics, or does æsthetics embrace so many other than the purely rational elements that we can never be told with any scientific authority what we ought to like or dislike? Ought artists to credit it as an additional proof of the accu-

* See 'Vorschule der Aesthetik.' 1878.

racy of the Greek eye, that if the horizontal lines of the Parthenon slightly incline to the right and left it is to compensate the slight distortion of every horizontal line to the normal eye, or that some attitudes of a galloping horse, instantaneously photographed by a new method, correspond to equine postures found upon the Elgin marbles, if at the same time other details, no less observable and perhaps more serviceable, like perpendicular visual directions in the columns of ancient temples, and the second phase of the horse's spring, etc., are, so far as known, ignored in Greek art? Should German poets listen to Brücke, *e.g.*, when he writes on a revolving drum the mathematical time-relations of anapests, spondees, cæsuras, accents, etc., and thus demonstrates that the laws of metre for the German tongue make certain verse-forms, borrowed from the classics, logically unusable, or others, hitherto unknown, possible, or shows the natural sub-rhythms of the muscles of the chest, larynx, etc.? Should painters listen to Helmholtz on the laws of saturation, intensity, and contrast of colors, even if he points out errors in the great masters? Should architects trouble themselves about such average impressions respecting proportion as Fechner has collected?

Any answer to these questions, especially an unqualified affirmative, seems to me premature, but I think any discussion of it would be likely to be rather more meaty than the inane speculations about the nature of the Beautiful and Sublime which fill so many pages of text-books on æsthetics. Certainly, science has not yet disclosed the foundations for a radically new synthesis of any art. The moral sense has long been accustomed to all sorts of theoretic explanation and dictation. Of this the æsthetic sense has been less tolerant, though it admits the need not only of culture but of instruction. For my part I am unable to believe that fashions will ever be set or child's playthings chosen by a quadrennial Congress of professors of æsthetics, or that the scale in which Beethoven wrote will ever be regarded as a rude hieroglyphic alphabet of sound, or that Titian will be called a poor colorist because he did not know whether his strongest contrasts were mathematically complementary. At the same time I fancy it may behoove the artist of the future to be more instructed in the scientific aspects of his department, and perhaps a trifle less fearful of impairing creative faculty by the cultivation of critical acumen. Perhaps the understanding has a sort of satisfaction peculiar to itself which may justly be called æsthetic.

MEMOIRS OF MADAME DE RÉMUSAT.

III.

PARIS, November 14, 1879.

THE 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat' show very conclusively that the transition from the Republic to the Empire was very gradual: this political change had nothing of the character of a revolution or of a *coup d'état*. The *coup d'état* was made on the famous 18th Brumaire, and though it was not apparently directed against the Republic, it really gave the death-blow to it, and established the rule of one man. When Madame de Rémusat entered the service of Madame Bonaparte the Consul still preserved a certain republican simplicity; but it is difficult to live with much simplicity in a palace like the Tuileries, and by degrees the old manners exuded, so to speak, from the old walls. The First Consul took possession of the Tuileries on the 19th of February, 1800; Madame de Rémusat first entered into the palace in 1802. She says that when Josephine slept there for the first time Napoleon said to her: "Come, come, little Creole, and sleep in the bed of your masters." There was hardly a person belonging to the old society in the salon of the Consul; ministers, generals, ladies of the Bonaparte and Murat family, all dressed in the antique style which David had invented, seemed like strangers in the old palace of the monarchy. M. de Rémusat was very useful to Bonaparte, as he knew the traditions of the old etiquette. Napoleon was himself very simple in his dress, but he desired his generals to have the most gorgeous uniforms, and he encouraged dress in women; he thought the French could be seduced by ostentation and pomp. He had at once placed a great distance between himself and the two other consuls: the official documents of the Government, though beginning with the formula "Par arrêté des Consuls," only bore his signature. He kept his court all alone, either at the Tuileries or at Saint-Cloud; he received the ambassadors with the ceremonies used in all the courts; he never appeared in public except with a numerous guard, and he only allowed his colleagues two grenadiers before their carriage. These small details show that the First Consul really assumed the position of the governor, the ruler of the country; and he assumed it with the consent of all, or almost all. Madame de Rémusat describes well the general feeling of the country:

"I did not," says she, "reason on the rights of Bonaparte, but I heard everybody say that he made a good use of his power. M. de Rémusat, confiding in him as did the rest of France, abandoned himself to the hopes which it was then permitted to conceive. All were indignant and disgusted with the horrors of the Revolution, and looked upon the Consular government, which preserved them from the Jacobins, as a new era for the country. The trials of liberty which had been made at various times inspired against it a sort of natural aversion, which was not much reasoned out; because, in truth, liberty had always vanished when its name was used, and there had been only changes in the form of tyranny. Generally there was no desire at that time in France except for rest; people wanted to use their minds freely, to cultivate a few private virtues, and to repair the losses of fortune common to all. I can only think with a true *serrement de cœur* of the illusions I then entertained. I regret them as one regrets the pleasant thoughts of youth, of that time of life when, to use a familiar comparison of Bonaparte himself, all things are seen through a gilded veil which makes them brilliant and light. 'By and by,' he would say, 'this veil thickens till it becomes quite dark!'"

At the end of 1803 the Consul wore, on common days, the uniform of his guard; but on all great ceremonies he and his colleagues had a red coat embroidered with gold, velvet in winter and silk in summer. The two Consuls, Cambacérès and Lebrun, powdered and neat, wore this shining dress with lace and a sword, as people used to wear the *habit habillé*. Napoleon, whom this luxury annoyed, tried to have as little of it as possible. His hair was cut short, flat, and ill-kept. With his red-and-gold dress he retained a black cravat, a lace *jabot* (frill), but no *manchettes* (ruffles); sometimes a white satin waistcoat embroidered in silver, sometimes the vest of his uniform; the sword also. When he became emperor he had a court dress with a little mantle and a hat with feathers, which suited him very well. He also had a magnificent collar of the Legion of Honor, all diamonds. Commonly he only wore the silver cross. Seeing once, before the coronation ceremony, all his new marshals arriving in magnificent dresses, he turned round to Madame de Rémusat and said to her with a smile: "The right of dressing simply does not belong to everybody." When Bonaparte was Consul he allowed his wife to receive visits in the morning by herself; she received a great number of persons who belonged to the old régime, who would have no relations, or seem to have any, with the First Consul; but who asked his wife for many erasures (from the list of the émigrés) or restitutions of confiscated property. Madame Bonaparte was very affable and kind, and she was never tired of asking favors for everybody.

The First Consul received all the foreigners of distinction, and he drew round him the academicians, the painters, the musicians; his salon had become a real court. Talleyrand and Fontanes had the manners of the old times, and constantly urged the First Consul to abolish the last vestiges of the Republican period. The Chambers had become servile, and the Tribunes (for the Tribunate was still in existence) rivalled the Senators in their expressions of admiration and adulation. Napoleon directed and inspired the press through Maret, afterwards Duc de Bassano, and his secretaries Bourrienne and Méneval. He liked to dictate articles while he walked at a great pace in his room. He himself answered the violent attacks of the English papers, the *Courier* or the *Sun*.

After Cadoudal's conspiracy and the murder of the Duc d'Enghien it became evident that the First Consul was determined to sit on the throne of France. As he had no children by Josephine, the question of his divorce was already discussed. For two years before the establishment of the Empire, says Madame de Rémusat, there were incessant quarrels in the Bonaparte family about the possible successor of Bonaparte on the throne. He was himself inclined to adopt as his heir the young Napoleon, the son of Louis Bonaparte, who was at the same time his nephew and grandson (as Louis Bonaparte had married Hortense, the daughter of Josephine). Joseph Bonaparte, as the eldest, maintained that Napoleon had no right to deprive him of his rights to the succession; Louis Bonaparte objected to having his son preferred to himself. The Bonapartes and the Beauharnais were constantly quarrelling, and Louis Bonaparte showed himself very angry with his own wife because she was the confidante of the projects of the First Consul. Napoleon was much annoyed by these family quarrels; it was ridiculous to see so many people disputing for a crown which France had not yet formally given. Napoleon, therefore, put an end to this noise by renouncing for the present the choice of an heir; he merely inserted the power of adoption in the imperial constitution which he was preparing. He had many conferences on the subject with Talleyrand. Talleyrand was essentially monarchical, and he simply wanted to create a new royal dynasty. "He confessed to me," says Madame de Rémusat, "that the title of emperor frightened him at first; he saw in it a vagueness and a grandeur which were precisely what pleased the imagination of Bonaparte."

"But," said M. de Talleyrand, "there was in that name a combina-

tion of Roman Republic and of Charlemagne which turned his head. One day I wished to have the pleasure of mystifying Berthier; I took him apart and said to him: 'You know what great design we are pursuing; go and tell the First Consul to take the title of king; you will please him.' Berthier at once, delighted to have an occasion to speak to Bonaparte on an agreeable subject, joined him at the end of the room where we all were; I went a little off, as I saw the storm coming. Berthier began his little compliment; but when he pronounced the word king the eyes of Bonaparte became fiery, he put his fist under Berthier's chin and pushed him to the wall. 'Imbecile!' said he, 'who told you to come and rouse my anger? Don't you ever run such errands.'"

On the 30th of April, 1804, one of the Tribunes of the People, Curée, made the motion at the Tribunate that the government of the Republic should be confided to an emperor, and that the Empire should be hereditary in the family of Bonaparte. Carnot alone voted against the motion. The Senate followed, and unanimously voted for the Empire. Addresses came from all the great cities, from the army. On the 10th of May, 1804, the Second Consul, Cambacérès, came to Saint-Cloud in great state, with all the Senate, and addressed Bonaparte for the first time as Majesty. "Napoleon behaved as if he had had a right to that name all his life." The new Charlemagne created a number of high dignitaries, a great elector, a constable, a chancellor, a treasurer, sixteen marshals. The republican principle was nominally respected, as the new constitution was submitted to a popular vote. On that same 18th of May Napoleon renounced for the first time the word "citizen"; he addressed everybody as "Monsieur"; he had scrupulously said "citizen" till that very day. Madame de Rémusat says that the proclamation of the Empire satisfied the great majority of the nation. The Jacobins were delighted with it in their hearts; the lions of 1793 became the lambs of 1804. Bonaparte, who was a "Jacobin à cheval," embalmed all the Terrorists in high dignities and in new names; they became his most servile adherents. The Royalists had hoped for a while that the Consul would play the part of Monk, but the assassination of the Duc d'Enghien had dispelled their last hope; they were completely disheartened, and many of them transferred by degrees their loyalty from the king to the usurper. There was a fraction of liberals who were proselytes to American institutions, but this fraction was small and insignificant; their discontent was ignored; they had admired the Consular constitution, but Madame de Rémusat justly says that the Consulate was only the Empire in disguise:

"Déjà Napoléon perçait dans Bonaparte."

Victor Hugo shows in his verses the face of the Emperor under the mask of the Consul; and Madame de Rémusat says: "What was his Consular authority if not a dictatorial power under another name? Had he not, without consulting the national wishes, pronounced upon peace and war? Had he not the right of conscription? Did he allow public affairs to be freely discussed? Could the newspapers publish a single article which he did not approve of? Did he not clearly show that he drew his power from the right of his victorious arms, and how could severe Republicans be deceived?"

The name of Republic could no longer be pronounced under the Consulate, as it was identified with the crimes of the Terror; the Directory had fallen under the universal contempt of the nation; there was a general opinion current that the Revolution had exhausted its force, as well as the force of the nation, and that a period of rest had become necessary. France longed for a despotism—"ruunt in servitudinem." Even the sovereigns of Europe looked upon Bonaparte as a protection against the Revolutionary doctrines. Fatigued with perpetual troubles, afraid of this liberty which had made so many victims, all men looked upon Napoleon as an instrument of Providence. He was a personification of imperial order, of victory, of peace. Alas! he soon showed the world that he was not peace. The fatality of his mission could not yet be understood in its full extent: he gave a little rest to France, but it was the rest given to the soldier during the night which precedes a long and bloody battle. He thought that if France no longer had liberty she must have glory. His reign was a long struggle for glory. He knew no rest. He never made a real peace; he merely made a *halte*, to use Talleyrand's expression. The succeeding volumes of Madame de Rémusat's 'Memoirs' will show us Napoleon in this second period.

Correspondence.

WHY THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY IS NOT BAD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of your correspondent "J.," and your note upon it, are somewhat exasperating as well as amusing. The quiet assumption that "the Democratic party is the party of ignorance" is a sweeping, and to some of us life-long Democrats a startling, proposition.

That the party has within it a majority of the laboring classes at the North is true, and the fact is founded on a perfectly comprehensible and philosophical basis. That party in its essential principles and political policy has always represented what may be called the *force* of the country as distinguished from its wealth and mechanical investments. Until the war the Whig party and its successors were acting in principle and policy *in rem*. It advocated tariffs, navigation laws, banks, and all those material elements which tended to the enrichment of the few and the concentration of political power; while, on the other hand, the tendency of the Democratic party was, so to speak, *in personam*. It discussed and fostered and found its coherence in the theories and formulas that related to individual freedom and the disseverance of personal enfranchisement from the elements and operation of material influences.

That distinction prevails to a certain extent now, and the laborer knows it. Nothing is more ill-founded or in the end more to be deplored than the almost universal belief among the educated classes in the absolute ignorance of workingmen. It is true as to many things cultivated men, so-called, esteem; but it is not true as to those ideal truths relating to man as an individual and his relations to existing social organizations. On those questions the majority of literary men, of active business men, of mere theorists of all sorts, would do well to give very many who are ill-dressed, coarse-looking, and unrefined—Democrats, if you will—a wide berth; for all the practical politics of the day meet their first impact and attrition in and upon the workingman. He knows as by a supreme instinct what principles tend to his welfare or his injury, and he knows what the Massachusetts school of thinkers never can see, that in practical good works and right-dealing the mass of workingmen, in their daily life, rival almost Boston itself. It is easy to see, therefore, why a party so actuated should be permanently conservative and slow to adopt new notions. Reforms spring not from organized and formulated belief; they are the result uniformly of practical and material disabilities or evils.

So much as to one reason for the fact complained of. What are its results? Is New York worse governed than Massachusetts? Is the law worse administered? Neither question can be answered in the affirmative. Is its body of laws worse enunciated in the Reports? Is its bar of a lower intellectual or moral grade? Are its moral influences less? In the features which social administrations impress on a people are the results they accomplish less manifest in the city of New York than in Boston? No man out of Boston will say so.

It is true we have had our Tweed and our Barnard and Cardozo, and they were Democrats. But they were not what they may have been by reason of Democracy, and they never received any sensible check from Republicans. Among those who aided them, who enriched themselves by them, who cringed for the crumbs from their tables, a due proportion of the loyal and respectable Republican party were to be found, and the malefactors received their deserts chiefly from Democrats. Those evil men came from the times and the opportunity; the temptation fell on them rather than on Republicans, with like tendencies, and they yielded. The 1,500,000 of people in the city of New York and its environs, because condensed into a municipality, are held to a higher and more immediate responsibility than an equal number scattered through the State of Massachusetts. It will be found that in the more degraded crimes the State exceeds the city.

But suppose we reverse the picture for a moment. The evil complained of came from the ignorance of the Democracy. Let us see what the higher planes of Republicanism have done, simply as to the judiciary. That pure and sagacious organization, when the highest tribunal in the land was acting in its most august capacity—an impeachment of the President—entered unrebuked into the most scandalous and shameful system of lobbying those who were to act as judges sworn to decide upon the evidence, and menaced them into partisan decisions. The same party appointed two judges to make a majority of a court to overrule and reverse a judgment on a momentous question of public policy; the judgment being then, as now, believed by every honest man, even in Boston, to be righteous and necessary, and its reversal to have had an extra-judicial motive. The same party appointed Busteed and Underwood and the like to be judges. The same party, in selecting men to become judges *de facto* on the Electoral Commission, took the most avowed and unscrupulous of their adherents, who were notoriously committed in advance on the question to be decided, and so mocked and degraded the judicial function. Of the judicial decisions of Republican judges rendered for political reasons throughout the whole country time and space fail us to speak.

As to "reform" (except in the single instance above mentioned, which constituted its sole impeachment), the Democratic party has uniformly, when in power, maintained such practical reforms as economy of administration, maintenance of law, purity of the judiciary, and regard for private rights. To select New York City, in those days of shame, as an illustration or result of Democratic rule is a manifest injustice; both parties at that time were "tarred with the same stick." That evil, and the many we now complain of, were the results of false systems and public apathy. We shall be happy to compare the action of the leaders of both parties in seeking a cure for the public maladies. W.

[If "W." had given us some explanation of the means by which the Democratic party has, since 1860, sought to embody in legislation "the theories and formulas that relate to individual freedom," and to promote "the disseverance of personal enfranchisement from the elements and operation of material influences," his letter would be more valuable. As it stands, it seems to us an illustration of the tendency of both Democrats and Republicans at the present crisis, when asked to describe the policy of their party, or to say what it proposes to do for the country, to fall into vigorous denunciation of the other side. The result is that campaign documents and speeches are rapidly becoming mere lists of rascalities, and read very like the Newgate Calendar.—Ed. Nation].

ABOUT THAT "SOMERSAULT" OF OURS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That "somersault" and "fall from grace" of yours, referred to in the two last issues of the *Nation*, would doubtless afford an interesting subject of enquiry, were it not for the far more interesting subject afforded by the mental exhibition made of themselves by your two correspondents, "J." from Boston and "Subscriber" from Natchez. I would like to make a suggestion which may afford you matter for a useful editorial. The present is a time of general legislation, and we hear a great deal about the duty of Government in the matter of educating the people. Wouldn't a law compelling every one to subscribe to some paper advocating views opposed to his own, work pretty good educational results? The stupid intolerance with which the average man expels from his range of vision any presentation of leading subjects under discussion in which he does not concur, is very depressing. In the case of your Natchez subscriber this is in no way surprising. The Southern mind has always refused to hear but one side of the question, and this constitutional intolerance has there had its reward. With "J." it ought to be different. Here is a man, Northern-born and educated, who, judging by his letter to you of November 10, is not in all respects unintelligent, actually announcing in public that he is resolved to see but one side of an important matter of public concernment. Isn't a little reconstruction needed here? Most of us know our own sides of the questions of the day well enough; isn't it "the other side" which an intelligent man, who wants to understand himself, ought to see? I wish all the Free-traders would read the Boston *Advertiser*, for instance. I'm a Free-trader, and I do; and the consequence is that I now live in the hope that some day I shall join in burning a custom-house. As a "Scratcher" I take the *Tribune*, and it has irrevocably confirmed me in a determination never again, on any account, to vote a "clean ticket." "J." may rest assured that for any one not a bigot there's nothing so healthy as seeing all sides. If you're wrong, it sets you right; and if you're right, it acts as an exhilarating irritant.

I think I see difficulties in the way of an early enactment of a law compelling intolerant men to take papers representing the other side, and we sha'n't just yet be able to break down party lines in that way. In our individual capacity, however, we are all bound to do something for the advance of general enlightenment. I recognize the obligation in my own case; nor have I lately met better subjects for missionary labor than "J." and "Subscriber." If, therefore, as I presume is the case, they have stopped their subscriptions to the *Nation*—or whenever they may do so—please have them renewed at once, and send the papers to them and the bills to me. I will deduct the amount from my annual subscription to the Foreign Missionary Society; for enlightenment, like charity, ought to begin at home.

X. Y. Z.

Boston, Dec. 1, 1879.

[We think a much better plan would be to have the Government furnish gratis to every person taking one paper another representing different views. This would remove the objection of oppression which might attach to a scheme compelling a man to pay for a paper he did not like. We agree with our correspondent, that one of the greatest obstacles to healthy politics in our day is the practice of confining one's reading to one's own party organ, and the effect of it is far worse in the country districts than in the city, because in the latter it is somewhat counteracted by social intercourse. Nothing does so much to destroy the responsibility of party leaders and make the influence of popular opinion on the Government so slow in its operation, and the perpetuation of party humbug and delusion so easy. In fact, the popular notion that the people *discuss* public questions through the newspapers is a curious hallucination. Not one man in a hundred takes any part in discussion whatever, or listens to any discussion except when he goes to hear stump-speakers of opposite parties during a canvass. The average Democrat or Republican derives his political opinions from a writer in the nearest city, whom he hires at so much a month or a year to dress up one view of every public topic with as much artifice, sophistry, evasion, and concealment as he can bring to bear. After a year or two of this, of course any presentation of the other side has the air of an impudent breach of contract, calling not only for complaint but punishment. There is nothing more ludicrous in an editor's experience than the air of offended dignity with which a subscriber of the old school now and then announces that he does not agree with him on some topic of the day, and that the holding of opinions about it so unlike his own must indicate some moral obliquity or evil design. There has probably no question come up in the politics of Christendom within two centuries which has so distinctly two sides and is so full of complications as this Southern question as it presents itself to the people of the North today, and yet we venture to say that not five per cent. of the newspaper readers of either party ever have more than one side offered for their inspection. Many men have worked themselves about it into a mental condition which in private business would be considered unsound, as when they lose temper if you refuse to believe all the newspaper stories of "outrages," or doubt whether the Brigadiers mean shortly to rise in arms once more against the Government. One party newspaper announced at the opening of the extra session last year the approaching outbreak of a civil war that would rage in "every school district in the country," but the subscribers seemed to like it, and probably would have refused to look at a paper which treated this anticipation as insane. The evil is a growing one, and has more danger in it to republican institutions than appears on the surface. It is, in fact, the application to politics of the discipline of the Catholic Church, which protects faith and morals by the expurgation of literature.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PROPOSED EVACUATION OF FORT SUMTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "Diary of a Public Man," as recently published by the *North American Review*, contains, amid much apocryphal gossip relating to the outbreak of our civil war, certain specific statements based on the assumption that the Administration of President Lincoln was brought, in the early days of its existence, to contemplate and accept the evacuation of Fort Sumter as a military necessity. This purpose was unofficially announced a few days after the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln, but as the subsequent conduct of the Administration indicated a change of policy—if any such purpose had been formed—it has been common to resolve the public doubts under this head by questioning the existence of any such intention. It may be proper, therefore, to say that, as one of the editors of the *National Intelligencer* in 1861, I was authentically informed of this purpose by Mr. Secretary Seward, not only for my guidance as a public journalist, but with the request that I should communicate the fact to the Hon. George W. Summers, the recognized leader of the Union majority in the Virginia Convention then sitting at Richmond. Mr. Seward believed that intelligence of the fact would strengthen the hands of the Unionists in that body, and, concurring with him in this opinion, I hastened to write to Mr. Summers in the sense and to the purport of the Secretary's statements.

I have recently made application to the son of the late Judge Summers in the hope of being able to recover the letter I wrote, but regret to learn from him that, being, as he supposed, in failing health in the years 1869 and 1870, and not knowing into whose hands his father's papers might fall in the event of his own death, he felt it his duty at that time "to destroy all not pertaining strictly to business." But as I still have the reply of Judge Summers, from which the purport of my communication can be sufficiently gathered, as well as the effect it produced on the minds of the Virginia Unionists in the Convention, I subjoin it to this note as a slight contribution to the political literature of that troublous period.

The *North American* diarist says, under date of March 6, 1861, that Mr. Seward communicated the meditated purpose of the Administration to the Richmond Unionists through "a messenger enjoying the direct personal confidence" of the Secretary. This *may* be true, but as the fact that I had written to Mr. Summers was an open secret both in Washington and Richmond at that time, it may be that the statement of the diarist is but an echo of the communication I was authorized to make.

As the statements made by Mr. Seward in the early days of March, 1861, with regard to the projected evacuation of Fort Sumter, when viewed in the light of subsequent events, have subjected him to the charge of duplicity in the premises, I beg leave to say that the charge, according to my knowledge of the facts, is entirely unfounded. He honestly believed in the truth of his statements when he made them, and he had a right to believe in their truth, for they were made with the full knowledge and consent of Mr. Lincoln, and were supported by the military representations of General Scott—representations supposed at the time to be decisive of the question. And when, at a later day, Mr. Lincoln determined to send supplies of food to the famished garrison of Fort Sumter, "peaceably if he could, forcibly if he must," I have good reasons for believing that the resolution was concerted without the privity of Mr. Seward, though after the resolution *had been taken*, a sense of loyalty to his official chief combined with convictions of public duty to prevent him from replying to the suspicions brought upon him by his ill-fated efforts to "keep the peace."

In order to appreciate the motives and conduct of Mr. Seward in this crisis, it is important to remember that his statements were made not at all in subservience to the wishes and claims of the Confederate politicians, but in deference to the wishes and sensibilities of the Union men in the Border States—men who were fighting a gallant political battle for the Union under circumstances which gave them a claim to his best consideration. He believed, moreover, that if these States could be retained within their normal orbits the Secession movement initiated by the Cotton States would either "die a natural death" or could be restricted within limits so comparatively narrow as to make it otherwise manageable by the power of the Federal Government. If the view was a mistaken one he should at least have the benefit of the candor and earnestness with which he held it.

When the truth of history in this matter shall be fully brought to light I incline to think that the facts in the case will prove to be substantially as follows: that the evacuation of Fort Sumter was entertained by President Lincoln and his Cabinet as an inevitable military necessity during the earlier weeks of March, 1861; that this evacuation was never *formally* or finally resolved on by the President, although for a time he had no alternative plan in his mind; that during this time the statements in question were made by Mr. Seward not only in perfect good faith but by authority of the President; that when the announcement of the proposed evacuation excited, as we know it did, a profound feeling of disgust and indignation in the breasts of the "Stalwarts" of that day, the President was finally moved to accept the alternative proposition which was submitted to him, with the view of protecting himself from political odium, and at the same time maintaining the prestige of the National Government at the only two points where it was then possible to make a stand in the seceded States—Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens.

As the Hon. Montgomery Blair, a member of Mr. Lincoln's Cabinet, was understood at the time to be opposed to the meditated evacuation of Fort Sumter, and as the expedition to Charleston was placed under the command of his brother-in-law, Capt. G. V. Fox, an ex-officer of the United States Navy, and subsequently Assistant-Secretary of the Navy Department, it is reasonable to suppose that either or both of these distinguished gentlemen could shed valuable light on the motives and considerations which, beyond and besides those adduced in Mr. Lincoln's Message of July 4, 1861, may have led to the President's final decision in this matter.—Yours most respectfully,

JAMES C. WELLING.

WASHINGTON, November 21, 1879.

Letter of Judge Summers.

RICHMOND, March 19, 1861.

DEAR SIR: I owe you an apology for not having promptly acknowledged the reception of your letter, with its most gratifying intelligence. I was unusually engaged for some days afterwards, and have been quite unwell. I entertain a most kindly recollection of our brief acquaintance, and shall be most happy to extend and enlarge it.

We have in our Convention various shades of Union sentiment, but there is a reliable majority opposed to any act of secession. We shall most probably adopt the amendments proposed by the late "Peace Conference," with some slight verbal modifications to remove cavil. These have been reported from our Committee on Federal Relations, and are now before us. Our plan is to call a conference of the remaining slave States at Frankfort or Nashville, and submit this plan of guaranties to the consideration of that body, as one approved by us, subject to such modifications as shall be agreed upon there. The conference will put forth its propositions in such form as may be devised and deemed best. In the meantime, we shall adjourn over until fall and wait events. We shall not go into matters connected with the State constitution until after we have disposed of Federal and State relations, probably not until after our reassemblage in the fall.

We shall have no difficulty in doing all this if not disturbed from abroad. But it is of the essence of our plan that a pacific course be continued. It there should be a collision anywhere, or troops brought to Fort Monroe or Old Point, we can't answer for the result. If left unaffected by extraneous events we can and will, after our adjournment, enter upon the spring canvass both in the Congressional and Legislative elections, and bury Secession and Secessionists in Virginia.

Do use your utmost exertions to preserve a pacific policy; everything depends upon it. The removal from Sumter acted like a charm—it gave us great strength. A reaction is now going on in the State. The outside pressure here has greatly subsided. We are masters of our position here, and can maintain it if left alone.

Please write me; keep me advised of occurrences and intentions. It would be well for Mr. Seaton to see Mr. S[eward] and Gen. Scott, and impress them with the necessities of our posture. Tell the General, for God's sake, not to bring any troops to Monroe or Old Point. They are not needed. We will answer for their safety if let alone.

Yours truly, GEO. W. SUMMERS.

P.S.—What delays the removal of Major Anderson? Is there any truth in the suggestion that the thing is not to be done after all? This would ruin us.

[N. B. The reader will understand that when Judge Summers wrote "The removal from Sumter acted like a charm" on the Unionists in the Virginia Convention and gave them "great strength," he referred to Major Anderson's removal from that fort as understood, on the authority of Mr. Seward, to have been virtually decided on by the Lincoln Administration. Hence his anxiety, at the date when he wrote, about the delay which had attended the promised "removal," and hence, too, his prediction that if the thing were not "done after all" it would "ruin" the status of the Union party in Virginia.—J. C. WELLING.]

Notes.

WHETHER as a curiosity for its text, or as a work of art for its manufacture, the new edition, abridged, of the Comte Roselly de Lorgues's 'Christophe Colomb' (New York: F. W. Christern) will attract holiday purchasers. As is well known, the providential and saintly character of Columbus is here insisted on, of set purpose; and the pious author may yet have the gratification of having made two saints grow where only one grew before. Gorgeous volumes for the centre-table are seldom meant to be read, and none but Catholics familiar with French will read the Comte de Lorgues's in the spirit in which he has written. So we need only commend for its great variety of ornamental borders (which no page lacks), its beautiful typography, and other marks of care, this elegant volume of 580 pp. 8vo.——'American College Fraternities,' by Wm. Raimond Baird (J. B. Lippincott & Co.), is a "descriptive analysis" of the different Greek-letter college societies by a member of one of them who has preserved a

fine enthusiasm for "the old wigwam." He has performed what we should be inclined to call a rather thankless task very faithfully in the main. Minor statistical errors are, of course, almost inevitable, but an error of taste, such as saying of a prominent Yale society, "Its members are generally looked down upon," is difficult to account for.——Dr. Friedrich Kapp, who is now revisiting this country, is about to publish a third revised edition of his 'Soldatenhandel,' or 'Sale of Soldiers to America by German Princes,' and to issue in Leipzig next spring a new work, 'Letters and Memoirs of Justus Erich Bollmann,' the liberator of Lafayette from the dungeons of Olmütz. He desires to make arrangements for the publication here of English translations of these works, and to that end may be addressed in care of Mr. E. Steiger, 25 Park Place, New York.——In No. 490 of the *Nation* we gave our estimate of the late John Camden Hotten's patriotic compilation, called, to choose the briefest title, 'Lists of Emigrants to America, 1600–1700.' Mr. J. W. Bouton has now brought out a second edition, which does not profess to be revised, and probably is in answer to a real demand. Some warrant for this exists in the book, but rather in virtue of its old (*i.e.*, previously published) data than of its new. The volume is luxuriously manufactured.——A 'History of the United States under the Constitution,' by James Schouler, of the Boston Bar, is announced by W. H. & O. H. Morrison, Washington.——In the latest *Verhandlungen* of the Berlin Geographical Society (vol. vi. No. 7) is a brief account of the climate, geological formation, vegetation, and capacity for settlement of the Galapagos Islands, by Dr. Theodor Wolf. This observer's visit was made in August–November, 1875, and he condemns the archipelago as worthless for colonizing. But too much should not be exacted of islands which, through the medium of Mr. Darwin, have already contributed in full measure to the welfare of mankind. The same Society's *Zeitschrift*, No. 82, contains Dr. Hirschfeld's report of his archæological journey through southwestern Asia Minor, which is accompanied by a useful map showing also the lines of Eggert's and Kiepert's travels in the same territory. ——The important 'History of the States of Europe,' edited by Heeren, Ukert, and Von Giesebrecht, is, according to the report of a conference of the *collaborateurs* at Munich in October, making satisfactory progress. Hertzberg's 'Greece' is completed with an index volume; Hillebrand's 'France' will shortly be extended to a third and fourth volume; Wenzelburger's 'Netherlands' (revised) has appeared in a first volume; a new volume of 'Spain,' by Prof. F. Schirrmacher, is promised for next year, etc., etc. The beginning of the revised 'Germany' will also be made in 1880, and the work completed in 1883. Prof. Huber has undertaken to revise 'Austria,' in six volumes; and 'Hungary' and 'Bohemia' will follow.

—Colonel T. T. S. Laidley, U.S.A., has issued in a small pamphlet a 'Reply to the Charge of Infringement of Colonel Wingate's Copyright for his 'Manual of Rifle-Practice,'' which charge we have heretofore noticed in the *Nation* (No. 742). The reply is in brief that nothing peculiar to Wingate's book was imitated, and that such portions as were copied from it had already been copied by Wingate from other works, which Colonel Laidley shows with a copiousness of citation that must have cost considerable research. Colonel Wingate's point, as we understand it, was not that his work was original, but that his great labor in collecting the material for it had been taken advantage of by Colonel Laidley, and no credit given him. If Colonel Laidley's 'Reply' could be bound up with his book we should say this objection would be removed, since it would show that, either before or after his attention was called to the matter, he had consulted the same original authorities as Colonel Wingate himself. This labor, however, he might have saved himself, possibly, if he had in the first instance acknowledged that Colonel Wingate had already performed it. It would not have been an ungraceful thing to do, and would have saved us the not particularly pleasant spectacle of the present controversy.

—A few persons in this country, a very large number in Brazil, will hear with deep regret of the suspension of *O Novo Mundo* after the number for the present month has been issued. This monthly illustrated journal, founded in this city in 1870 by Mr. J. C. Rodrigues, and conducted by him ever since, quickly attained an enviable rank among all periodicals circulating in Brazil. It was not a mere lady's journal or fashion print, but it combined with its engravings, its *feuilletons*, its literary notes and correspondence, an earnest political department marked by liberal sentiments, great independence, perfect candor, and religious feeling, which made it very attractive to those who are capable of being impressed by such characteristics. We have more than once had occasion to refer to this admirable journal, whose influence in the mother country could not fail to be beneficial in a high degree. The cause of its sudden abandonment is curious enough, being attributed to a desire to protect "home industry," whereas the immediate effect is to destroy a Brazilian industry which happens to be established outside the Empire, though wholly in the interest of the natives at home. The Portuguese classics, well and cheaply printed in Portugal, are the special objects aimed at in the prohibitory tariff, which, on January 1, will raise the duty on printed matter from 7½ cents per kilogram (35.27 oz.) to $1 50, thus levying on the innocent *O Novo Mundo* a tax greater than its actual receipts from the sale per copy in Brazil. Mr. Rodrigues has promptly faced the necessity imposed upon him, and will have the sympathy of men of letters everywhere.

—The first three numbers of the *Etcher* are sent us by Mr. Bouton, who adds the agency of this periodical to his other undertakings. It is a monthly, with a page slightly larger than the *Portfolio*, each part containing three etchings and three leaves of printed description, and nothing else, and the price is twelve dollars a year; so that the subscriber for one year gets thirty-six etchings, at a uniform price of 33⅓ cents each, and the only question that arises is whether the etchings are sufficiently attractive to persuade him into buying them at that low price. Of the nine prints before us eight are by English artists—Messrs. Chattock, Montefiore, Macbeth, Heseltine, Crooke, Urwick, Slocombe, and Wm. B. Scott. The ninth is by M. Gravesande, who is to most of us an etcher of the French school, and known simply as Charles de Gravesande, but who appears here, with his name in full, as a citizen of Holland. During the same three months the *Portfolio* gave eight original etchings, besides reproductions, and we find those eight prints more varied, and, on the whole, more interesting than those of the *Etcher*. But about all of them together the consideration is forced upon us that the demand for etchings has outgrown the supply of what is excellent, even of what is spirited and brilliant. M. Chauvel's etching of "Cellardyke Harbor," in the July *Portfolio*, and Heseltine's "Ramsgate Harbor," in the July *Etcher*—whatever those two etchings were made for, it was not for pure artistic delight. Such work is of the nature of padding; and, as the existence of padding is not a crying abuse, nor its manufacture a sin, we must even allow that these prints have a right to exist.

—It must also be remembered that these periodicals afford to English and American buyers the readiest opportunity to get etchings at a fitting price. And here we must recall what we said last week about the *American Art Review*. Etchings ought to be sold at not more than half a dollar apiece for prints, and a dollar for proofs; with perhaps two dollars as the price of the first few carefully printed impressions. The coolness with which painters of some reputation as painters, but new in the field of etching, ask a guinea apiece for small prints and two and three guineas each for larger ones, is irritating. Mr. Haden is not meant; whatever rank his art may ultimately retain, he has now a great and long-established reputation as an etcher, and may justifiably take the benefit of it. That is true of Mr. Whistler. To perhaps an equal degree it is true of MM. Lalanne, Appian, Jules Jacquemart, and, in his larger etchings, Charles Jacque; if any of those artists choose to ask twenty-five francs apiece for prints of their more carefully made and elaborate etchings we have only to accept or refuse the proposal, and that civilly, although, in fact, the Frenchmen have not dreamed of such prices. But why Mr. Herkomer, strong and able as he is, or Mr. Macbeth, successful as he has been, should ask for their first published etchings from two to ten guineas, is what we cannot understand. We open the folios of the old Society of *Aquafortistes*, and compare those prints at less than two francs apiece (the proofs before letters) with the modern work at five-and-twenty times the price. There is a plenty of rubbish; the half might well be burned up; but in the first volume we open, among the sixty prints there are twelve of real value, which are sure to hold their own, which no twelve living etchers can surpass, by such men as Corot, Edouard Frère, Lalanne, Yongkind, and Haden; and these twelve, together with the forty-eight less important prints, cost one hundred francs for Holland-paper proofs, or half as much for prints. These considerations are of weight to us Americans now that artists among us are beginning to etch, and expect five dollars apiece for their often crude performances.

—At the same time perfect fairness requires allusion to the manner of printing etchings. Mr. Haden, who is known to take peculiar personal care of the printing of his plates, and to leave nothing undone that forethought, personal supervision, and liberal outlay can do to secure their perfectness, has introduced the ideal state of things. The making of paper and the importing of "sepia from the Mediterranean" especially

for his "Calais Pier" may or may not have been necessary precautions; the result is fine, and worthy of Turner's design matched with Haden's execution; but it is not of that plate that we speak more than of others. It is understood now, when any London publisher announces a new plate by Mr. Haden, that every single impression will be examined and approved by the artist, that the number of impressions will be no more than seem to him to be perfect, the printing being arrested as soon as there are signs of wear, and that, as a result, every copy is as good as every other copy so far as practical worth is concerned. Thus, to return to the "Calais Pier," in the case of which plate it was announced that fifty copies of the first state, with the dark sky, and fifty of the second state, would be made, the writer having applied directly to Mr. Haden for a copy of the first state was offered one, but was advised to be content with the second state, of which he already had a copy, on the ground that Mr. Haden himself preferred it as a design, the impressions being assumed equally good. Mr. Haden's etchings of the last ten years have all been printed with astonishing perfection, and in this he has set a good example to other etchers. The Americans especially need to copy him in this. High-priced proofs are brought to us for sale which are as badly printed as it is possible for etchings to be.

—"An Arabian Night," produced last week at Daly's Theatre, is an adaptation of a German comedy by Von Moser, the adapting being done by Mr. Daly himself. To judge by the manner in which it was received by the audience, it is destined to have a considerable success. The plot of the play is founded on the theme which is so shocking to English and American moralists when it makes its appearance in French plays—marital inconstancy; but by some means, which are too subtle for our comprehension, Mr. Daly and Von Moser between them have managed it in such a way as to deprive it of most of its terrors. As moralists we cannot ourselves see much difference between such a play as "Contempt of Court" and "An Arabian Night," except that the latter is the broader of the two. But broad humor and vulgar fun will probably hold their own on the English stage for many a long day, and of these there is plenty in Mr. Daly's new play. Most of the characters in it are part of every playwright's stock-in-trade. There is the young husband, who has got himself into a scrape by his attentions to an unknown woman; there is his cynical and good-humored uncle, who is only too willing to believe the worst of him (a part capitally acted by Mr. Davidge); there is young *Moodle*, the fop; there is the young wife who believes everything she is told by her husband; the niece from abroad; the artist; the mother-in-law, who acts as detective upon the husband, and sows dissension between him and his wife; the faded landlady with young airs, the pert chambermaid, the knowing butler. All these are old friends. The character of the play is *Rosa Maybloom*, the unknown young woman, who turns out to be a bareback rider in a circus, and whose untimely intrusion into *Mr. Sprinkle's* happy home brings misery to him, and leads to all the subterfuge, misunderstanding, evasion, and intrigue which make up the play. The part of a circus-rider, who passes herself off upon a suspicious woman as the niece of her son-in-law, letting her real character be all the time quite evident to the audience, is not an easy one, and Miss Lewis certainly overdoes it, making the difference between her real and her assumed character grotesquely glaring. Mr. Charles Leclerq, who is too good an actor to be given such work to do, also overdid in rather a comical way the "cannon-ball tosser." The real niece, by Miss Lanner; the husband, by Mr. John Drew; the fop, by Mr. Parkes, were all well taken. The play drags, however, in the second and third acts and needs shortening. The "Arabian Night" is to be followed by an adaptation of the "Seecadet," which is described in the bills as the "reigning Continental sensation," and which is also being played at one of the German theatres in this city. The modern German stage ought to prove a valuable addition to the resources of American dramatists. There are a host of comedies and plays of the sort known in German as "Posse mit Gesang," abounding in comical situations and lively dialogue, which might easily be Americanized. German plays are not so cleverly constructed nor so witty as French dramas, but there is a healthy vulgarity about them which an intelligent audience will never fail to discriminate from French indecency, as long as they are made acquainted in advance with the fact that the play is not of French origin.

—The first concert of the New York Oratorio Society took place on Saturday last in Steinway Hall. Mendelssohn's "Elijah," the oratorio selected for the occasion, has since its first performance in this country, now many years ago, been a great favorite with the general public. This and the oratorio of "St. Paul" show the genius of the composer in the most favorable light. They are full of lovely melodies, brilliant instrumentation, and dramatic effects, and have always enjoyed an amount of popularity which is perhaps only equalled by one composition of a sacred character—namely, Handel's "Messiah." A large and appreciative audience crowded Steinway Hall on Saturday night, and Dr. Damrosch has every reason to be satisfied with the success of the opening concert. The performance was, indeed, a very good one. The chorus, which appeared to be more numerous than on former occasions, was evidently thoroughly familiar with its work, and some of the numbers—as, for instance, the first chorus of the priests, "Baal, we cry to thee!"—were sung with great spirit. The celebrated final chorus of the first part, "Thanks be to God," was lacking in vigor and devotional fire, which are the characteristics of this beautiful composition. This, however, was the fault of the conductor, who dragged the *tempo* and did not insist upon a sufficiently marked accentuation of the rhythm. Mrs. Mary Louise Swift, who sang the soprano solo parts, is not an oratorio singer of the highest rank; her voice wants the necessary fulness, her style the classical composure, for such a place. But if she is unqualified to sing in an oratorio of Bach or Handel, her sweet voice, her modest and unassuming manner, are particularly appropriate for the gentle *andante* movements of Mendelssohn's sacred music. Miss Drasdil is the oratorio singer *par excellence;* the low and plaintive tones of her voice are heard to the greatest advantage in the solemn strains of church music. Her rendering of the well-known "O rest in the Lord" was admirable in every respect. Mr. Fritsch is a great favorite with lovers of light music as an excellent singer of German ballads, particularly of a hilarious character, and Italian operatic airs. He is altogether out of place in oratorio music, so much so that his rendering of some numbers in Saturday's concert bordered on the ridiculous. Mr. Whitney was not in very good voice, but his rendering of the long and difficult part of "Elijah" was in every respect artistic and noble.

—Mr. W. H. Sherwood gave a series of three pianoforte recitals which deserve more than a passing notice. This young artist was heard here towards the end of last season and produced a very favorable impression. Since then he has made great progress, and is undoubtedly entitled to a very high rank among pianoforte players, of whom there is just now an *embarras de richesses* in this country. The chief characteristics of Mr. Sherwood's playing are an absolutely faultless technique and a very even and highly-finished touch. For this reason he is best in works of the most modern school, in Schumann, Chopin, Liszt, Rubinstein, etc. He is decidedly wanting in the breadth and power needed to play Bach, and in the depth of conception and passion which Beethoven requires. This was strikingly evident in the first two numbers of the first concert, Bach's great Organ Fantasia and Fugue in G minor arranged for piano by Liszt, and Beethoven's last pianoforte Sonata, Op. 111. The transcendent technical difficulties of this last-named composition were admirably mastered by Mr. Sherwood, but he has no idea what Beethoven means by an *Allegro con brio ed appassionato*. His rendering of Schumann is very clear and intelligent, but sometimes wanting in that inner warmth which the most poetic of all composers requires. Mr. Sherwood is most successful with Liszt and Chopin; the étude, "Waldesrauschen," by the former composer, and almost every number by the last named, were rendered by the young artist in a truly admirable manner. Mr. Sherwood is an excellent octave-player; his performance of Kullak's octave étude was a wonderful exhibition of the strength and flexibility of his wrist.

—The London newspapers have of late made such a stereotyped phrase of the statement that the English have become a musical nation that foreigners have almost felt obliged to believe it unconditionally, even though the names of English composers are now as conspicuously absent from concert-programmes as heretofore. Our only means of judging the truth of the boast is the musical literature and criticism published in London, and this certainly is not inconsistent with the claims advanced. There is hardly a paper in Germany which publishes such instructive and interesting criticism as constantly appears in the *Times*, and there is in Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' an amount of well-digested and discriminative writing such as can be found in no similar work in any other language, including German. This proves the existence in England of a body of musicians who in erudition are hardly the inferiors of their German colleagues, while they have an advantage over the latter in their inherited national literary skill and taste. But what of the nation at large? Has that become musical? According to the London correspondent of the *Vossische Zeitung* it has not. This writer, a pupil of Spohr, insists that of all the arts which Puritan asceti-

cism put under ban, music has so far failed to recover its lost ground. A piano is, indeed, to be found in every parlor, but is regarded by Englishmen of the old school either as one of the necessary evils of life or else as an elegant piece of furniture, and as such procured of the furniture dealer, the chief consideration being that it shall match with the chairs and tables, its musical qualities being of secondary importance. The writer appears to have suffered a good deal from ambitious young ladies whose chief desire is to execute the latest operatic melody with the left hand alone, or at the hands of ambitious young men who practise that semi-musical instrument, the cornet, which has become the fashionable instrument in the "higher circles"; and these sufferings seem to have led him to take a perhaps too pessimistic view of affairs. Most of his reflections, however, come near enough to the truth, as when he says that the directors of the larger orchestras, Costa, Benedict, Manns, are foreigners; the members of the orchestras are mostly Germans; the composers are either Scotch, like Bishop and Macfarren, or Irish, like Balfe and Thomas Moore; and the only prominent English composer, Sterndale Bennett, was educated in Germany, and is, in his works, chiefly an imitator of Mendelssohn, without any marked originality. The most that can be said of the English as a "musical people" is, therefore, that they have tried very hard to assimilate the musical tastes and habits of foreigners, while their resources have enabled them to make of London the principal resort of all the great living artists.

—Music, as is evident from all accounts, is now "the thing" in London, and every person with a claim to æsthetic respectability must make his appearance at the Philharmonic concerts, the Handel oratorios, and the Italian opera. Whenever there is a classical concert the newspapers, with comic gravity, call attention to the fact that the audience listened with evident attention and remained to the very end. What heroes! Perhaps the most suspicious thing about the vaunted musical culture in England is the tendency to make a certain composer fashionable for a time, and then drop him, to make room for some one else. On this topic there are some suggestive remarks by Mr. Statham in the June number of the *Fortnightly*. For a time there was a Rossini *furore*, then Mendelssohn for a long time became the lion of the day until he was superseded by Schumann, who, too, has "had his day, and is now making way for Wagner." Mr. Statham endeavors to point a moral from this state of affairs, and cautions Mr. Grove not to let Mr. Dannreuther write the articles on Liszt and Wagner for his dictionary; because Wagner too, like Mendelssohn and Schumann, may soon cease to be the fashion in England, and then Mr. Dannreuther's articles would be "a permanent blot on the dictionary by committing it to ill-regulated enthusiasms, which can only be of temporary acceptance." As if the value to be assigned to a musician in a dictionary were to be gauged by the probability of his remaining a fashionable article with the London public! It is psychologically interesting to observe what sinuous methods some critics resort to in their desire to disparage modern composers. All things considered, Mr. Statham is doubtless right in saying that, notwithstanding a considerable amount of hypocrisy, there is a real advance in the appreciation of music of the highest class in England. But until she abates somewhat her ecstatic admiration for sentimental ballads and showy arias; her one-sided prima-donna worship connected therewith; her ranking Handel above Bach, and Mendelssohn above Schumann; her calling the "Flying Dutchman" Wagner's masterwork; her excluding Biblical subjects from the stage, and thus rendering the performance of such beautiful works as Rubinstein's "Maccabees" impossible; and until she is able to employ orchestral conductors and performers of her own nationality, and has given to the world at least one symphony, oratorio, or opera of the first order of merit, England can hardly pretend to have really become a musical nation.

—The November number of *Blackwood's Magazine*—which since its foundation has numbered among its contributors every Tory writer of ability in England—unmasks a very disreputable piece of business, the true nature of which, it is safe to say, would not have been discovered if it had not been for the penetration of a *Blackwood* contributor. From an article entitled "Whig Reviewers, as Painted by Themselves," we learn that in publishing the selections from his father's correspondence, so widely and favorably noticed by a superficial, not to say a suborned, press, Mr. Macvey Napier was guilty of "uncovering his father's literary nakedness," which can only be compared to the similarly unfilial performance of "Noah's second son." It would, however, be well for him if his flagitiousness had only injured the memory of his father. The *Edinburgh Review* itself, "in its present respected position," must have been as shocked by it as we all are "when brought unexpectedly face to face with any forgotten fruit of our early excesses." The "surviving friends and families" of Mr. Napier's contributors are also injured, as many of these, it is neatly remarked, "have themselves told their own stories still more advantageously." They appear to have been about the most quarrelsome, unprincipled, and meanest happy family that were ever associated even by the common bond of Whiggery, and the only thing that palliates Mr. Napier's offence against public decency in exposing them is the circumstance that they had sufficiently exposed themselves before. Each of them "arrogated to himself the claim [*sic*] of having founded the *Review*," and consequently all but one of them must have been liars. There was from the very first "a furious rivalry between the contributors themselves as individuals, and between the contributors as a body and the editor." When Jeffrey resigned the editorship "for the certain prospect of political preferment" he was so hard bestead to find in Edinburgh a successor of any literary standing who was also a Whig that he was forced to get a stool-pigeon in Mr. Napier—in itself a nefarious procedure. At this juncture "there was a general disposition to show restiveness," and "the best thing we can say of Mr. Macvey Napier" is that he saved "both his party and his publisher from the scandal of an outbreak." The quarrels between Brougham and Macaulay form "the backbone of interest" of the Correspondence, though the writer in *Blackwood* seems to be interested in a number of other quarrels also. The sense as well as the spirit of the Reviewers he apparently esteems lightly. He says: "We find Carlyle's reputation as a thinker increasing in a fixed ratio with the incomprehensibility of his utterances"; affirms "that for Holland House they all had a nervous and superstitious regard"; intimates that they were the next thing to traitors to their country, as well as hypocritical in their party relations; and reaches a climax of contempt in asking, *apropos* of Bulwer's association with them: "Mais que diable allait-il faire dans cette galère?" The only relief to all this blackness is a letter from Wilson, "the most genial and kindly in the whole volume," which is natural, as Wilson was a Tory. What is it in the air of Caledonia that forbids us to suppose this grave paper the excellent "skit" it might be taken for if published in a milder climate?

—A warning voice has finally been raised in Germany itself—the land which writes so many odes to its native tongue and then neglects and abuses it so shamefully—against the mania for translating French and English books. What makes this warning still more significant is its appearance in a newspaper especially devoted to foreign literature, the Leipzig *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes*. Two leading articles are given up to the development of this theme. Foreign wares are cheaper than domestic, sometimes cost very likely nothing but the mere pittance doled out to the poor hack who tortures them into translators' German, and so they are naturally given the preference by newspaper editors in their feuilletons and by book publishers equally eager for a favorable balance-sheet. The condition of translators by profession has become so miserable in Germany that one of the guild recently issued a touching appeal to the public for sympathy with "this class of our fellow-citizens," and proposed the formation of a sort of trades-union as a measure of common defence against the publishers. The harm which cheap and hasty versions do is much more serious in German than in English or French, for in German the *Sprachgefühl*, or instinctive sense of right and wrong in expression, is extremely weak. Of course there *are* now and then, in German, ways of saying a thing which the genius of the language strictly forbids; nevertheless in general half a dozen clumsy ways have the same civil rights with the one accurate and deft way. Further, the class tempted by poverty to do this harm, and equipped with a reading knowledge of English or French, is very large.

—In our own language many more translations appear nowadays than formerly. Of course a still larger number are made but never published. One prominent New York publisher keeps ready a printed circular which he sends to amateur translators along with their rejected manuscripts. In this circular it is stated that not one tithe of the translations offered him are accepted, and that not one tithe of those he accepts succeed with the public. Even those which succeed are often written in a sort of broken English. They are read, perhaps, for the sake of the ideas that struggle to the surface, but they are read with ever-increasing nervous irritation. The final revision of a translation for the press should certainly not begin until the words of the original have entirely faded from the mind of the translator, and then the revision should be finished without once recurring to that original. We leave out of account in our censures such poetical translations as Taylor's 'Faust,' and, perhaps, Longfellow's 'Dante,' for translating poetry is, after all, contending with impossibilities. These versions are no doubt praised by Germans and

Italians respectively, nevertheless it seems as if an Englishman could enjoy them more thoroughly if he were acquainted with German or Italian, and could keep the original by him constantly to explain and justify the translation. Then, again, we are not inclined to be too severe towards occasional actual mistranslations, whether arising from ignorance or momentary carelessness. Mrs. Bunnètt mistakes *childish* for *childlike* in Grimm's 'Michael Angelo,' and greatly mystifies the reader. Hayward, if we are not mistaken, turns *fideler*, "jolly good" (from the Latin *fidelis*), into *fiddler*, in his excellent prose 'Faust.' Finally, Carlyle, as cited but not corrected by Bayard Taylor in his 'German Studies,' makes Jean Paul's brothers and sisters trot along by their father's side in the twilight *under his nightgown*, whereas the original says *among* [the folds of ?] *his dressing-gown*. All this may pass, but the one crying evil, which no mere commercial motives should ever induce a publisher to tolerate, is bad English. What we mean by bad English two passages to which we opened in recent translations will clearly show. The first is from Rydberg's 'Roman Days' (Putnams): "Cautiously, the war was waged, it is true; for circumspection, he said to himself, is a commander's pre-eminent virtue; but to the decision of his aim, the bold blows testify that he struck, when mildness was not enough. Can it be thought possible that the secret foe of a free condition of the people," etc., etc. The second is from Jacquemart's 'Ceramic Art' (Scribner): "The Este family . . . have a claim to our interest upon more than one title. . . . It is then by the assistance of the learned Modenese, and in supporting ourselves upon the works preserved in the most important collections, that we are going to rebuild the history of the products of Ferrara." Thackeray—see the conversations of his Frenchmen in the 'Newcomes'—was the great master in this kind of English.

—Michel Chevalier, Professor of Political Economy in the College of France, Member of the Institute, Senator under the Empire of Napoleon III., Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor, and author of numerous works on political economy and cognate subjects, died at Paris last week, in the seventy-third year of his age. In his youth he accepted the doctrines of Saint-Simon, and advocated them with so much vigor that he fell under the ban of the Government and was condemned to a year's imprisonment, six months of which effectually cured him. He was then released and sent to the United States (1834–5) on a public employment to report upon the system of roads and canals in this country. The result of this journey was a painstaking and meritorious work in two volumes, one of which consisted entirely of maps, drawings, and mathematical illustrations. M. Chevalier had been educated as a civil engineer, and his selection for this work was attributable mainly to that fact; but a series of letters which he wrote at the same time to the *Journal des Débats* on the social and industrial aspects of the United States proved that he possessed the capacity of observation in a high degree. These letters attracted much attention, and were collected and published in a volume in 1836, and subsequently translated into English and republished in this country. In 1840 he was made professor of political economy in the College of France, where he laid the foundation of his fame as writer and teacher of the principles of the science. Three large volumes—the third entitled 'La Monnaie,' published in 1866—constitute his 'Cours d'Économie Politique.' They are well adapted to the end the author had in view, being a series of lectures addressed to college students, but are not remarkable. The volume on Money traces with great perspicuity the history and development of monetary ideas and monetary science in Europe, and is fairly entitled to a place among standard economical works. M. Chevalier's treatise on "the probable fall in the value of gold" is important for its wide range of statistical information, but events since its publication have proved that its scientific standpoint was erroneous—as the author acknowledged by becoming a stout adherent of the gold standard. As the negotiator with Cobden of the commercial treaty with England he conferred a great and probably lasting benefit upon his country, since whatever lodgment the principles of free-trade have acquired in France, outside the circle of thinkers and scholars, dates from that event. Without great originality of thought M. Chevalier became known to the world as the most considerable name among contemporary French economists, and one of the most useful public men of his time.

—An examination of candidates for the post of librarian at the universities and other public institutions in France has just been held in Paris, there being four or more vacancies to be filled. According to the instructions issued a year ago by the Minister of Public Instruction, the requirements were an essay on some subject relating to bibliography, and "the classification of fifteen works treating of different subjects, and belonging to different epochs of printing." Included in this classification were all the various operations performed in cataloguing. "Close and perfectly clear handwriting is an indispensable condition." This action of the French Government will doubtless lead to the establishment of librarians' schools, or the endowment of professorships of library economy in the universities, and a corps of highly-trained men will in the not very distant future serve the various libraries to the great advantage of the science of bibliography. Still, it should never be forgotten that the head of a great public library has need of other and far higher attainments than a knowledge of bibliography and the rules of cataloguing.

THE LETTERS OF DICKENS.*

SCARCE a decade has elapsed since the death of Dickens, and ten years make far too brief a period in which to determine by induction the relation between such amazing contemporary vogue as his was and permanent fame. Nevertheless, few of us have any doubt, we suppose, that, on however different grounds, many of his creations will be as much admired and found to be as admirable in the next century as they have been in this; they contain, even if they do not consistently and completely embody, a union of truth and freshness, of originality and nature, upon which the lasting fame of literary creations has always built securely. But ten years are nearly enough to show that in Dickens himself the future admirers of his works will take almost no interest at all. In reading through these letters one's irresistible feeling is that it is at least well that their publication was not delayed longer, if, indeed, it has not been delayed too long already. They present the man very adequately, we imagine, and, in presenting him, inevitably betray how slight was the real foundation for the quick personal interest taken in him during the last thirty or forty years. Every one must remember this: how the family circle, the lyceum platform, and even the pulpit used to discuss with excited warmth the essential difference between real Christianity and ecclesiasticism, between true philanthropy and hypocrisy, between snivelling cant and hearty, frank humanity, as illustrated in his character as well as in his writings; how it used to be debated whether or no he drank too much brandy, whether he went to church, whether he sympathized with the North or South in our civil war, whether he meant to deride the clerical calling in his "gross caricatures," Stiggins and Chadband, whether he or his wife was to blame for their domestic trouble, and so on; how seriously the 'American Notes' were taken in this country, and how anxious we were—even the tobacco-chewers—to evince our magnanimity when their author revisited us; what an unprecedented *furore* he then created; how widespread and intimate was the grief manifested when he died; and, finally, after his death what countless magazine articles and lectures were written, not only about his books but about his personality. From the elaborate 'Life' by Mr. Forster to the 'Whispering Gallery' recollections of Mr. James T. Fields, the supply of personal information concerning him has been all that the thirstiest public could crave. It is, of course, not difficult to account for this. The works of Dickens were not only universally popular, which of itself would suffice to create an interest in their author; they were intrinsically remarkable, and argued that such an interest was deserved. To discover to the many the great discrepancy between the worth of his works and of him, despite the mass of inadvertent testimony constantly witnessing this to the discerning few, the lapse of time was essential. But, though the lapse of time is slow it is also certain, and, unless we are mistaken about the fact, popular interest in the man has already appreciably declined, if it has not subsided. There are probably few who will read these two volumes from cover to cover.

Nevertheless, no small portion of them is worth reading. They will not materially modify the discerning reader's notion of Dickens, but they will emphasize, point, and explain it; and we are tempted to add, out of their emptiness. They throw, too, some light on what is after all a curious problem, how such a man, namely, could have written such books; they show how loose are our stock ideas of such matters, and how entirely possible it is for a writer of remarkable genius, high spirits, and humor to be at the same time a rather coarse-fibred and conventional kind of man, from acute interest in whom all but his friends may be dispensed. As 'Letters' they are not entertaining. The chief charm of ana is, perhaps, the circumstance that it ought not to be written. "How happy it comparatively is," says the biographer of John Sterling, "for a man of any earnestness of life to have no biography written of him"; and one feels what Will Waterproof means in lamenting the time when the Poet

* 'The Letters of Charles Dickens. Edited by his Sister-in-law and his Eldest Daughter.' 2 vols. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879.

"flash'd his random speeches,"
Ere days that deal in ana swarm'd
His literary leeches.

But this is what is called taking high ground, and, though we are far from saying Dickens was not "a man of any earnestness of life," it is objection enough to Dickens ana to feel persuaded that there is no objection of this kind to make to it. No man lived less in "the fear of little books," or needed them less to make him "talk for show." The charm which consists in the mere fact of getting behind the scenes of a quiet man's life these 'Letters' afford. A large number of them are private letters, and fulfil the purpose of the editors "of showing him in his homely, domestic life." But this charm becomes very slight when it is seen that there is nothing in a "homely, domestic life" that distinguishes it from the life one lives in public. And there was nothing in Dickens's, so far as we here learn. Except the cause of his separation from his wife, there seems to have been nothing the disclosure of which could be considered a violation of delicacy—nothing intimate and private, to divulge which he would himself have hesitated. We do not, of course, mean moral errors and omissions, of which every man's life is full and the disclosure of which is scandal, but the thousand things, morally colorless, that in a man of subtle refinement make the difference between his private and public life, and before which he and his draw a screen whose removal is always the most interesting as it is the most difficult and delicate part of his biographer's duty. In the second place, the 'Letters' are not entertaining for the collateral contemporary gossip we should have said they would contain, and as so many "letters" and "memoirs" are. There are letters to Jerrold, Macready, Thackeray, Mark Lemon, Shirley Brooks, and others of the brilliant company in which Dickens moved, but they are of almost no objective interest.

The volumes, however, succeed in giving "the public another book from Charles Dickens's own hands—as it were, a portrait of himself by himself," as the preface announces, and if they furnish little of the entertainment one looks for in ana, this portrait is, as we say, worth examination. It is not painted in very vivid colors, and it is not a very sensitive and subtle countenance; but the very circumstance that this is so, and that at the same time it is an indisputably authentic sketch of the author of Dickens's works, makes it a curious study. We can give but a random hint or two of its lineaments, premising that for a total impression the reader will have to consult the sketch itself. He writes to "my dearest Macready" that in "my little Christmas book" ('The Chimes') "I have endeavored to plant an indignant right-hander on the eye of a certain wicked Cant that makes my blood boil, which I hope will not only cloud that eye with black and blue, but many a gentle one with crystal of the finest sort. God forgive me, but I think there are good things in the little story!" To Mr. Monckton Milnes (Lord Houghton) he writes: "That Nellicide was the act of Heaven, as you may see any of these fine mornings when you look about you. If you knew the pain it gave me—but what am I talking of? If you don't know, nobody does." To Cattermole, also referring to the "Nellicide," "I am for the time being nearly dead with work and grief for the loss of my child." These sentences illustrate, it seems to us, how sincere his attitude towards his own pathos was, and, considering the character of his pathos, quite as aptly the character of his sincerity. After a railway accident in which he was comparatively unhurt, but exhausted himself by helping the wounded among his fellow-passengers, he had the following circular-note prepared "in answer to innumerable letters of enquiry":

"Many thanks for your kind words of remembrance. This is not all in my own hand, because I am too much shaken to write many notes. Not by the beating and dragging of the carriage in which I was—it did not go over, but was caught on the turn among the ruins of the bridge—but by the work afterwards to get out the dying and the dead, which was terrible."

To Miss Mary Boyle: "Pray read 'Great Expectations.' I think it is very droll. It is a very great success, and seems universally liked. I suppose because it opens funnily, and with an interest too." To Miss Dickens, relating an accident and incipient panic at one of his crowded readings, during which a lady screamed and "ran out wildly towards" him: "I addressed that lady laughing (for I knew she was in sight of everybody then) and called out, as if it happened every night, 'There's nothing the matter I assure you; don't be alarmed; pray sit down'; and she sat down directly, and there was a thunder of applause. It took some minutes to mend" (the gas-batten had fallen), "and I looked on with my hands in my pockets; for I think if I had turned my back for a moment there might still have been a move." To the same, concerning his readings at Edinburgh: "The talk about 'Copperfield' rings through the whole place"; at Glasgow: "The whole Blackwood family were borne in on the top of a wave, and landed with their faces against the front of the platform"; at Torquay: "I read 'Copperfield' and positively enthralled the people"; and in a similar strain during his tour in this country, summing up the character of the late Mr. Staunton (*sic*), by the way, in a letter from Washington, thus: "He is a man of a very remarkable memory, and famous for his acquaintance with the minutest details of my books."

The reader who sees conceit in this sort of thing overshoots the mark, we fancy. One gives no evidence of conceit in being beautifully frank with one's sister-in-law. It simply illustrates how seriously Dickens took himself. He was always a part of his own audience, and reported what he did and what happened to him with conspicuous fidelity. It would be hard to find a more striking example of the conscious man; all that he seems to have been unconscious of was his own self-consciousness, and the esteem in which a betrayal of self-consciousness is held by certain fastidious people. There was nothing unwarrantable in his self-concentration, moreover. Everybody about him all his life encouraged his serious view of himself, talked much of the "reforms" he had worked with Dotheboys Hall, and Jarndyce *vs.* Jarndyce, and his little Nells and Joes and Pauls and Tiny Tims. And it was not only excusable but inevitable, since to avoid it in such circumstances requires either ingrained fineness of fibre or subtlety of perception, and Dickens was not fine-fibred or subtle of perception. But it is not the less unfortunate for being unavoidable, and with Dickens it operated curiously to narrow his range. We doubt if as many letters of any of the men worthy to be ranked as his compeers could be collected which would show such a limited concern for the world in which he personally played no part. December 3, 1861, he writes from Glasgow: "I fear the North to be utterly mad, and war to be unavoidable"; in May, '63: "A very intelligent German friend of mine, just home from America, maintains that the conscription will succeed in the North, and that the war will be indefinitely prolonged. *I* say 'No,' and that however mad and villanous the North is, the war will finish by reason of its not supplying soldiers. We shall see. The more they brag the more I don't believe in them." Greater sages than Dickens shared these views at the time, but his expression of them has something unique and characteristic about it; and we shall make room for the following extract, not because time has shown its foolishness but because it displays a tone and temper he invariably employed in speaking of most subjects outside the realm of private theatricals and the works of Dickens—the tone and temper of incurable superficiality in serious matters:

"If the Americans don't embroil us in a war before long it will not be their fault. What with their swagger and bombast, what with their claims for indemnification, what with Ireland and Fenianism, and what with Canada, I have strong apprehensions. With a settled animosity towards the French usurper, I believe him to have always been sound in his desire to divide the States against themselves, and that we were unsound and wrong in 'letting I dare not wait upon I would.' The Jamaica insurrection is another hopeful piece of business. That platform-sympathy with the black—or the native, or the devil—afar off, and that platform-indifference to our own countrymen at enormous odds, in the midst of bloodshed and savagery, makes me stark wild. Only the other day here was a meeting of jawbones of asses at Manchester to censure the Jamaica governor for his manner of putting down the insurrection! So we are badgered about New-Zealanders and Hottentots, as if they were identical with men in clean shirts at Camberwell, and were to be bound by pen and ink accordingly. So Exeter Hall holds us in mortal submission to missionaries, who (Livingstone always excepted) are perfect nuisances, and leave every place worse than they find it. . . . I seem to be grumbling, but I am in the best of humors. All goes well with me and mine, thank God."

In the best of humors, happily, Dickens almost invariably found himself, we judge; cast down only occasionally by grief at an enforced "Nellicide,' and then able to recover speedily after having enjoyed the contrast of light and shade in his sensibility, and having communicated his sensation. High spirits are as constantly attested in these letters as the other qualities we have mentioned. They do not seem to desert him even when he is writing to his presumably anxious sister-in-law and daughter details of his bad health: "My cold sticks to me, and I can scarcely exaggerate what I sometimes undergo from sleeplessness," he writes from New York to Miss Hogarth. "The day before yesterday I could get no rest until morning, and could not get up before twelve. This morning the same"; and so on with what would be querulousness in a less scrupulous reporter, but is manifestly here only an exact diagnosis, interesting in itself. Of humor we get but little, and that less entertaining than the same quality in his books, for the sufficient reason that as a character-background

their creator compares unfavorably with Mr. Richard Swiveler, "Prooshan Blue," and their companions. Upon the whole, it is perhaps possible from this portrait of Dickens by himself to account for the excellences and defects of his books, and for his authorship of them, but only by reading between the lines of the volumes. They are remarkably well edited, and evidently justify the acknowledgment of the preface to Mr. Wilkie Collins for help in the technical part of what is—we ought to add—a pious task faithfully performed.

RECENT BIOGRAPHIES OF LESSING.*

NOT till within the last decade or two would anything like a detailed account of Lessing and his literary achievements have been so widely welcome among the English-speaking nations as to remunerate the trouble of presentation. Known chiefly, and yet scarcely save to curious readers, through review articles, two or three of his dramas, and particularly 'Nathan the Wise,' Lessing was long generally regarded as one of those unassimilable foreigners a very slight acquaintance with whom is deemed justly proportionate to their deservings. Of the obligations due to him by modern thought, and in lines of study the most disparate, few were at all aware, his own countrymen excepted. They, however, have never, at least since his death, been blind to his eminent merits; and, as time has worn on, they have recognized those merits with constantly increasing distinctness and gratitude. That, after their wont, they have in many cases imaginatively exalted and transformed him into something against which, with his profound sense of equity, he would have vehemently reclaimed, was only to be looked for. Yet, when contemplated with all dispassionateness, he stands before us as a most imposing figure. Taken for all in all, he is, indeed, such that to be pronounced comparable with him is no disparagement even to the foremost of the celebrities who have shed a lustre on the literature of Germany.

Lessing was born in 1729 and died in 1781. His father was a Lutheran clergyman, and he himself was intended for the church. In his eighteenth year he entered the University of Leipzig. After a while he became, but only in name, first a student of theology and then a medical student. But while still at school he had written a play, the first-fruits of a vocation for which, at the outset, he thought himself peculiarly fitted, and which he pursued, intermittently, almost to the close of his career. From an early age his diligence, alike as an investigator and as a writer, was indefatigable. At the same time he was far from being by option a recluse. Barring what he observed during a hurried tour through Italy, his experience of men and manners was confined, after boyhood, to Leipzig, Berlin, Wittenberg, Breslau, Hamburg, and the solitudes of Wolfenbüttel, where he spent the eleven last years of his life. In the autumn of 1776 he married a lady every way worthy of him, Eva König, a widow, who died in January, 1778, as did the son to whom she was then giving birth. He felt her loss most keenly. Rallying from it, he produced, in the course of the three years that still remained to him, three of his most original works, which are also certainly the maturest of all his writings. We refer to his 'Nathan the Wise,' 'Education of the Human Race,' and 'Ernst and Falk.' While still at the zenith of his intellectual vigor he was assaulted by that strange malady, ossification of the arteries; a phenomenon which rarely exhibits itself but in extreme old age. A stroke of apoplexy supervened, and then came the end. So poor was he at his death that the Duke of Brunswick, his patron, had to defray the charges of his interment. Long subsequently, it was not without persevering quest that the humble stone was discovered which marks his last resting-place.

Whatever the subject-matter handled by Lessing, we are at once struck, on scanning his treatment of it, by the amplitude of his erudition, by his firmness of grasp, and by the sincerity of his convictions. Nor are his mental and moral characteristics denoted exhaustively by this beadroll of merits. To those from whom he differed, with their arguments and deliverances, he was all but absolutely just: a fact which is the more remarkable in that nearly all which he wrote is, directly or indirectly, polemic. From prejudice of every description he was also well-nigh entirely free. Notwithstanding that he worked his way eventually to views about as far removed as possible from the rigid Lutheranism which was instilled into him in his youth, his attitude, as towards creeds, was that of a mind through and through judicial. While his juvenile associations and reminiscences nowise illogically colored, in their favor, the conclusions at which he finally arrived, neither, as is so frequently observable in recalcitrants against traditionalism, did they operate, by provoking a recoil, to recommend to him their dogmatic antipodes. A scrutinous survey of facts, and a calm and fearless use of reason, were with him indispensable antecedents to any decision touching what he accepted or rejected. Considering the grossly slanderous personalities with which he was assailed by some of his antagonists, it is noteworthy that, being a Teuton and a master of every variety of vocabulary, he should not, in reprisals, have gone further in invective than he is seen to have gone in his regrettable 'Vade-mecum für Herrn S. G. Lange' and in certain of his letters to Klotz. And here a word must be said of his epigrams. As a whole they cannot be commended as chaste compositions, any more than as felicitous; not a few of them, besides that they lack miserably both salt and point, being uncleanly to the full degree which entitles them to the designation of classical.

We have noted that Lessing died in poverty; and in poverty, or something near it, he passed all his days. Yet, even when most hardly bestead to make good his own immediate wants, he ever lent a willing ear to the suit of his importunate kinsmen. Nor was this all. His sympathies were genuinely cosmopolitan; his very friendship for Moses Mendelssohn is a pregnant proof that they were so. Like Dr. Johnson—whom he resembled in several points, such as penury of the poetic faculty, deficiency in ear for rhythm, insensibility to the beauties of nature, and dislike of Gothic architecture—he was a friend of castaways. In his fellow-men, politically considered, he yet seems to have taken but a tepid interest. Voluminous and varied as is his correspondence, it is never with the citizen as such that he therein concerns himself. There are, however, in the very latest of his writings passages which can bear no interpretation but such as comports with a distinctly democratic tendency. For all this, in the same composition, which appeared the year before our national autonomy was acknowledged by Great Britain, he has only to say with reference to the struggle of our forefathers that "what costs blood is surely not worth blood." This in passing. Lessing, indifferent as he may have been to humankind in its relation to the state, was a true friend of freedom; averse to domineering, and as averse to the arts of the flatterer or the sycophant. A lifelong laborer for hire as he was, and constantly a critic of popular or influential authors, he never once stooped even to assentation; and, dreaded as he was by those who crossed argumentative weapons with him, he never once took unfair advantage of the weakness of an adversary.

Here, indeed, we have tokens of most of the elements of character which warrant us in calling their possessor magnanimous. Yet we miss in Lessing what we miss so conspicuously in his contemporary, Voltaire—the virtue of masculine equanimity. In other words, so far forth, he was at bottom a typical German; for a German, whether a savage, or a sentimentalist, or whatever else, is very seldom indeed a placid and substantial philosopher, an Epicurean of choice and a Stoic at need. Most that was inevitable to Lessing was of his own inducing; and he might have averted it by conciliation which would have cost him no sacrifice but abstention from wholesale belligerency, and from writing with bitterness where urbanity would have proved equally if not more serviceable. Very far from agreeable is the impression left on us by his letters, where we find him perpetually railing and wincing at some one whose abuse he had incurred by his irritating onslaughts, or else moaning over his straitened circumstances, or fretting and sulking about his loneliness. In brief, he lacked, in a rather pronounced degree, that serene, reserved, and self-reliant manliness and fortitude which characterize him who is cast in the true heroic mould.

Few are the departments of thought for which Lessing did not evidence an aptitude; and there are few about which, at some time or other, he did not manifest warm curiosity. That he might have excelled even in a pursuit so alien as mathematics to the multitudinous subjects over which he ranged, indications are not wanting. It was his preference, and no doubt wisely, above all things to cultivate his critical faculty. No man was ever less a passive recipient of opinion; and he praises quite as rarely as he acquiesces. Untiring student as he was, his judgment was never for a moment in a state of suspended animation. Step by step, as he fared forward, he collated, weighed, and measured, and registered the results to which the best ascertained facts and straightforward logic necessitated him. He subverts, it must be granted, more than he establishes; and yet, even where he is most thoroughgoingly destructive, he has, as a rule, something weighty to offer in suggestion, constructively. Especially as a theologian his services cannot easily be overrated. He is, in truth, the originator of that phase of modern enlightenment which

* 'Lessing. By James Sime.' In two volumes. With portraits. London: Trübner & Co. 1877. Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co.
'Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, his Life and his Works. By Helen Zimmern, author of 'Arthur Schopenhauer, his Life and his Philosophy.'' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1878.

has refused to rest satisfied with despoiling Satan of his hoofs and tail. Almost, too, if not without qualification, he is to be accounted the first effective pioneer of reasoned æsthetics. As to literary taste, it is mainly to him that his countrymen are indebted for their emancipation from the shackles of French influence, which Gottsched threatened to rivet on them in permanence. Following the lead of Opitz, he also largely contributed, practically as well as by precept, towards prevailing on his compatriots to discard superfluous foreign vocables, and to reinstate, with such modifications as were requisite, the homely but vigorous speech of Luther. And it was by no means simply in the avoidance of useless Gallicisms that he set a praiseworthy example as a stylist. For lucidity, directness and conciseness of expression, and some slight approach to grace, he stands, to this hour, prominent, and all but paramount, in German literature. Would that his mantle had fallen on more of his successors! But we must have done, conscious as we are that what we have said is, though of necessity, most inadequate. Only to hint very briefly and imperfectly what he was and what he did, is practicable within the restricted space which we have at our disposal.

Of Mr. Sime's excellent biography we shall not attempt a circumstantial examination. It richly deserves a place in every well-appointed library. The author is intimately conversant with everything pertaining to Lessing, and has depicted him, both as man and as author, with remarkable thoroughness and ability. His work has already been honored with translation into Lessing's own language; a circumstance significant of its sterling value. Whether narrating, commenting, or analyzing, Mr. Sime approves himself an adept in book-craft.

As a Scotchman, he has naturally devoted more pages to Lessing's metaphysics than the mass of readers will care for; but this is a trifle. Less trifling, in these days of so much careful writing, are his rather abundant solecisms. Sentences such as "Give me a room . . . and I *shall* here complete my book," "I *should* gladly be a physician upon earth," and "At a distance I *would* lose the privilege of being able to visit you in the library," he shocks us with at every turn. Equally indicative of his habitat beyond the limits of England proper are his "*With* every step the arrows rattle upon the shoulders of the enraged god," "Here I cannot live *for* 800 thalers a year," and "*On* the year of his death, Schiller published his first drama." "Thereafter" for "after that," "pitiful" for "pitiable" or "miserable," "*quite* better," "*ambrosian* hair," "a *tingling* of rhymes," and "has *acquired* great attainments," are further samples of his violations of idiom. There is, too, his affected "goes without saying." And why "dramaturgie," as if "dramaturgy" were not the form, now that we have "liturgy," "metallurgy," "theurgy," and "thaumaturgy"?

To look for translators of German like Bishop Thirlwall and Mrs. Sarah Austin, among the dead, and like Miss Mathilde Blind, among the living, is to look for prodigies. Mr. Sime does not, to be sure, remind us of these incomparable artists; nor, on the other hand, does he evince the ignorance and heedlessness of Mr. Thomas Carlyle. He translates, though far from perfectly, better than fairly. A few of his slips we must notice. "I am very much mistaken, if far greater harm is not done by [*zu besorgen von*] jokes which our fine wits are accustomed [*belieben*] to call roguish," vol. i. p. 84. Read, to render the words interpolated, "to be apprehended from" and "pleased." "I hope you do not trust to me as if [*Sie mir zutrauen werden, als*] I had hung my studies on the nail," etc., vol. i. p. 220. Put "will not believe of me that I have," etc.; besides which "given up" is preferable to the literal Germanism just after. "We abstract ourselves from it" [read "we turn away from it," *Wir abstrahiren von ihr*], vol. ii. p. 31. "It is, indeed, true that we have abstracted [correctly, "inferred," *abstrahirt*] their character from their actual deeds," vol. ii. p. 36. "If you say it without believing a word of it, merely to stand well with me [*um mich zum Besten zu haben*], you are a dishonest man," vol. ii. p. 71. The very common locution here misrendered signifies "to ridicule," "to make game of." *Mit Ehren* is not "with learning" (vol. ii. p. 104), but "creditably." "Let an honest cobbler, who has leisure enough in his calling [rightly, "in spite of his last," *bei seinem Leisten*] to have many a good thought," etc., vol. ii. p. 292. Elsewhere we have, in all cases wrongly, "also" for *also*, "coy" for *artig*, "once more" for *auf einmal*, "slanderer" for *Cabalenmacher*, "at once" for *gleichsam*, "equally" for *gleichwohl*, "rascal" for *Ruschelkopf*, "perhaps" for *zuverlässig*, etc., etc. In vol. i. p. 286, we find "two" shoulders, instead of "broad," from mistaking *breiten* for *beiden*. And who would imagine that, in "the learned principles which make up his system" (vol. i. p. 94), "learned" could be meant as the equivalent of *auswendig gelernten*, "learned by rote"? Or that "The patriot *cries down* the poet" (vol. i. p. 167) was to be interpreted "outvoices," *überschreiet*? In vol. ii. p. 110, Adam Neuser is erroneously called "Adam Neusern." Some of the typographical corruptions are very distracting. Such are "Protagoras" for "Protogenes," vol. i. p. 248; "movements" for "moments," vol. i. p. 278; "place" for "plan," vol. i. p. 325; "dialectic" for "didactics," vol. ii. p. 267.

Miss Zimmern's performance, but for Mr. Sime's, would call for attention which it cannot now claim. Of the two works it is much the slighter. On the whole, it is, however, highly creditable. As might be expected, very rarely does the authoress supplement her predecessor in any way. At times, it is noticeable, she is far more positive than she has any good grounds for being. For instance, she will have it that the hero of 'Nathan the Wise' is "Lessing himself." She is censurably sparing of references, and almost never marks omissions when abridging passages of German which she Englishes. Her style is a curious medley, every here and there, of the ambitious and the slovenly. Her "steely brevity," "in arrears," and "genuses" intimate her possibilities. Further, she tells us that, on one occasion, "a void had entered into Lessing's life," and that, on another occasion, "he had been suffering from a veritable hydrophobia of all that concerned writing." Except when in the mood which prompts the invention of curiosities of this sort, she expresses herself with no little force and propriety.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

MRS. CORBIN'S 'Belle and the Boys' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.) is the story of a maiden of sixteen who relieves her mother of the care of her household—which includes two boys, aged twelve and eight respectively, and a baby about a year old—in order that the latter may recover her health by a visit to Europe. The task is beautifully accomplished, and the two boys are delivered to their mother at the end of the book with many faults corrected and with a profound affection for the "little mamma," as they call their sister. The "little mamma," it is pleasant to mention, feels a wonderful sense of relief that she can roll from her shoulders the heavy burden she has borne for six months, though nothing is said of her delight at having an opportunity to cease to be an unendurable little prig, which it is to be hoped she will take advantage of.

'Mildred at Roseland's' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a sequel to 'Mildred Keith' and, as a short preface tells, the precursor of another volume; it is also connected with a finished series called 'The Elsie Books.' It is of the kind that abounds in Sunday-school libraries. The heroine has been brought up in a Christian family, and during a visit at her uncle's in the South she shows the effect of this training by a well-sustained and apparently successful attempt to live a worthy Christian life when removed from her parents' influence. They, however, would doubtless have been pained to find her taking quite so conspicuous a stand as the teacher of her elders, and would probably have disapproved of her asking any person "modestly" but firmly, "But don't you think it a duty to try to please your husband and make his home attractive?"

Mrs. Hays's 'The Princess Idleways' (Harper & Bros.) is a prosaic fairy-tale of a little princess who becomes weary of life because her every wish is gratified; so she is sent into the woods to an old fairy Motherkin, who kindly corrects her faults, and teaches her to be useful and to share her gifts with the poor and unfortunate. We may mention one incident that is likely to be a source of unpleasant dreams to an imaginative child: the dwarf Grim, Motherkin's attendant, is told to carry the little princess up to her room; she attempts to run from him, but his arms lengthen out so that she is unable to escape. To offset this ugly image there are many pretty pictures in the book, which is on the whole, perhaps, above the average of its kind.

Mr. Edward Eggleston's 'Pocahontas,' in the series called "Famous American Indians" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is a graphic and accurate story of the adventures of Capt. John Smith and Pocahontas. It is meant, the preface says, "to attract young people to the early history of our own country"; and we can heartily recommend it to parents and teachers to supplement the work of the school-room. It is pleasantly written, and contains many extracts from Smith's writings, in the quaint English of the time, illustrated by a number of the original cuts. On the vexed question of the rescue of Capt. John Smith by Pocahontas, the writer takes what is probably the best course for a child's book. He tells the story as it is usually told, adding: "The story of her rescue of Smith may be doubted, but there can be no doubt that she saved the colony from starvation." Then an appendix discusses the question briefly, ending

with the statement that "there are some reasons for believing it [the story] to be true."

In his 'Magellan; or, the First Voyage round the World' (Lee & Shepard) Mr. George M. Towle has given us another of his capital series of books for boys. "Heroes of History" he entitles it, but so far he has chosen only discoverers; and this is very well, for a man is likely to work with more interest and success in a field which he has made his own. His next selection, 'Marco Polo,' is on every account an admirable one; and we hope that he will go on in this work, and bring all the great discoverers before his readers in the same vivid and instructive manner. They are just the books that are needed; when boys can have true stories as full of interest and adventure as these, we do not see why the wretched books of sensational fiction which they are now devouring should not disappear. Of this particular volume nothing especial need be said, except that it comes in very well as a sequel to the life of Vasco da Gama; for it was the acquaintance and conversation of Vasco da Gama that incited Magellan to his enterprise.

That boy will be lucky who gets Mr. Sidney Lanier's 'Boys' Froissart' (Chas. Scribner's Sons) for a Christmas present this year. There is no better and healthier reading for boys than "fine Sir John," and this volume is so handsome, so well printed, and so well illustrated that it is a pleasure to look it over. The selections here given comprise about one-ninth of the entire work, the editor tells us. They appear to us to have been made with good judgment, and will give the reader a tolerably complete view of the fourteenth century, beginning in the reign of Edward II. and ending with the death of Richard II. We have here the battles of Sluys, Crécy, and Poitiers, the siege of Calais, the career of Philip van Artevelde, and the insurrection of Wat Tyler, as well as some incidents in the revolt of the Jacquerie and the sedition of Étienne Marcel. The translation, so far as we have compared, is Johnes's; the editor gives as a reason for not using the "stronger, brighter, and more picturesque" translation of Lord Berners, that it would have been more difficult for his readers. In this he is probably right, although it seems a pity. He has, however, done a very good thing in appending to the account of the Battle of Crécy the same in Berners' translation, and also in the original French. The introduction is excellent, and yet we fancy part of it is as much above the level of the readers as Lord Berners' diction would have been. That is to say, after a brief sketch of Froissart's life, and some sensible words to boys upon true chivalry and what it means in the nineteenth century, Mr. Lanier goes on to speak of Sir Thomas Malory's 'Morte d'Arthur,' its origin in the chronicle of Geoffrey of Monmouth, and a comparison between the chivalry depicted by him and by Froissart. The comparison is instructive, but its tone and its scholarship are rather above the average of boys. There are twelve good, full-page illustrations; modern, but on the whole true to the period depicted. In the picture of "the blind king of Bohemia dead on the battle-field of Crécy" the king is represented as an old, gray-bearded man; he was, in truth, in full vigor, and only fifty years old—blind by disease, not by age. His name, moreover, was John, not Charles (p. 154).

The Rev. Edward E. Hale's 'Stories of War, told by Soldiers' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) purports to be a collection of descriptions of battles in the War of Secession, extracted from old newspapers and reports by some boys on a visit to a country house and kept indoors by a north-east storm. It is a pretty good book, nothing more. In the first place, many of the stories are not told by soldiers, but by newspaper correspondents; others are told by men who have written much but not well on military subjects; others, again, by self-praising soldiers, and by soldiers whose writings display a bad spirit and a disregard of truth. On the other hand, there are many interesting extracts from the reports of the able and successful soldiers of the war. In the second place, the compiler has admitted into his book much veritable stuff and nonsense. It is aggravating, at this time of day, to read of rebel entrenchments and the derring-do of the Black Horse Cavalry at the first Bull Run, and worse than aggravating to find Burnside represented as contributing to such success as we gained at the battle of the Antietam. If boys are to begin early to read stories of our war the stories should be told them truly, and the falsities of 1861 and the errors of later dates should not be reproduced for them. Allowance made for these defects, it is to be said that this book is readable, and many boys will probably find it very interesting.

The 'Bodley Family' has the more or less welcome flattery of imitation paid it by Mr. Richard Markham in his 'Around the Yule Log' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), which, even to the pseudo-Japanese cover, is patterned directly after its illustrious predecessor. Here it is the Longwood family whose holiday seaside frolic with some young friends in midwinter at the east end of Long Island is commemorated. Outdoor sports are mingled with fireside stories, more or less predetermined by the publishers' available supply of woodcuts, and we must do Mr. Markham the justice to say that there is rather more unity and verisimilitude in his book than in the chronicle of the Bodleys. The neighboring Shinnecocks lead up to King Philip's war and the Pilgrim Fathers; and besides there are tales of the Stamp Tax, the burning of the *Gaspé*, the capture of Gen. Prescott, the adventures of Captain John Smith, Hendrik Hudson's fate, the curiosities of natural history, etc.—a good assortment. If we have any criticism to make of so well-bred a narrative it is that we think the traditional merciless Indian and oppressive Britisher ought now to be withdrawn from juvenile literature, or, if retained, to be tempered by such other pictures of these American bogies as will nip prejudice in the bud, and inspire broader and more humane views of our fellow-creatures, for the welfare of the dusky portion of whom the younger generation will presently be responsible.

Of Olive Thorne Miller's 'Little Folks in Feathers and Fur, and Others in Neither' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) we can speak almost unreservedly in praise. It is a very unconventional talk, on the childish level, about penguins and turtles, and earwigs, and armadillos, and devil's darning-needles, and crabs, and codfish, and much else. The illustrations are excellent, being partly taken, as in 'Around the Yule Log,' from Louis Figuier's 'Ocean World.' The writer is perhaps open to slight criticism for her fantastic titles—*e.g.*, "a fellow who wears his ribs outside," "a little dark nursery under the ground," "your little servants." It is often some time before the name or even the species is reached in the description, and the infant curiosity seems needlessly piqued by this enigmatical method of avoiding scientific formality.

'Letters from a Cat' (Roberts Bros.) appears to be a reproduction of genuine letters written by a mother to her little girl away from home, as if by the forsaken pet. They are very clever and any child will enjoy the humor of them, but the book has a less permanent value than some others on our list of which the literary merit is inferior. "H. H.'s" preface might be thought unfortunately vindictive, seeing that it contains the only moral between the two covers.

Mr. Thomas W. Knox's 'Boy Travellers in the Far East; or, Adventures of Two Youths on a Journey to Japan and China' (Harper & Bros.) is a notable addition to the stock of good and elegant books for children. It is crammed with pictorial and other information; the writer speaks mostly from an unusual personal experience in foreign parts; and his "two youths" are properly put in charge of an older person, so that there is nothing sensational or unreal in their doings. Something might be desired occasionally on the score of refinement. "Doctor Bronson" is apt to be reminded of a little story of the kind found in the funny column of country newspapers; he has the national habit of "taking a toothpick from his pocket and settling back in his chair in the parlor of the hotel"; and he permits the boys to propound shocking conundrums. Herein lies most of his individuality. The author, on his side, indulges too freely in the "reportorial style," as when, instead of declaring a boatman naked, he states that he "was not encumbered with a large amount of superfluous clothing." But these lapses are unimportant, and can readily be forgiven in view of the general wholesomeness and instructiveness of the narrative. Here and there older readers will put an interrogation-mark which may be worth Mr. Knox's attention in another edition; for example (p. 57), against the statement that a whale's spouting is caused by the ejection from his lungs of a certain amount of water taken into them along with the air; and (p. 395), against the derivation of the word "coolie," said to be properly the name of a tribe of natives on the northern coast of Africa—where a hill-tribe of India should be read. The best of the illustrations are from photographs or from original Japanese drawings. Some we should have preferred omitted for their imperfect rendering of the Eastern type of countenance; others for their repulsive subjects, like torture among the American Indians and the Chinese. Finally, the publishers should have provided maps and an index; in all other respects their share of the work is irreproachable.

Any parent who values poetry as a means of discipline for the young will welcome a book of 'Moral Songs,' at least for its intention. The volume bearing this title from the pen of Mrs. C. F. Alexander (London: Masters & Co.) is externally attractive, and is adorned with vignettes and larger woodcuts after designs in not a few cases by women. The songs are nearly forty in number, and for the most part convey the "lesson" of the sunshine, the stream, the lark, the violet, the thorn-tree, etc., or embody a "thought." More to our liking are the unobtrusively moral pieces, like "The Little Sister Left in Charge," "The Boy and the Bee,"

and "The Swallow." A distinctly pious tone pervades the book, and its English origin appears in its consoling comparison of poor and rich, its lessons of contentment with one's lot, its note of charity. Mrs. Alexander's verse is not rare and seldom escapes being commonplace, but mothers will find much of it helpful and all of it intelligible to children.

A Portfolio of Proof Impressions selected from *Scribner's Monthly* and *St. Nicholas*. (New York: Scribner & Co.)—One hundred and two woodcuts have been selected from out the large number accumulated by the publishers of *Scribner*, and one thousand copies have been printed with care, though not with any peculiar precautions. The size of the page is about eleven by fourteen inches, one print only is put upon each page, and the whole surface of the page is covered with a grey tint printed on it, except that the space occupied by the cut itself and a small margin is left white. The paper is smooth and good, and not too glossy, which is a rare merit. On the other hand, it is a little too translucent, and the ghost of Cut xxi. worries you as you study Cut xx. The printed tint, we think, is in bad taste; it gives a cheap look to the cuts, and makes the book, which comes very near being a thing for even an amateur or a collector to buy and keep, seem too much like a gift-book. There is a full table or list of the engravings, giving the names of designers and engravers, and a very tolerable cover, with leather back and corners and cloth sides, printed with a design of which the lettering is unwisely fantastic and unsubdued, but the big medallion very good. This medallion is from a design by Mr. Francis Lathrop, and has the three heads of the printer, the engraver, and the designer—Gutenberg, Bewick, and Holbein.

Just now, with the mid-winter pressure upon our critical columns, we cannot take up the question as to how good, relatively, is the style of wood engraving affected by *Scribner's Monthly*, or at least introduced and developed by that magazine to a very great extent. Everybody knows what sort of work it is, and will know about what to expect in these proof copies of familiar pictures. We recognize some of our favorites, and some we have not liked as well, among the prints. Messrs. Cole, Marsh, Linton, and other strong engravers are represented.

Their Majesties' Servants: Annals of the English Stage from Thomas Betterton to Edmund Kean. By Dr. Doran, F.S.A. With a Memoir of Dr. Doran and an Introduction and Conclusion by R. H. Stoddard. Two volumes 8vo, pp. xxii. 424, 432. (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.)—Dr. Doran's 'Their Majesties' Servants' is one of the very best books ever written about the stage, and one of the half-dozen volumes which the wise critic would recommend to any enquiring student who sought to gain a knowledge of the history of the English stage, and to improve at the same time his theatrical taste. With Colley Cibber's 'Apology' and Lewes's little book 'On Actors and Acting' it ought to form the nucleus of every well-chosen dramatic library. Dr. Doran was a born gossip, with a great relish for the *minutiæ* and the *facetiæ* of literary history. He had a wide acquaintance with things not generally known—and not known, perhaps, because they were for the most part of little worth; but in Dr. Doran's hands they were fitted together with surprising skill. He was a compiler who might have been something better, a bookmaker all of whose books are readable; and these 'Annals of the Stage' form perhaps his strongest title to remembrance. He is here seen at his best; his liking for gossip and his love for the stage united to help him on his task. With untiring industry he waded through nearly all the many books about the stage, however shallow and however muddy. He was master not only of these facts and fables, but over and above his theatrical erudition he had sound dramatic taste.

The volumes before us are a reprint of the original American edition, always, if we mistake not, better than the English, and in greater favor among illustrators. The reissue is augmented by a memoir of Dr. Doran (whose life was very uneventful), beginning as far off from the subject as possible and working slowly down to it through the ages. It is written by Mr. R. H. Stoddard, who also contributes an unnecessary Introduction and a more welcome additional chapter carrying on the story to the retirement of Macready. Mr. Stoddard evidently has no special knowledge of the subject. On p. xi. in the memoir a list is given of Dr. Doran's books, omitting his 'Memoirs of British Towns.' On p. xv. we are told that we know "little or nothing of the first actors of the Elizabethan drama except their names and the parts they filled." The new edition of Mr. Collier's history is now accessible. The slur on Dr. Allibone (p. xvii.), who, in spite of his lapses, has deserved well of all who make literature a profession, is in the worst possible taste. On p. xix. occurs this passage:

"Dr. Doran enumerates above a hundred post-Shakespearian dramatists, none of whose productions (and they are very voluminous) can now be called stock-pieces. The most eminent were Dryden, Lee, and Otway, who represented the poetic side of the English drama—at any rate, they wrote in verse—and Congreve, Etherege, and Vanbrugh, who laid the foundation upon which Sheridan, Goldsmith, the Colmans, Cumberland, and others raised the structure of prose comedy. It is possible, I suppose, to read them, but the object in view must be imperative, and one's amount of unoccupied leisure endless."

The second sentence here implies, if it means anything, that in his plays Dryden was not a poet. The same sentence contains the name of Etherege and omits those of Wycherley and Farquhar. In like manner Cumberland is mentioned, no one of whose plays holds the stage, while no mention is made of Garrick, whose "Clandestine Marriage" and "High Life Below Stairs" are seen not infrequently and always with pleasure. In the chapter added to the second volume like errors are to be detected. Master Betty, the Infant Roscius, is again and again called Master Beatty; on p. 424 it is said that Sheil's "Damon and Pythias," brought out in 1821, has not been a success, although it keeps the stage to this day; and on p. 426 we find the phrase "his Majesties' servants." We remark also that the old index is reprinted, and that none of the new matter is incorporated in it; it contains, for instance, no mention of Macready, to whose career the last chapter is devoted.

A Practical Treatise on the Law of Ground Rents in Pennsylvania. By Richard M. Cadwalader. (Philadelphia: Kay & Brother. 1879.)—Mr. Cadwalader's book is a valuable contribution to a branch of law little studied and yet of much practical importance. As he says in his preface, with the exception of a lecture by Judge Sharswood on Tenure, and some magazine articles by Mr. Husbands, very little has been written about it. In Pennsylvania, ground rents, or perpetual leases, are very common; the whole city of Philadelphia may be said to have been built up by means of them; a fact alone sufficient to make the matter deserving of attention, on account of the close connection between the prosperity of densely-packed city populations and the system of tenure by which land is held in them. The difference between a system of improvement by the landlord and leases for short periods, and a sale of lands for improvement by the tenant with a reservation of an annual rent amounting to a fixed rate of interest on the purchase money, is practically the difference, so far as the working population of a city is concerned, between having a stake in the land and being a mere nomadic proletariat. The comparative comfort in which the poorer classes in Philadelphia live may be chiefly attributed to the system of ground rents. In a valuable note (p. 101) Mr. Cadwalader has collected a great deal of information as to the system of tenancy prevailing in other parts of the world; and it is curious to notice that the Pennsylvania system has been called to the attention of the British Government by the English Consul at Philadelphia, as offering a solution of the land question in Ireland in the case of unimproved lands. As a legal treatise Mr. Cadwalader's book will be found of great value to the practising lawyer, and also to the student of tenure both in Pennsylvania and elsewhere. His collection of authorities is full, and his work is evidently the result of much labor carefully and judiciously applied.

The Exploration of the World. By Jules Verne. Famous Travels and Travellers. Translated by Dora Leigh. With Illustrations by L. Benett and P. Philippoteaux, and Fac-similes of Ancient Drawings. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879. 432 pp 8vo.)—The admirers of Jules Verne's brilliant geographical novels will find little to enjoy in 'The Exploration of the World.' In a sober record of voyages one should not, of course, look for the exciting incidents of a romance, but it is not too much to expect to find in it some traces of the author's undoubted genius. We have failed, however, to detect any such in the work before us, and were it fresh from M. Verne's pen we should feel that it gave fatal evidence of decaying powers But the first part of it was published some ten years ago, and it is not yet completed, though nothing upon the title-page indicates this fact. The preface asserts that it "will demonstrate what manner of men the great travellers have been from the time of Hanno and Herodotus down to that of Livingstone and Stanley," but this English version ends with the death of La Salle in 1687. The work has not even the merit of originality, being in great part hardly more than an abridgement of M. Édouard Charton's 'Voyageurs anciens et modernes.' If it is intended to serve as a kind of manual of geography, the lack of an index is almost fatal to its usefulness in this

respect. Nor is there a single modern map to enable the reader to follow the voyages narrated, the old maps, of which fac-similes are given, having an historical interest, but being well-nigh valueless as guides. In addition, the work shows such a lack of care either in the preparation or in the revision as to affect seriously its general trustworthiness. The following are instances of this carelessness taken almost at random: After describing the voyage of Nearchus along the coast of the Indian Ocean it is said that he "finally anchored near the village of Degela, at the *source* of the Euphrates" (p. 13). This is not a mistake of the translator, but the word in the original is "source," though M. Charton has it correctly "embouchure." On p. 311, the "skeleton in armor" is said to have been discovered "in the Gulf of Boston," an unpardonable blunder in a book bearing an American imprint. The date of William Dampier's birth is given as 1612, and he is left in the middle of a voyage in 1701 with a promise that the remainder of his adventures will be narrated in a succeeding volume. The fact is that it is uncertain when Dampier was born, though 1652 is ordinarily given as the approximate date. Marco Polo is said to have touched at the Andaman Islands, "whose inhabitants are still cannibals" (p. 69), an assertion which is certainly false. A grave fault in a work of this description, intended for instruction rather than entertainment, is the failure to distinguish clearly between what is fable and what is truth in the narratives quoted from the old voyagers. It should not be inferred, however, from what we have said that the book is without value. The accounts of the voyages of Columbus and Magellan especially, and the conquests of Cortes and Pizarro, are very interesting, though they lack the brightness and vivacity of style which characterize M. Verne's popular fictions.

The translator has done her part fairly well, although we occasionally meet with such extraordinary sentences as the following: "The colonies first founded in the neighborhood of Cape Farewell had not been slow in stretching along the western coast, which at this period was infinitely less desolate than it is at the present day, as far as northern latitudes, which were not again reached until our own day" (p. 313). The illustrations are in the main good, and have far more of a Jules Verne flavor about them than the text, though we must protest, in the interest of the youthful reader, against the picture facing p. 337, which represents lofty palms, tropical ferns, and large cactus plants as giving a true idea of a "Canadian landscape," according to the legend which it bears.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Masseras (E.), Un Essai d'Empire au Mexique, swd	(C. W. Christern)
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 11, 1879.

The Week.

SOME excitement was caused in the early part of the week by the report that the President was so much disturbed by the reception accorded by Congress to his financial recommendations that he had sought in an interview with Mr. Fort to explain them away, by saying in substance that his Message, like his civil-service order, contained his ideal, but not what he desired to see put into execution at the expense of "harmony in the party." This has, however, since been contradicted, and he has reiterated his adherence to his policy in a conversation with the correspondent of the Boston *Herald*, besides offering a still further exposition of his views on the currency in a letter to a friend apparently written *ad hoc*. The state of mind of the Republicans on this subject, for reasons which we have set forth elsewhere, seems to be deplorable; but here, at least, the argument, "Are the Democrats any better?" which has done so much good service, seems to have much weight. Petitions signed by bankers, merchants, and other "money kings" are being forwarded to Congress in support of Mr. Bayard's resolution depriving greenbacks of the legal-tender quality, but the danger is that this will only stimulate the hostility of the Western inflationists, who firmly believe that whatever bankers want must be bad for "the poor man." The passage of the Bayard resolution is not all that is needed to put the currency on a sound footing, but it would be a great step in advance.

The Committee of the caucus of Republican Senators, having under consideration financial measures and particularly the legal-tender question, have decided by a majority of 7 to 1—the latter, Mr. Morrill, of Vermont—to recommend that no action whatever be taken upon the currency during the present session. Mr. Morrill, it is stated, will recommend that the greenbacks be divested of their legal-tender character, and that measures be taken for their retirement. The attitude of Mr. Morrill at this juncture is important, inasmuch as he is a member of the Finance Committee, which has Senator Bayard's resolution (referred to in another article) under consideration. It has not been announced whether the action of the caucus is to be considered binding upon Senators, and if so considered by the majority, whether individual members will allow it to bind them. If Mr. Morrill follows his convictions, as no doubt he will, it will be possible to get Mr. Bayard's resolution reported back with the favorable recommendation of the Committee and a bill to carry it into effect, in which case a debate upon it cannot be staved off. Nothing could be more wholesome than such a discussion. One of the most striking signs of the disturbed condition of the party as regards legal tender is the repeated attempt on the part of Congressmen to "interview" the President and extract something from him in contradiction of his Message, which can be peddled to the newspapers. Representatives Fort and Price appear to be the Froudes and Macaulays of the press for this purpose. All that they have obtained so far is the assurance that the President adheres to his opinions, but that he is not such a fool as to quarrel with those who differ from him.

The discussion on the bill which Mr. Bicknell, of Indiana, has reported from his committee, for regulating the mode of counting the Presidential vote in Congress, is likely to furnish the student of human nature with much interesting if not entertaining reading. The Bicknell plan, in substance, makes the two Houses concurring supreme in the whole matter. If there is a dispute over the returns in any State, it is to be referred to the supreme judicial tribunal of the State. The decision of this tribunal may, however, be overruled by both Houses concurring, and if the court has not decided at all, the returns cannot be counted if either House objects. This has developed on the part of the New York *Times*, and probably will on the part of other Republican journals, an extraordinary respect for the State courts, which has a very odd appearance to those who remember the contempt it heaped on the Supreme Court of South Carolina in 1876, and the applause which greeted General Grant's remarkable speech to Mr. Wade Hampton in that year, that he cared nothing about the State Supreme Court, when Hampton informed him that the Court had confirmed his title to the governorship. The Republicans are also likely to be awkwardly placed in this controversy by their late strenuous assertion of Federal authority with regard to Congressional elections, and their very extravagant denial of the ability or willingness of the State governments to conduct Federal elections, all of which, of course, can be cited in support of the Bicknell plan. In fact, one passage in Bicknell's report reads very like Mr. George Hoar or Mr. Blaine on the Federal supervision of Congressional elections. It says:

". . . Every State has the highest interest and a right to demand that the electoral votes of every other State shall be lawful votes; and that result cannot be fully secured unless the right of ultimate determination be retained in both Houses of Congress."

We do not see how a real Stalwart can answer this.

On the other hand, the Democrats, having a Congressional majority, and wishing to get the next Presidency for themselves by hook or by crook, will now be deeply impressed with the importance of having the State returns rigidly scrutinized and rectified by Federal authority; and their experience in their contest with "Zack" Chandler in 1876 has probably destroyed whatever vestiges of the scruple about means they had up to that time retained. In fact, there is, we fear, little doubt that the Republican victory of that year was dearly bought. But nothing has occurred to change the opinion we then held, that, however rascally the performances of the State canvassers, the path of safety lies in making the State itself sift them through its own machinery, and in leaving Congress little to do but to ascertain the regularity of the certificate. Otherwise it will be difficult, if not impossible, to prevent the Congressional majority for the time being from practically electing every President. The importance of settling the procedure now, beyond dispute or cavil, cannot be overrated, especially if the Stalwarts nominate "a strong man" pledged to do his own counting in case of any dispute.

The old Silver prophets of the West are plunged in perplexity by the failure of the people to draw the dollar of their fathers out of the Treasury. The Cincinnati *Commercial* has increased their embarrassment by calling for a suspension of the silver coinage in order that the Mint may have time to coin a little gold, which, it says, is now the great need of the hour, though where this need is felt outside the editor's head he refrains from mentioning. Many of the disciples, however, are amused or disgusted by this, and repudiate him as an apostate, and he replies to their railings by declaring that all he ever contended for was the right and opportunity of the people to pay their debts in silver, which they now enjoy. He is very cold and distant towards "the nations of the earth," and would not ask them any more to join him in making an eternal and unchangeable bi-metallic standard, and says proudly that "when France and England want to confer they can cable us, if they are in a hurry." We wish we had space to compare some of his present utterances with his silver gospel of 1877–8 in parallel columns. If some of his Western contemporaries will take the trouble to do it, we think we can promise them some fun.

The Chicago *Tribune* is also excited by the Silver crisis, but would not stop the coinage of silver for one moment. He says "the

balance of trade may change at any time," and then the gold would flow out; and "What," he asks sternly, "would be the condition of the country if there were no silver to take its place?" He evidently, unlike his Cincinnati contemporary, cares nothing about having a little gold in the pockets of the people, and is, in fact, a finer prophet by far, and commands more respect. The gold he is willing to surrender to the Europeans, the poor devils! on proper proof that the balance of trade is against him, and when it is gone he will draw the silver out of the Treasury and distribute it among a grateful community. So he would keep the Mint coining away at silver. When there is this fatal diversity of view between the two greatest Silver-men on earth, it is easily seen that we are as yet by no means out of the woods. The situation is the more alarming because we believe it was Mr. Halsted's fire which first set Mr. Medill in a blaze; and if the latter now refuses to follow his master, the whole school of currency which they founded may go to pieces, and then where shall we be?

The arrivals of specie from Europe during the week sufficed to raise the total receipts since the resumption of specie payments to a little more than $80,000,000, of which about $71,000,000 consisted of gold and the balance silver. Foreign exchange has, however, so ruled for the last week that gold could not be freshly ordered from Europe and imported at a profit; and this firmness of sterling exchange is attributable to the domestic speculation in cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions, which has carried the prices in New York above those in Liverpool. The New York loan market has remained easy for borrowers at 5 to 7 per cent., and the banks have increased their surplus reserve to about $7,700,000. Trade in all departments continues active, and there is no slackening in manufactures. The earnings of the railroads are still very large, the receipts for November (estimating the business of such lines as do not report their traffic by those which do) being fully 25 per cent. in excess of the corresponding time in 1878. At the Stock Exchange it was a dull and, so far as speculation is concerned, indecisive week. The expression of conservative sentiment in Congress on the currency question makes speculation cautious, although the best informed doubt whether at this session there will be legislation which will materially change the present status of the currency.

The Treasury attempted to buy $1,000,000 United States 6 per cent. bonds (which are due next year) for the Sinking Fund, fixing its price at 106.35, accrued interest included. At this price it obtained on the first day only $205,000, and has since got less than one-third of the amount advertised for. There are two propositions before Congress to renew the business of refunding: one, which comes from the Secretary of the Treasury, proposes to continue to refund into 4 per cent. bonds; the other, which comes from Mr. Fernando Wood, proposes to refund into bonds bearing 3½ per cent. interest. Adopting the last-named rate would be equivalent to stopping refunding certainly for the present and probably for all time. If authority were given to refund the 1880-81's in advance of their maturity into 4 per cents, it is likely that the year 1880 would open with another grand speculative "boom," for nothing did more to encourage the speculation that began early in the present year than the refunding operations of the Treasury, which unloosed and set adrift hundreds of millions of money which otherwise would have remained dormant in the old bonds. Silver in London ruled at 52⅛*d.* per oz.; and the New York price also was unchanged. The "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week had a bullion value of $0.8836.

The report of the Superintendent of Education in South Carolina for the year 1878–9 shows a total average increase of attendance, black and white, of upwards of 6,000; an increase of 50 colored teachers; and a slight increase in the length of the session, but in nearly one-half of the State the poll-tax in whole or in part is diverted to the payment of past-due school claims. The Superintendent, Major Thompson, whose title we suppose was earned in the Confederate service, praises the negroes for their desire to be educated, and says they receive their full share of the school fund from the disbursing officers. He is especially proud of two Charleston schools for colored children, embracing 3,568 scholars and having 39 teachers, the principal of one being a prominent graduate of the South Carolina Military Academy, and all the other teachers native whites, mostly Normal School graduates. Under the carpet-bag régime these schools never had more than 900 pupils, and in 1871, when a Democratic School-board was elected, the buildings and treasury were alike empty. Finally, the statement is made that the Claflin University for colored young men and women is the only institution for the higher education receiving State aid, which amounts to $7,500 annually. The *News and Courier*, commenting on the fact that under the present State administration (1876–79) the attendance of colored pupils has increased more than 45 per cent. over that of 1869–76, says that no other demonstration is needed that "the pledges of the Democratic party to the colored race in the matter of education have been fulfilled." This might be allowed, we should think, to be an equivalent for "gratitude to Mr. Hayes," which the Stalwarts so much insist upon; to say nothing of the recent nomination of two colored aldermen by the Charleston Democrats.

The Assembly to which this report is addressed is entertaining not only Major Thompson's recommendations for the improvement of the school system, but a proposition to establish an educational qualification for voters. The two things go logically hand in hand, and the South Carolinians might justify the restriction of the suffrage as a premium on intelligence. In fact, however, the measure is advocated on the ground of the necessity, in some unobjectionable way, of temporarily disfranchising a great part of the colored population. That the law, if faithfully applied, will also diminish the white vote and ultimately cut down the State's representation in Congress, is well understood, but the prevention of a political reaction at home seems worth the price. We hope they will make the attempt, though we warn them that they will be denounced by the very politicians and editors who charge the South with conspiring to get control of Congress. The voluntary relinquishing of national influence on the part of even one State would take the wind out of the "Solid South" and "State-rights" apparatus of Republican stump-oratory.

The long and perilous investigation conducted at the Los Pinos Agency by Secretary Schurz's Commission has ended in a revelation of the names of the Utes who took part in the White River massacre, and a demand for their surrender for trial. Chief Ouray, whose influence alone has made this possible, has agreed to deliver them on condition that they be tried elsewhere than in Colorado or New Mexico—a natural and perfectly fair precaution, which Secretary Schurz has conceded, though the trial will of course take place before a military commission. Ouray himself, with a delegation of Utes from each of the three divisions of the tribe, is permitted to visit Washington for a conference with the Department. By the time he arrives, Congress may already have decided upon some one of the measures already submitted to it for removing the Utes altogether from Colorado, and this it is useless to expect can be averted. The Government has wisely forborne to punish the participants in the fight with Thornburgh, which now turns out to have been an accidental collision, due to that officer's having abandoned the direct route to the White River Agency.

The Committee appointed by the National Board of Health to make a sanitary survey of Memphis has made a report to the president of the "taxing-district," which reveals a shocking state of filthiness sufficient to account for yellow fever epidemics past and future. The pollution of the ground and of the water-courses, the entire absence of sanitary regulations, the sale of the effects of yellow-fever victims and their storing in junk-shops, combine to invite a perpetual residence of the disease within the city. The measures proposed by the Committee, of whom Dr. Billings, Col. Waring, and

Dr. Folsom are the best-known members, embrace the absolute destruction by fire of "a large number" of buildings, not only cabins and foul shanties, but "some large buildings in the heart of the city"; the ventilation in detail and freezing out of every house, occupied or unoccupied; the destruction of infected or suspicious bedding and junk; a sewerage system estimated to cost only $225,000; making a park of the sides of the Bayou Gayoso, now a perfect sink of uncleanness; a better water-supply; solid paving of the streets; stringent building licenses and inspection, and the common sanitary policing of every well-regulated city. The Committee say there is no reason why Memphis should not soon become one of the healthiest cities in the Mississippi Valley, and certainly the cost of the improvements indicated bears no proportion to the advantages to be derived from them, and ought not to be beyond the resources of the district itself. Help from without in case of a revival of the fever next summer will be grudgingly given if the intervening period does not witness the most determined efforts on the part of the people of Memphis to remove every source of danger and every cause of reproach.

There was a despatch on Friday in the *Times* announcing the hanging of three negroes, one of them a late postmaster and justice of the peace, and another an ex-sheriff, in Madison Parish, Louisiana. On Saturday there was a despatch in the *Herald* announcing that the postmaster, R. H. Brown, was alive and well at his home, and the story about the other two was equally false. On Tuesday the *Times* had another despatch acknowledging that Brown was well, and that the third man had only been "outraged," but alleging that Armstrong, the sheriff, had really been hanged, and that in consequence of this intimidation very few negroes in the parish voted, and those at only one poll. We hope the real truth of this matter will eventually come out in spite of the character of Louisiana witnesses, but the account of this one case shows with what caution "stories" from that quarter should be received.

The Irish question and Mr. Gladstone's canvass in Midlothian continue to occupy the attention of the British public. Mr. Gladstone's appearance on the scene has produced an outburst of popular admiration of which the London correspondent of the *Tribune* has given a very graphic description, for which even his warmest friends seem to have been unprepared, and which has filled the Tories with consternation, Lord Beaconsfield's expressed opinion being that all that was needed to keep the Conservatives in office was that Mr. Gladstone should continue to write and speak on politics. The fact is that Mr. Gladstone never lost his popularity except in London and "in society." In the provinces, and especially the North, his hold on the popular heart has never been weakened, and during the last two years the contrast of his simplicity of character and moral enthusiasm with the theatrical posturing and ill-disguised cynicism of his rival have strengthened it every day. The revelation of the undiminished strength of his position, however, is likely to place the Liberals in some embarrassment, because it makes him too great a man to serve anywhere but at the head of the Cabinet. This is a place, however, to which Lord Hartington has now some sort of title, and which Mr. Gladstone has repeatedly declared he will never fill again.

The Irish agitation goes on somewhat in the old way, but the opposition to rent-paying is breaking down, the well-to-do-farmers, who find they must pay, being unwilling to face litigation and martyrdom. There is still talk of Mr. Parnell's coming to America with other "Nationalists," there being a strong desire to get at the savings-bank accounts of the servant girls, who since the Fenian excitement have been piling up money in a way that makes the teeth of the agitators, both here and at home, water. What the money would be used for is, of course, not yet clearly visible, as it is not now proposed to raise an army—though there is talk of buying out the fee simple of Ireland—but that much of it would go in the travelling expenses of orators there is no doubt. The men arrested for "sedition" are to be tried in Dublin, and they are behaving in the usual way. They have to be dragged out of court, and repeat from balconies, after being bailed, the burning words which produced their arrest, and hurl defiance at the British Government in all its branches. The meetings are attended by large bodies of men who march with an appearance of military drill which is intended to frighten the Saxon tyrants, but somehow the Saxons are not frightened, and all rational Irishmen are made much ashamed. Sir George Bowyer, the well-known civilian, who has represented an Irish constituency for many years, has expressed his opinion of the whole affair in terms which are likely to lose him his seat.

The debate in the French Assembly on the vote of confidence, or more properly on "the interpellation," came off on Thursday last in due course. We explained in our last issue to what the dissatisfaction of the Extreme Left was due, the principal grievance being the failure of the Government to purge the judicial bench of royalist or imperialist members, and to allow unlimited liberty of public meeting. M. Waddington took the chief part of the defence, which the cable despatches describe as somewhat apologetic and feeble. But the Chamber is clearly not prepared for any change, and, after expressing a sort of doubtful confidence in the Ministry, "passed to the order of the day" by a majority of 136, the Extreme Left not voting. It appears to be now acknowledged that this majority is not a real parliamentary majority on which the Cabinet can rely for the support of a policy, but is composed of those, of all shades of opinion, who, whatever their feelings may be about the present Ministry, are not prepared for what every one sees must follow their retirement —Gambetta's accession to power.

The conflict of the Belgian Government with the Catholic clergy about the schools has had some interesting light thrown on it by a recent speech of M. Frère-Orban, the Minister of Foreign Affairs. He traced the history of the quarrel for some time back, showing that the attacks of the clergy and the Ultramontane press on Belgian institutions resulted in giving the Liberals a majority at the polls in 1878. Then came the new School law, which we have already described, and the attempt of the bishops to nullify it by threatening the parents and teachers with ecclesiastical penalties. The Ministry appealed to the Pope to restrain the bishops, and M. Frère-Orban has produced the correspondence, which shows that Leo XIII. and Cardinal Nina, the Secretary of State, deplored their conduct and saw no valid objection to the School law, but desired this expression of their opinions to be kept secret, and denied that the Pope could do anything in the matter beyond giving good advice. His advice the bishops have, however, disregarded, and the clerical papers having maintained that the Pope approved of their course, the ministers have retaliated by publishing the correspondence. M. Frère-Orban reports that out of 4,376 district schools the bishops have only succeeded in breaking up 68, and that out of 1,335 students of normal schools specially managed by the clergy 578 have left and gone to the Government schools. It would be difficult, without making extracts for which we have no space, to give an idea of the violence of the language used, not only against the Ministry but against the institutions of the country, by the clergy and their supporters in the press. It enables one, however, to form an idea of the powerful restraints they put on themselves in a country like this or England, where they are in a minority, and have to submit to a strong and hostile public opinion. M. Frère-Orban tells of their excommunicating a female teacher for refusing to agree to abstain from teaching the catechism to the children. The result was she could not be married to a young man, also a Catholic, to whom she was engaged. The Minister appealed to the Papal Nuncio about it, and finally she was married, after the Pope had written expressing his desire that it should be done, but after great delay and with much apparent reluctance on the part of the local clergy.

THE DEMOCRATS AND THE PRESS.

THE complaint of a correspondent, "W.," in our last issue, of the way in which the Democrats are calumniated or misrepresented had an element of truth in it which he did not sufficiently set forth, and, in fact, did not set forth at all. The Democratic party does contain most of the popular ignorance of the country, or did before the Southern negroes were added to the Republican party, but it has, nevertheless, a theory of politics of its own, which has come down to it from Jefferson's day, much as it has been obscured of late years by the slavery conflict and more recently by the paper-money hallucination. "W." described this theory correctly enough by saying that the party sought to concern itself more about persons than about interests; to treat the individual man, as a man, with his wishes, hopes, and tastes, as of more importance than any social combinations for the production of wealth, and as more entitled to influence in the Government than the lawyer, or merchant, or banker. It has sought, as he expresses it, "to represent the *force* of the country, as distinguished from its wealth or mechanical investments." This lay at the foundation of its hostility to paper money as something by which the poor and ignorant may be readily deceived or defrauded, and its attachment to coin as something which the poor and ignorant can readily understand, and which by mere hoarding protects them against loss. The same theory naturally made the party a State-rights party, inasmuch as the growth of Federal power meant a strong centralized government at Washington, and such a government must inevitably be controlled in the long run by the capital of the country, as distinguished from its numbers, and end in belittling and weakening all local government, or, in other words, that part of governmental machinery in which the poor and ignorant can participate directly.

We do not propose here to show how this theory has been bemuddled and overlaid by the alliance of the party with the Southern slaveholders, and by the great breach in the party traditions effected by the Civil War, or by the efforts the leaders have made since the war to recover power by pandering to all the passing popular crazes which the great changes that have occurred in the composition of the laboring class during the last twenty years have caused to spring up. What we wish to point out is that the present apparently creedless condition of the party, and the contempt for it felt by the Republicans, and the absence of all moral and intellectual weight on the part of its leaders, is largely due to the fact that it has retained almost no hold on the press. It contains fully one-half the voting population of the country. The Republicans defeat it, where they defeat it at all, by very small majorities. If it were really hostile or dangerous to the Government the Union would be but a rope of sand, and Government bonds would not be worth five cents on the dollar, and the country would not attract capital much more than Mexico. Nevertheless, we do not think we exaggerate when we say that the great body of Republicans habitually think of it, and talk of it, as a band of criminals who constitute a standing menace to order and property, and to defeat whom almost any means are excusable. The "Strong Man" cry is undoubtedly an expression of this feeling. This extraordinary state of things is due in a large degree to the fact that the newspaper press of the country, as the railroad and telegraph have made it, has come into existence since 1850, when the Democrats dropped "the poor man" for the slaveholder, and the Republicans laid hold of it and used it to build up their own power. As a party in opposition, and therefore with nothing to defend or cover up, and as the exponent of the philanthropic ideas which began to sweep over the civilized world with prodigious force after 1848, they naturally attracted most of the rising and youthful talent among the writers of twenty-five or thirty years ago, and got a secure hold of most of the newly-established and ablest journals. Before the war was over, or even before it broke out, the Republican writers had acquired an influence over the more reflective, intelligent, and well-to-do portion of the community—the portion that produces its literature, science, and art, and manages its industrial enterprises, and represents it to the rest of the world—which the custom of reading only one paper of course made stronger every day, and which the Democrats have never made any serious effort to shake. The very nature of its composition has always made the Democratic party more of an army than the Republican—that is, put it more completely in the hands of a few leaders, and made them prone to rely on secret management and on discipline rather than on any process of persuasion. The result has been that they have either despised the press, or, where they have used it, have attached no value to it, unless as "an organ"—that is, as an unscrupulous partisan whose opinions on every subject could be foretold, and whose reports were always colored. The Republicans, of course, have organs too, but they have never approached those of the Democrats in servility and effrontery, and have never so openly revealed the personal indifference of the writers to the subjects they discussed. There are, of course, Democratic papers which cannot be put in this category, but, as a rule, the press of the party has for a generation given but little sign of having a theory of government behind it, and of being conducted by men who were preaching what they believed. An organ, it is true, may be edited and made effective by men who do not care, but such organship requires extraordinary skill and tact. In nothing is it more true that "art consists in concealing art." The really powerful organ is always one which does not reveal its organship, and which gives advocacy an air of statesmanship. The Democrats have nothing of the kind, and to this hour the idea of their chiefs, if called on to strengthen themselves in the press, is to put up a large sum of money, and get a corps of what are called "slang-whangers" to revile the Republicans editorially, and spread "stories" about them in the reports and correspondence. Tilden's "Literary Bureau" was one of these efforts in a peculiarly crude and barbarous form.

Against such efforts the Republican press, as at present constituted, has no difficulty in protecting itself and its clients. It overwhelms the Democrats in every field of journalistic activity. It supplies better and fuller news from all parts of the world; comments on it with greater knowledge and greater literary skill; invents or spreads more plausible or probable "stories"; has tenfold greater power of ridicule; and has now a very large capital invested in journalism by men who are simply journalists. The Democratic press, too, commits in a far greater degree than the Republican press the mistake of trying to strengthen itself by working down to the ignorance of the most ignorant and the folly of the most foolish. A newspaper often makes a great commercial success by this process, but it never helps to build up a party or restore it to power. The rising and growing forces of the world are, after all, knowledge and good sense. A constituency of ignorant men is always an unsteady one, because some of them are always learning, and the rest are daily substituting one foolishness for another, so that anybody who undertakes to gratify them by printing their nonsense can never acquire the weight which wins for a party the confidence of a nation.

The Democrats, too, make the mistake of not recognizing the change which has come over the world within fifty years in the matter of the relations of persons to property. When Jefferson began to preach the dignity and worth of the naked, penniless man, and Franklin told the story of the man who lost his vote by the death of his ass, there was but little property in the world, and that little was attainable by only a small number. Within the present century its forms have been wonderfully diversified, its transfer has been immensely simplified, and a share in it has been made accessible to almost everybody in sound health and of good character. Savings-banks, joint-stock companies, and co-operative stores have come into existence since then. Steam has thrown open vast continents to small farmers, without subjecting them to the old pains and hardships of exile. Although a great deal of poverty still exists, hopeless poverty is being greatly and steadily diminished in every country. So that it may be said that the laboring man is gradually ceasing to be in this country a force separate and distinct from its wealth and investments. Tariffs, and banks, and navigation laws,

and currency have become of as much interest to him as to the great capitalists, because he too is a capitalist and is as anxious about his hundred dollars as the "money king" about his million, and knows that its safety rests on the same conditions. He needs the same kind of money as the banker, no better and no worse. Any party, therefore, which attempts to concoct or advocate a political economy for his special benefit or use, or pretends that his interests are hostile to those of his fellows who are more prudent or frugal or have a quicker eye for investments, or in any way treats his poverty as a permanent condition, is sure to go to the wall, for it has all the forces of civilization fighting against it.

LEGAL-TENDER AND THE "BLOODY SHIRT."

THE recommendation of the President and the Secretary of the Treasury, that the legal-tender law be repealed as to future contracts, has thrown the Republican politicians into a state of agitation which has been considerably heightened by Senator Bayard's resolution, now under consideration by the Committee on Finance, to carry the recommendation into effect. Representative Fort, of Illinois, and Senator Ingalls, of Kansas, promptly "antagonized" the President; and Senator Carpenter, of Wisconsin, was only restrained from like absurdity by the calling of a party caucus to consider the subject. The assembling of the caucus to consider a matter not in any sense a party question is an unmistakable signal of distress. The Republicans derived a powerful advantage in the last campaign from their soundness on the currency question as compared with the attitude of the Democrats. No caucus was needed to put the Democrats in the wrong, or to give to the Republican platforms and public speeches a more wholesome tone than that of the opposite party. Nor is it needed now for any valuable or avowable purpose. The Stalwarts would like to enjoy the credit of being the guardians and upholders of sound principles of finance without doing anything more than they have already done to vindicate their title. They want to go into the next campaign waving the "bloody shirt." They are alarmed at the introduction of any disturbing issue, and annoyed at the idea of anybody professing to be sounder than themselves on the money question. The President has vexed them on more than one occasion, but he has done nothing so well calculated to upset their plans for waging war against the South to the exclusion of every other policy, next summer, as when he invited them to seize the present favorable occasion to make the currency permanently good and to return to the legal tender of the Constitution. Of course Mr. Hayes had no intention to distract the party; certainly, Mr. Sherman, who concurred with him, had none. Nor is there any reason why the party should be distracted at all, unless statesmanship and honorable dealing are causes of distraction. The recommendation is merely that as to future contracts the public shall be just where they were before the war—free to make their contracts in such money or property as they choose, but that contracts made in "dollars," without other definition, shall mean the dollars of the Constitution, gold or silver. General Grant made a similar recommendation to Congress during his second term. It is a curious fact that whatever Hayes does tends to split the party, while everything that Grant did, from San Domingo to the Whiskey trials, tended powerfully to consolidation and harmony.

Every step taken toward the settlement of questions not related to slavery or the status of the colored man proves that the Republican party has no common ground of action, but is thrown at once into disorder by the starting of such discussions. It was so when the silver question came up, the party dividing on a line of cleavage roughly represented by the Alleghany Mountains. It will prove to be so now, whatever the decision of the caucus may happen to be on the legal-tender question and the Bayard resolution. Nor are the Democrats more fortunate or more capable of uniting upon a financial policy. Having abandoned the policy of Jackson, Benton, and Wright—a policy which had become traditional with them until superseded by the slavery question—they are now the prey of all manner of demagogues, Greenbackers, Labor-Reformers, Republican renegades, and what not. They muster tolerably well when State-rights are in question, but when anything else is talked about they scatter even more confusedly than the Republicans, and reach more mischievous conclusions. They are unable, apparently, to see the political advantage of driving the legal-tender wedge into the ranks of their antagonists. They do not seem to be aware that the responsibility for finance rests with the Republicans while the latter hold the executive offices of the Government, and that it cannot be made to rest with the Democrats unless they refuse to the Administration the power to carry out its policy. Whatever is creditable in finance enures necessarily to the advantage of the Republicans, and whatever is not creditable goes to the damage and disrepute of the Democrats while they constitute a majority of the two houses of Congress, and prevent the taking of such steps as the President and Secretary of the Treasury deem needful.

It has been suggested in Republican circles that Senator Bayard's resolution be smothered in the Finance Committee by the votes of all the Republican members (including Mr. Morrill, of Vermont), aided by that of Mr. Beck, of Kentucky. Such a procedure would be the crowning act of folly—akin to that of the ostrich with his head in the sand and his bulk exposed to the arrows of his pursuer. The smothering of Mr. Bayard's resolution does not smother the question of legal tender. This question is irrepressibly alive, active, and rampant. It exists not by virtue of anything Mr. Bayard has proposed or the President recommended. It arises from a prolonged infraction of correct principles of finance, and of the Constitution as well. It might be got rid of or postponed by a speedy decision of the Supreme Court in the Butler-Chittenden case now pending—a decision pronouncing the issue of legal-tender paper by the Government in time of peace unwarranted by the fundamental law. The gap left in the last decision of the Court upon this class of cases might be filled in this way. Such a decision would be extremely awkward for the Court to make, since it involves the question where the discretion resides to prescribe the exigency which authorizes the making of Government paper legal tender—in other words, to decide what is a state of peace and what is a state of war. Congress has the power to declare war and, inferentially, to make peace; but it neither declared war nor made peace with the South in the exigency which led to the Legal-tender Act. This discretion must reside either in Congress or in the Court itself. If it resides in Congress, the Court cannot go behind that discretion in order to ascertain whether a state of war really exists. In view of this dilemma the Court will be in no haste to decide the pending case if there is any likelihood that Congress may itself decide it by repealing the Legal-tender Act. The spectacle of Congress waiting for the Court and the Court waiting for Congress is not an edifying one, and does not have the least tendency to smother the question at issue.

Whatever disposition of it may be arrived at, it should be well understood that after the legal-tender feature is settled the question of the continued circulation of Government notes will follow closely upon its heels. The President recommended logically that the notes be paid off and cancelled. Secretary Sherman did not go so far; but he must have seen that such a question could not long be kept in the background after the legal-tender property of the note should be withdrawn. Probably the belief that Senator Bayard's resolution, if passed, is not a "finality," but only the beginning of another and even longer debate, is one of the reasons why the Stalwarts are so perplexed and incensed by it. If the transgressions of the South are intended to be the chief capital of the next campaign, the door must be firmly closed upon a measure which has so long a train behind it. A great deal of mischief has already been done. The country has, even now, taken legal tender under discussion, and has dismissed *pro tanto* the contemplation of "outrages." It is doubtful whether public attention can be diverted from the greenback and recalled to its proper point of view upon the bulldozers by any action of the Republicans. The Democrats may, however, help them out of the difficulty by joining them in the effort to suppress Bayard, and this, at the present moment, is the thing most likely to happen.

Correspondence.

IMPERIUM ET LIBERTAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Lord Beaconsfield says, in his Guildhall speech: "One of the greatest of Romans, when asked what were his politics, replied, *Imperium et Libertas*. That would not make a bad programme for a British ministry. It is one from which her Majesty's advisers do not shrink." His Lordship appears to have adopted a misquotation which he found in Clarendon, and to have added a misconstruction of his own. Clarendon says of the government of Charles I.: "In a word, many wise men thought it a time wherein those two miserable adjuncts, which Nerva was deified for uniting, *imperium et libertas*, were as well reconciled as is possible." Tacitus (Agric. 3) says: "Quamquam, primo statim beatissimi seculi ortu, Nerva Cæsar res olim dissociabiles miscuerit, *principatum* ac libertatem." It is needless to say that neither *principatus* in Tacitus nor *imperium* in Clarendon means Jingoism. Tacitus is praising Nerva and Trajan for making the system of government less personal and more liberal; precisely the reverse of that which Lord Beaconsfield has done.

His Lordship is certainly fond of displaying his accurate erudition. He once gave the world a theological dissertation in which he placed the conversion of St. Paul a hundred years after Christ, and the Crucifixion in the reign of Augustus. The latter deviation from the received chronology having been pointed out, he adroitly altered *Augustus Cæsar* into *Tiberius Augustus Cæsar*, giving us to understand that he had meant *Tiberius* when he wrote *Augustus*. In his life of Lord George Bentinck he has also indulged in a Greek quotation which, as a proof of classical learning, may rank with the Latin quotation of Lord Kenyon, who told a jury that if they would do their duty by finding a just verdict "they would be able to go to their homes saying, *Aut Cæsar aut nullus*."

I take this opportunity of noticing what I believe to be a current error with regard to a circumstance in Lord Beaconsfield's career. Your excellent contemporary, *Harper*, has just repeated the statement, which I have often seen in American journals, that during the civil war Lord Beaconsfield showed himself a friend of the Union. I fail to recollect anything which can substantiate this impression. That Lord Beaconsfield himself waited to see how the cat would jump is very likely, though it is inconceivable that he should have sympathized with the Republic then, any more than he does now, when his policy on this Continent is as Jingo and as anti-American as possible. But the men about him, and those immediately under his influence, took part strongly with the South: Lord Cairns, his second self, was one of the most prominent champions of the *Alabamas*.—Yours truly, Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, Dec. 1.

THE VENUS OF MILO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has just been called to an article in the October number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, on the so-called Venus of Milo, to which my name as authority for some unimportant statement is appended, yet ignoring entirely the facts published by me, making against the Venus theory of this statue. The article in question is so teeming with the most glaring absurdities of theory and incomprehensible misstatements of fact that to controvert it, as a whole, would require another as long, and it is not worth the pains; and I make no attempt to set the author right, not knowing, moreover, whether the errors are those of the compiler or his quoted authority, "M. Grasset d'Orcet"; and if the latter, I fail to comprehend why he should be styled "archæologist and critic."

There are, however, two or three statements as of fact which I cannot allow to pass without contradiction, from regard to archæological history. "It has not been mentioned," says the *Atlantic* article, "that the underground receptacle in which the Venus of Milo was discovered was closed in with vaulted masonry. The walls, of a quadrilateral (!) construction, were then still remaining, and terminated in a hemicycle. *This construction was simply the crypt of a Christian church of the seventh century of our era*" (!!!). This is stated as a "significant fact."

As I went with M. Brest, son and successor of the man who found the statue, over the ground, saw the niche in which it was hidden, and heard the whole story from him, I have not the slightest hesitation in declaring the whole of the above quotation absolutely without foundation in fact, other than that the statue was enclosed by masonry in a niche of the ordinary form. This niche was not underground, but on the steep hill-side overlooking the port of Melos, so that the bottom of the niche was level with the ground in front of it. It had been hastily constructed, evidently merely to hold the statue, and, M. Brest told me, was walled up in front. In this niche, distinctly and evidently merely a place of concealment, was no other statue, or room for any other, and the arms of this were placed by the side of it, detached. There were no traces of walls or ruins of any kind near it, much less a "hemicycle," nor was there any antique structure visible nearer than the ruins of the unfinished late-Roman theatre, some half a mile (as nearly as I can remember distance) from the niche. The assumption of a Christian church is the wildest romancing I ever heard of in connection with archæology.

The "cave peopled with white phantoms," and the eighteen boxes of such fragments and sculptures here collected, are equally creations of a vivid imagination; but as M. Brest was upwards of seventy when (if ever) he made such statements, he had evidently ceased to be responsible for his memory, but my impression is that the well-known vividness of coloring of the Greek islander (M. Brest was, if I remember correctly, like most of the European consuls in the unimportant ports of the Levant, a resident of the island, either Greek or Levantine by descent, appointed consul *hors de carrière*, and without salary, for protection from the Turks), continually repeating the story, accounts for the exaggeration. Any one who has had my experience in the "growth of the legend" in those parts of the world will not wonder at a whole Olympus being found in the poor little niche, or at the two miraculous arms multiplying into eighteen boxes full; but as the son, who was old enough to have remembered all the incidents, was still in full possession of his faculties when he took me down to the place of concealment and told me the details with the greatest minuteness, without mentioning any of these, I am inclined to think that the "conflict" of this story "with the received official reports given out by French naval officers and others who inspected the ground almost simultaneously with himself, and who were concerned in the transportation of the statue," is perfectly explicable, and that the official reports were entitled to be treated with more respect than this rehash of Aladdin's cave, uttered by an old man whose memory had evidently failed him, of incidents which had occurred a quarter of a century before, and of which the remains, perhaps still to be seen, are a positive contradiction.

May I be permitted to repeat here the conclusion of my former letter to the *Nation* on this subject—that there is not a particle of justification for calling this statue a Venus, or anything but a Victory?

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Florence, Nov. 19.

THE *NATION*, THE SOUTH, AND THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 20 you publish two letters—one from Boston and one from Natchez—one from a Republican and the other from a Democrat. It was quite amusing to see how both took the *Nation* to task for its want of "impartiality." Now, if you had simply published both without comment, or have shrugged your editorial shoulders and said: "*Voilà!* how we do catch it from both sides!" it would have put you, in the eyes of all just men, in the position of a really *independent* journal. But when, in order to mollify the Republican, you tell him that you "agree with him in thinking the Democratic party essentially the party of ignorance and likely to remain so," you take up too much the position of a "Stalwart" and cease to hold your balance fairly. No candid Democrat will deny that there are ignorant members of his party, but surely no candid Republican will contend that Democratic voters monopolize all the ignorance of the country. We hear much from Republicans about "the ignorant Irish"; but what of "the ignorant Germans," many of whom are just as unfit to help shape the legislation of the country as the rawest and roughest Paddy. And, *en passant*, one may well question whether the German, with his atheistic and communistic tendencies very often, is a less dangerous and disturbing element in the body politic than the Irishman with his strong religious sentiment (however much mingled with superstition) and freedom from any tincture of the pseudo-social philosophy, becoming more and more rampant in Europe, which would ignore the old-fashioned distinction between *meum* and *tuum*.

But, bless my soul! why compare the Irish (mostly Democrats) and the Germans (mostly Republicans) when we at the South, with a negro population (in some States outnumbering the white) almost *entirely Re-*

publican, feel what it is to be governed by "a party of ignorance"? But it really seems as if our Northern brethren, to quote the language of one of your contributors in your last issue (November 27), entertain the "idea that the North is the Nation," and that the South is "a sort of conquered province or dependency which it is the duty of the Nation (meaning the North) to admonish, correct, and generally keep in order." This the writer I quote well terms "a provincial conceit," and it is one that crops out, in season and out of season, on all occasions. Your Boston correspondent says: "Democracy means Tweed and Judge Barnard. It means Jim Fisk and Judge Cardozo." With more justice we at the South can say, "Republicanism means Moses and Judge Whipper. It means Kellogg and Judge Durell." It is refreshing to hear a Republican like "J." (while confessing that he cares "precious little" about Southern neighbors murdering one another) exclaim: "But *honest counting of votes*"—that's the thing we Northern Republicans desire to see secured. I wonder if he ever heard of the celebrated "returning boards"?

But, Mr. Editor, in all frankness, where in the whole history of the *Democratic* administrations of the country do you find a tithe of the corruption which we have seen of late years under *Republican* rule? Why, therefore, should one, as you say, "expect little or nothing from it [the Democratic party] in the way of reform"?—Respectfully yours,

A Virginia Democrat.

[The answer to this question would involve a good deal of repetition for our regular readers, who have by this time learned the reason why the *Nation* has, from the beginning, deemed it a greater public service to hold the Republican party rigidly to its standards and expose its shortcomings than to join it in denouncing the sins of the Democracy. Some considerations, however, which have a bearing on the matter at issue we give in another place.

As regards the tendency to think only of the Northern wings of both parties when contrasting them morally, it may be excused in two ways: first, the Republican party South is a mere name, and is no longer relied on by the parent organization, which was wholly of Northern origin; and secondly, the alliance of the negroes with the Republicans, and of the Southern whites with the Democrats, is purely artificial, accidental, temporary—a defensive measure on both sides, which will be abandoned just as soon as the two races establish their just relations on the spot where they were born and must live. Finally, if the ignorance of the negroes offsets that of the Irish, what accession have the Southern whites brought to the reform spirit among the Democrats?—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Noting the communications of "J." (Boston) and "Subscriber" (Natchez), in No. 751, Nov. 20, the writer has, with slight exceptions, been a steady reader of the *Nation* since 1866, and can bear testimony to the spirit of justice and the absence of sham which have, in the main, characterized its columns. The number of papers entitled to such credit is unfortunately very few, but the Springfield *Republican* is one, and when the tone of fairness and moderation which has distinguished it and the *Nation* is departed from, even temporarily, the departure is the more noticeable. "J." appears to be exercised about honest counts and intimidation, but the Republicans did some able-bodied counting-in in 1876 which should not be overlooked, and as for intimidation, the campaign in this State against the new constitution could have shown "J." a thing or two in "Stalwart" proficiency in that line. Upon these subjects, however, the Republican "organs" have maintained a discreet silence, and patriotically devoted themselves to showing up the wickedness of Democrats in general and the South in particular, and with a zeal which betokens a labor of love. In candor and fairness, have not Republican vituperation and detraction of the South reached the last degree of phariseeism? The Springfield *Republican* even (Nov. 7), "The Winning Causes," said: "*Political* assassinations, like those of Dixon and Brice, in view of the disappearance of the colored vote, produce a keen disappointment and make a deep impression upon Northern opinion through all classes of voters. . . . There are excuses to be made for the South, growing out of the slowness *with which an ignorant, slaveholding people* are converted into a tolerant, equality-observing people, but the Northern voter is disposed to withhold his confidence until the transition is more nearly completed." The *Nation*, No. 749, Nov. 6, "Some Post-Election Reflections," said: " . . . and two murders collected over an area as wide as the South, and from a perturbed and *semi-barbarous community*, will not be enough." As for the shooting of Dixon by Barksdale, was it so much worse, or the personal provocation less, than Kalloch by De Young, Schwartz by Haskell, Welton by Cadwallader, etc.?—all recent cases in this State, and not one of the parties Southerners, nor even Democrats. The daily papers of this city of November 30 contained reports of fifteen cases of violence—murders, homicides, suicides, deadly assaults, robberies, etc., yet but one was in a Southern State—Texas. In view of such facts, which may be further fortified by reference to the daily press reports of the whole country, may not the application to the South of such terms as "an ignorant, slaveholding people" and "a semi-barbarous community" be left to the Stalwarts? In any event, is not the use of such terms toward the South, or a Southern State, or any State, harsh and offensive and useless? Observer.

San Francisco, Cal., Dec. 1, 1879.

[We think not, as long as they correctly describe a state of facts, as we think they do, because the Stalwart theory is that the South is a community as civilized as Massachusetts, but animated with a rebellious spirit, and committing or tolerating murders simply to show hatred of the United States Government, and that this can all be stopped by giving Republican candidates rousing majorities and showing that it is useless for the South to try to get possession of the Government. We say that these murders have a social and not a political origin, and are due to causes which long antedate the war, and, therefore, that it is charlatanry to pretend that by putting Smith into the White House instead of Jones they will at once cease, and that, in order to secure this end, we should lay aside all business and all subjects of legislation except Southern murders, and make all our elections turn on them exclusively. We do not mean to say that the South is more barbarous than some other parts of the country. The tests of civilization we have in mind are readiness to submit private differences to the decision of the law, and respect for human life. A community which is very deficient in these qualities *is* semi-barbarous, no matter how rich, or well clad, or well fed, whether on the Mississippi or at the Golden Gate.—Ed. Nation.]

THE WINGATE-LAIDLEY CONTROVERSY

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly allow me to say to your readers, who know of the controversy between Col. Wingate and myself only through the medium of your paper, that I feel sure they would modify the opinion formed in reference thereto if they should examine into the question further; and that those who are interested to see my "Reply to the Charge of Infringement of Col. Wingate's Copyright" can obtain a copy of it by sending their address either to me or to Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

The reason assigned by Col. Wingate why he proposes to suppress the publication of my book is that "at least two-thirds of it I [Col. W.] have been found by comparison to have been taken bodily from mine"; and "the portions which he (Col. L.) has taken the most literally from it (such as the chapter on organization and management of teams) are those which have been the fruit of the experience of its author as an officer of the National Guard and of the National Rifle Association, and *every word of which is original.*" The references given in my reply show that others had expressed the same ideas several years before Col. Wingate's book was written.

Evidence is adduced showing conclusively that portions of my book said to have been copied from Col. Wingate's were not so taken.

T. T. S. Laidley, Colonel of Ordnance.

Watertown Arsenal, Mass., December 8, 1879.

Notes.

A NEW edition of Jeremy Belknap's 'Biographies of the Early Discovers' of America has been published in large form by C. Collins & Co., of this city. The sterling merit of this work, long since a rarity in the original edition, warranted a reprint; yet, in spite of its general accuracy, it is not absolutely free from errors avoidable by the author, and from defects which time alone could remedy. An attempt, not altogether successful, to correct these in notes was made in Mr. Hubbard's

edition published by the Harpers in 1842. There has been no editing of the book before us.——The appearance of Mme. de Rémusat's 'Memoirs' has, perhaps, suggested to Mr. Widdleton a fresh edition of O'Meara's 'Napoleon in Exile,' in two volumes. Half a century has detracted nothing from the readableness of this much-discussed work.——We recently noticed the appearance of an elaborate treatise on the 'Differential Calculus.' The publication of another, by Professor Byerly, of Harvard University, indicates an increasing attention to this branch of mathematics. The title of the latter work, 'Elements of the Differential Calculus,' hardly does justice to its contents. The Integral Calculus, at least so far as the nature and processes of direct integration are concerned, is treated in chaps. iii. and v. with a fulness which would have fairly entitled the author to give some indication of the fact upon the title-page. The notation employed by Professor Peirce in his treatise on Analytical Mechanics, with some modifications introduced by Professor Byerly himself, is used throughout the work.——Little, Brown & Co. have published, in duodecimo form, two elementary legal treatises, one, entitled 'Elements of Equity for the Use of Students,' by Melville M. Bigelow; the other, 'The Principles of Criminal Pleading,' by Franklin Fiske Heard. In Mr. Bigelow's manual "an attempt has been made to present the subject of equity jurisprudence in the concrete—to show to the student the actual working of the system of equity in the administration of justice." Mr. Heard's attempt has been "to state those doctrines and rules of the law of criminal pleading which are common to all the United States; omitting what is purely local law, and citing only such cases as seem necessary to illustrate and support the text." Both books are in a novel form for legal treatises, a form so very attractive to the eye, as well as convenient, that we may hope to see it before long in general use for elementary professional manuals.——A new edition of Hickok's 'System of Moral Science,' revised with the co-operation of President Seelye, of Amherst, is announced by Ginn & Heath, Boston.——Daudet's 'Kings in Exile,' Zola's 'Nana,' O. Feuillet's 'Little Countess,' will be published in English by T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia, who also announce 'Hyde Park Sketches,' by a Westerner.——The *American Socialist*, like the system of complex marriage, is to be suspended at the Oneida Community after January 1. It has never been self-supporting, and has had, perhaps, the effect of drawing too much attention to the Community. But it has been generally a very readable paper.——S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready an edition of the 'Younger Edda,' which Prof. R. B. Anderson has furnished with an introduction, notes, a full glossary, and an index.——Charles Scribner's Sons, having acquired of the former publishers Prof. H. H. Boyesen's 'Gunnar' and 'Tales from Two Hemispheres,' will bring out new editions of them. The latter work has lately been translated into German by the novelist Spielhagen, and 'Gunnar' is announced for publication by Schottländer in Breslau.——Lieut. F. V. Greene's work on 'The Russian Army and its Campaigns in Turkey' is being translated into French and German. It has met with warm approval from the Russian press.——Macmillan & Co. promise a new edition of Flückiger and Hanbury's 'Pharmacographia,' and a new edition, greatly reduced in price, of Foster's 'Text-book of Physiology.'——Mr. L. Belknap, of Hartford, Conn., will send to any address, for one dollar, portraits of Mendelssohn the composer, his father, mother, wife, and sister Fanny, after the originals by Hensel. The form of these reproductions is tasteful, and the family group very pleasing.——The London *Athenæum* spreads the startling intelligence that "some of the best American scholars have addressed to the Governor of Rhode Island and other authorities of that State an urgent remonstrance against the transportation of the obelisk presented by the Viceroy." The appeal seems to have been misdirected.——In the same paper for Nov. 15 comparison is made of the late George Smith's and Prof. Jules Oppert's readings of the famous Creation tablets. The difference is marked. Generally, for example, where Smith renders "plant" Oppert would read "name."——An 'Australian Dictionary of Dates and Men of the Time,' by J. H. Heaton, has been published by Silver & Co., London. Blackie & Son have in press 'Old Glasgow: the Place and the People,' well illustrated after old prints and early drawings. Prof. Palmer's translation of the Koran is to appear about Easter. The Chiswick Press has privately printed, in four volumes 8vo, the Catalogue of the Chiswick Library, limited to 250 copies on large paper, and 50 on small. It was prepared and seen through the press by Sir James P. Lacaita, the distinguished Italian scholar. The richness of this library in first editions of the earliest printed books, nearly all in the finest possible condition, is equalled only by the Spencer library among private collections.——The second part of vol. iv. of the third edition of Barbier's 'Dictionnaire des Anonymes' has been published.——An interesting catalogue of the Elzevir collection of the Comte de Lagondie has been issued in Paris by Labitte.——With the first of January the fortnightly journal *Unsere Zeit*, hitherto devoted to biography, and contemporary history and literature, will become a monthly magazine, with due allowance of fiction and poetry.——In Part 9 of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' (B. Westermann & Co.) Prof. Hertzberg begins the history of Rome; and in Part 10 Prof. Philippson takes up the Age of Louis XIV. Both numbers abound in well-chosen and well-executed woodcuts illustrative of Roman antiquities on the one hand, and on the other giving numerous portraits—of Louis XIII. and XIV., of Richelieu, Colbert, Louvois, the great Condé, Mlle. de la Vallière, Charles II. of England, etc.—views of Paris and Versailles, fac-similes of autographs, etc. The collective value of this historical series becomes more striking with every fresh issue.

—An English magazine editor is exposed to a peculiar danger—the offer of stories already published elsewhere slightly disguised or sometimes not altered at all. Unless the editor has all literature in his memory he is likely to be taken in, and to pay a good price for a second-hand article. And the worst is that the better the story and price the more likely is it that when it is in print some long-memoried reader will detect the cheat. The last imposture of this kind has not yet, we think, been pointed out. In *Temple Bar* for November is a pretty sad story, "The Sealed Letter," to all appearance original with some English contributor, which is nothing but a translation from Alfred de Vigny's 'Laurette, ou le Cachet rouge.' But this is not all. A closer translation had already appeared in our *Democratic Review*, vol. xiii., in 1843, when the source was honestly acknowledged. It is doubtful whether the English plagiarist was acquainted with this version. At any rate he has cleverly Anglicized his story, and by a considerable mixture of modern semi-slang has fitted it to the magazine and the town and the country in which it now appears.

—In our Notes last April (*Nation*, vol. xxviii. p. 285) mention was made of 'The Classics of Painting,' a German publication with English text, issued in New York by L. W. Schmidt. Of the thirty-four parts composing the whole work, as announced, twenty-two have now been published. It is a large book, the size of the page being about 13 by 19 inches, and the photo-prints as large as the page allows, and of good character. We commented last spring on a certain inaccuracy in the title; for that which is offered us here is rather classical engraving than painting—namely, rather Volpato's "Incendio del Borgo," Raphael Morghen's "Transfiguration," Bartolozzi's "Cupid," and Zuliani's "Peter Martyr," than the works of Raphael, Parmigiano, and Titian which commonly bear those titles. Classical engravings of the last century and the first forty years of the present one make but a small pretence at accuracy of reproduction. To find on the cover the name Cima da Conegliano sends the student to exploring rather eagerly the number in question in search of a lovely Renaissance design, but when it is only Folkema's stiff engraving of which he finds a photograph there is disappointment. We insist upon this point, because this taking of engravings for adequate renderings of great pictures has been a serious hindrance to the right understanding of the great schools of painting. The text of this work is in better English than one would have anticipated, and would not seem to have been translated from the German except for such slight solecisms as the title of "General" given to the stout soldier of fortune Bartolommeo Colleone. We are inclined to think well of the brief biographies of artists and the accounts of their work; and the descriptions given of the pictures are generally less wordy and sentimental than we are accustomed to in such publications. On the whole, if people would look upon these photo-engravings as memoranda only—as descriptions rather fuller and more detailed than can be given in words of the masterpieces of painting—the book might then be recommended for family use, as a book of ready reference. It appears from enclosed prospectuses that, in German at least, there are to appear additional volumes and works, going to complete an encyclopædia of painting. A second series of 'Die Klassiker der Malerei,' in thirty-three parts, will deal with the Spanish and Dutch masters of the seventeenth century, while another book, already begun, and to consist of thirty parts, treats of the French painters of the eighteenth century, Boucher, Fragonard, Watteau, and their *confrères*.

—In April last, Dr. Hagen, the Harvard Professor of Entomology, published the result of his study of the observations of Dr. Bail, of Prussia, on the nature of the yeast fungus, which that scientist had shown to be identical (in different stages of development) with the fungus of the common house-fly, with common vegetable mould, and with a

small water plant only known to botanists. He had also shown that healthy insects brought in contact with mash which has been sown with the spores are directly infested by them, with fatal consequences. Dr. Hagen concluded that insect pests might be exterminated in this manner, and proposed that beer-mash or diluted yeast should be applied with a sprinkler, naming greenhouse insects, currant-worms, potato-bugs, and even the Colorado grasshopper when newly hatched. He anticipated failure at first, but invited experiment. In a pamphlet reprint of the above paper, Dr. Hagen is now able to give an account of several trials made with caterpillars, cotton-worms, and potato-bugs, and of as many failures, except in the case of the bugs. Here the result, if not unequivocal, was so encouraging as to warrant further trial on an extended scale, the problem apparently being how to dilute the yeast and make it palatable to our insect foes. There ought to be no lack of experimenters, and it should be easy to compare tracts treated with yeast and, say, with Paris green. Happily this fungus has no effect on the human system or that of domestic animals, while the infected insect communicates it to his fellows. Investigation in this direction may shed light on the nature of contagious diseases in man.

—Last week, on Saturday, "Estelle" was brought out at Wallack's. This is a play, by Mr. Albert Lancaster, "partially founded" on Victor Cherbuliez's novel 'Samuel Brohl & Cie.' The novel is one of Cherbuliez's best, and Mr. Lancaster has done what he could to make a good play from it. The inherent difficulty is that the character of the Jew adventurer who is the central figure in the story is not a dramatic character. In the novel he is real, but it requires an immense amount of literary *finesse* to make him so, and when he has to exhibit his own character on the stage, instead of becoming, as was Mr. Lancaster's apparent intention, melodramatic, he becomes tame. Again, we miss very much in the play what it seems to us ought to have been made some use of—the strong background furnished by the veritable Polish count whose papers, name, and identity *Stephen Bartroi* steals. The dramatization of novels has become such a business of late years that it is a constant surprise to us how little the art is understood; for, like any other kind of literary composition, it has its laws. One elementary principle certainly is that the development of the plot in the story must not be slavishly followed, for the simple reason that literary narration and dramatic action seldom move on parallel lines. Consequently, those parts of a story which are most effective in a novel will probably be the least so in a play, and *vice versâ*. Those things which can be imagined in the one must be presented to the eye in the other. In 'Samuel Brohl & Cie.' the interest is almost wholly moral: it is a study of a character. While in other respects Mr. Lancaster has parted company with the novelist altogether, he has here attempted to follow in his steps by making this study of character a central subject of interest in the play. But the result is not a success. When the curtain goes down we do not understand *Stephen Bartroi* at all. As to the rest of the *dramatis personæ* there is fortunately no room for difference of opinion. Mr. Lancaster, in order to make a play adapted to the modern stage, has been forced to add a number of characters not to be found in the novel, and to modify considerably one of the original personages, the Russian Princess. The relations between this lady and the Jew are in the novel very important; but it would not have done to incorporate them in an American play. Mr. Lancaster has wholly changed the character of the Princess, and made her a good but impulsive young woman, who has been simply unfortunate enough to write a couple of foolish letters, which *Bartroi* has in his possession. Of course these are secured in the end by *Darkwood Beech* (Mr. Beckett) and returned to her. Several comic characters are introduced into the play, of whom *Darkwood Beech* is the best. *Mr.* and *Mrs. Blair* (Mr. E. M. Holland and Miss Effie Germon) are purely farcical but thoroughly well-acted parts. Indeed, we have seldom seen a play, even at Wallack's, better acted throughout. Mr. Gerald Eyre as the false count made as much of his part as could be made by anybody; Miss Dyas's *Estelle* was very pleasing and natural; and *Arthur Morton* (an American cousin and lover, introduced to make it all turn out happily) was well played by Mr. Robinson. It seems to have entirely escaped Mr. Lancaster's attention that Samuel Brohl & Cie. is necessarily a tragedy.

—The event of last week's Italian opera was the début of Mlle. Marie Marimon, who made her first appearance on the New York stage in Bellini's "Sonnambula." The same opera was selected last year by Mme. Gerster to introduce herself to an American audience, and it was almost impossible not to draw a comparison between the two *prime donne*. Mlle. Marimon is not one of the great singers of the world; she cannot be ranked with Patti, Nilsson, or Mme. Gerster. She does not possess that delightful richness and evenness of voice which are the chief characteristics of these three great artists, and which speak directly to the heart of the hearer. Mlle. Marimon's voice is not very sympathetic; her lower notes are full and telling, but her middle tones are uneven and somewhat veiled; her upper tones are remarkable for brilliancy and clearness, but they are not of the kind which warm and thrill. Nevertheless, Mlle. Marimon is a lyric artist of a very high order of merit, and among living singers of Italian music second only to the three distinguished ladies named above. Her intonation is perfect, her execution marvellous, and the compass and flexibility of her voice equally astonishing On several occasions she rang out the upper D, and even E flat, with admirable facility and precision. Mlle. Marimon, a Belgian by birth, studied her art principally in France, and has acquired the charming grace and ease in her stage manner which seem to be innate in Frenchwomen. Nothing could be more coquettish and naïvely graceful than her acting in the farewell scene at the close of the first act. Also in the celebrated finale of the second act she produced some very fine dramatic effects; but she had evidently reserved her best forces for the last act. She sang the well-known "Ah! non giunge" with a burst of passionate joy that electrified her audience, and, in response to storms of applause, repeated the popular air with some surprising variations of her own that exhibited her powers to the fullest extent. Col. Mapleson must be congratulated upon this accession to his company. Without it the season could not have been called a success.

—The second concert of the New York Symphony Society introduced a programme which, with the exception of one number only, was of a decidedly conservative character. The performance opened with a very effective orchestral arrangement, by H. Esser, of one of Bach's organ Toccatas, to which Dr. Damrosch lent additional interest by adding in some places, where it would produce the greatest effect, the original organ part. Mozart's Symphony in C—the "Jupiter"—and Beethoven's overture, "Leonore" (No. 3), were performed in the conscientious and highly-finished manner to which Dr. Damrosch has trained his orchestra. The novelty of the evening was an overture, or rather symphonic poem (for it is most essentially programme-music), by Carl Goldmark, "Penthesilea." This interesting work by the highly-gifted Hungarian composer is, like his other orchestral compositions with which we are acquainted, chiefly remarkable for brilliant and effective instrumentation. Goldmark has selected four scenes from an entirely forgotten drama by the German poet Kleist, which he depicts in his overture in striking and vivid outlines. The queen of the Amazons, Penthesilea, leads her army of virgin warriors against the Greeks, encamped under the walls of Troy, to capture the Greek youths for the celebration of the Feast of Roses. She conceives a passionate love for Achilles, but, distrusting his vows, blinded by jealousy and pride, she slays her lover and expires mourning over the hero's corpse. The leading motives—battle; the mysterious rites of the feast of roses; love; death—are treated by the composer in a truly poetic spirit. Miss Thursby sang an old Italian air by Jomelli (1750) and the well-known cavatina from "Der Freischütz" in a cold and conventional way. She failed to make an impression on a kindly disposed audience. Cold and conventional were, indeed, the characteristics of the whole performance. It was lacking in the warmth and strength to which Dr. Damrosch has accustomed us on former occasions.

—The second concert of chamber-music by the Philharmonic Club introduced a programme of sterling merit and interest. Schumann's string quartet in A, Op. 41, No. 1, perhaps the most beautiful of the three which we possess by this master, received a very praiseworthy rendering. Mr. Richard Arnold, the first violin of the Society, played with Mr. Rummel a sonata, by Raff, for violin and piano, which we do not remember to have heard here before. The second movement, a charming little air with variations, is particularly graceful and interesting. The scherzo and finale are very brilliant, but the effect was greatly marred by Mr. Rummel's *forte* playing, which drowned the violin part by Mr. Arnold, who at no time is remarkable for strength of tone. The concluding number was a pianoforte quintet, by Goldmark, which was given here for the first time. This characteristic composition was exceedingly well rendered by Mr. Rummel and the string quartet of the Philharmonic Club.

—By the death of James Clerk Maxwell England has lost not only one of her leading physicists, but a man of that highly imaginative turn of mind which, when restrained within scientific limits, is one of the most striking marks of genius. He was born in 1831, of gentle but not em-

nent family and lineage, and graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1854. Although the author of several mathematical papers before graduating, his tastes lay rather in the direction of experimental physics than of mathematics, and he does not seem to have been recognized as a youth of remarkable promise. His rank in graduating was that of second wrangler. The first evidence of his remarkable powers which was fully recognized was his essay on the constitution of the rings of Saturn, which gained for him the Adams prize at the Cambridge University in 1857. He here propounded the now generally accepted theory that the apparently solid rings are really a swarm of minute satellites which are individually entirely invisible, but so numerous as to appear like a solid mass when viewed at the immense distance which separates us from them. This theory was discussed with a completeness of detail and a profoundness of mathematical investigation which have made it a classic treatise on the subject. The next subject of his researches was the "dynamical" theory of gases, a theory which at first sight would seem to afford the most fanciful explanation of the elasticity of gases which a dreamer could conceive of, but which is now the only accepted one. It maintains that a gas is simply a swarm of disconnected molecules, each in rapid motion, which are constantly striking each other and rebounding again. The apparent elasticity of the gas, by which it presses against the sides of the containing vessel, is due only to the impact of the molecules. The velocity of motion is not far from that of a cannon-ball, and each molecule strikes another millions of times in a second. He next turned his attention to optics, electricity, and molecular physics in general, adding new and striking views to each subject he encountered. His treatise on electricity and magnetism is now the standard work in the English language. Among his curious plays of imagination may be mentioned the conception of molecular demons possessing the power of intelligently managing the motions of the ultimate atoms of matter and producing results having some of the qualities of the perpetual motion. Although purely imaginative, the idea has a philosophic and scientific value from illustrating the foundations on which the theories of thermo-dynamics and of the steam-engine rest, and the limits of their validity. Such beings as these demons could make an engine work perpetually without themselves expending any power of their own; which is more than is true of any real animal. Since 1871 Clerk Maxwell has been Professor of Experimental Physics in Cambridge University. His life was almost purely that of a *savant*, varied by the literary diversions into which he was led by his poetic and imaginative taste.

—The Berlin *Gegenwart* of November 15 contains a report of some interesting experiments made by Dunstmaier to test the accuracy of Jäger's theory that the soul of every man and animal is to be sought for in the characteristic odor exhaled in each case. Dunstmaier, who unites in his own person the physiologist and metaphysician, was, until these experiments convinced him of his error, an outspoken opponent of Jäger's views. He is now, however, an enthusiastic convert. Dunstmaier's method was no doubt suggested to him by his familiarity with experimental science. He considered that light and the soul—if the soul is an odor—are both radiated, and that light can be, as it were, collected and fixed by a photographic plate coated with iodide of silver. What body, now, is as sensitive to odors as iodide of silver is to light? Evidently the nerves of smell in a dog. In the centre of the laboratory a cage containing twenty hares was placed, and a dog was admitted to the room. He at once made violent efforts to get at the hares, which, of course, in their terror rushed to and fro in the cage. After two hours of this torture the dog was killed, the nerves of smell and the mucous membrane of the nose removed, and rubbed up in a mortar with glycerine and water. The twenty hares had been exhaling their souls for two hours, and the dog, during all his panting and snuffing, inhaling them for the same length of time. The glycerine might be expected, then, to contain a certain quantity of the soul of the hare, the main characteristic of which is, of course, timidity. That this was the fact the following experiments seemed to prove: A few drops of the extract were administered to a cat; she ran away from some mice instead of pouncing upon them. By the subcutaneous injection of only two cubic centimetres a large mastiff was rendered so cowardly that he slunk away from the cat. By a similar experiment, in which, however, a young lion in a menagerie played the part of the hares, Duntsmaier succeeded in isolating the soul-substance of courage, and in transmitting it to other animals. Still more interesting experiments showed clearly that these "psychotypic" glycerine extracts had a decided effect on the human species. Thus, after swallowing a small dose of psychotypic timidity, Dunstmaier had not the courage to believe in his own great discovery! This effect soon passed off, however. On the other hand, Jäger found a large dose of psychotypic courage of the greatest use while writing his last work on the Jews. Dunstmaier has published his investigations in the first volume of the Transactions of the German Ozological Society, where our readers can find also the details of some experiments in which a timid, blushing girl was the original radiating body. He promises further developments in this interesting line of research.

—Seldom has romance been so real and reality become so romantic as in the life and death of Alexander Petöfi, whose memory the passionate admiration of his countrymen has surrounded with a legendary halo securing to the Hungarian bard a double immortality. For it is the popular belief in Hungary that Petöfi, who was last seen alive on the battlefield of Schässburg, in Transylvania, on the 31st of July, 1849, escaped the lances of the Cossacks, which the sober judgment of the participants in that battle has assigned as the cause of his disappearance. The number of false Petöfis has been considerable, and the credulousness of the peasantry boundless; as late as 1877 the story that an escaped prisoner from Siberia had there seen Petöfi as a captive in one of the silver-mines ran like wildfire through the country, causing an excitement which was not allayed until the authorities established the untruth of the report. On the thirtieth anniversary of the battle of Schässburg the Hungarian novelist, Jókai, published some recollections of the poet under the title of "Petöfi and his Enemies," treating, in his usual lively way, of the quarrels in which the vicissitudes of Petöfi's early life as a strolling actor and his impetuous temper so often involved him. One of the causes of his quarrels while on the stage was his refusal to sing in the chorus, and he always retained a strong aversion to song and the opera. Jókai's story and an authentic description of the battle of Schässburg, by Dr. Joseph Lengyel, who was at Petöfi's side up to the time of the last attack of the Russians, together with other relevant and irrelevant matter, are now republished in pamphlet form by K. M. Kertbeny ('Petöfi's Tod vor dreissig Jahren'; Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich). Kertbeny is a writer who for more than thirty years, in season and out of season, has flooded the world with books and pamphlets and articles about Petöfi, Hungary, and—himself. He is, however, unquestionably sincere in his enthusiasm for Petöfi, and his translations are probably more faithful to the original, and hence more valuable, than any that have thus far been attempted. Sir John Bowring's English version is notoriously inadequate. In French no fewer than ten translations—mostly after German renderings—have been published, and there are more or less complete translations of Petöfi's songs in Spanish, Italian, Russian, Polish, Czech, Servian, Danish, Swedish, and Finnish. Only the peculiar charm of these songs can account for the many attempts to enrich other languages with the beauties of them. No one can make the acquaintance of his poetry without becoming more or less of a Petöfi enthusiast. He unites in himself the charms of many poets, yet is unlike any of them. He has Heine's sensuous softness, and yet is full of soul-kindling fire; his muse is as gay and careless as Béranger's, and yet as despondent as Byron's. His images are singularly striking, but he is sparing in their use. His short songs are often variations on one and the same theme, reminding us of the characteristic motive of Hungarian melodies.

—The St. Petersburg correspondence of German papers has a good deal to say about a diplomatic light of whom the Western world knows little—Mr. Andrei Hamburger, the newly-appointed envoy at Bern. This gentleman is a converted Jew, whence he was generally known by the nickname of the Russian Disraeli. It is now said that he has for many years been even more than a "right-hand man" to Prince Gortchakoff—that, in fact, the various state papers of which the minister has the credit were really only inspired by him; and in documents of this kind the form is often as important as the idea. When any writing was to be done the minister was helpless without his assistant, and his value to his master was proved by his being retained in service in spite of strong doubts, frequently expressed, of his being a trustworthy depositary of state secrets. It is even asserted that the Russian Chancellor will yet find a Moritz Busch in his late assistant; but his departure from the capital was caused by an indiscreet marriage which made his position in St. Petersburg uncomfortable, and not by any official indiscretion.

—Young ladies who aspire to the rank of dramatic authors should be careful to produce their first efforts before a more gallant public than that which frequents the Royal Theatre at Berlin. A certain Fräulein Hackenthal, daughter of a well-to-do merchant, having lately handed in to the director of that theatre a drama called "Eine Ehe von heut" (A Marriage of To-day), it had the unusual good fortune to be accepted for per-

formance. Public curiosity had been raised to a high pitch by various newspaper puffs and mysterious rumors, the name Hackenthal being at first described as a pseudonym, then attributed to a clever young lawyer, and finally to a blooming young maiden of distinguished family. The fact that the play had passed the rigid examination of the royal director, that it was put forward at the best period of the season, and that prominent actors were to take part in it, all helped to raise expectation to a point which is dangerous except to works of sterling merit. The first act was received with marks of encouragement mixed with signs of disapproval; but as the piece progressed the audience seem to have suddenly made up their mind that since it didn't amount to much they must at least get their fun out of it, which they did by indulging in all sorts of noises and by greeting the most serious words of the actors with sarcastic laughter. The piece is, in fact, very weak, the last act having, according to Paul Lindau, no more dramatic unity than a page of advertisements in a daily paper, while the tone of it is such that it is almost incredible that a young lady should have written it. A father who is in financial difficulties compels his daughter to marry a notorious swindler whom she detests, by threatening to shoot himself in case of her refusal. The mother does not object to the marriage, because her only thought is of the milliner, whose bills must be met. The son is a Bohemian of the worst sort, who disgraces the whole family, and even goes so far as to pawn his sister's jewelry in order to pay his debts. The accepted son-in-law, after successfully deceiving the parents and the daughter, turns out a bankrupt villain, who, not content with having won his dishonest game, endeavors to commit a forgery, but being caught, eludes punishment by blowing out his brains. And so on. Some of the critics next morning insisted that it was not so much the crude author as the director who had a *fiasco* to record, for he ought to have known better than to accept such a piece. This provoked the ire of the august personage in question, Herr von Hülsen, who immediately issued a manifesto, not denying the public's right to show disapproval of a play placed before them, but insisting in his own behalf that this disapproval should be shown in a manner becoming the traditions and the dignity of a royal theatre. Not to be intimidated by any such proceedings, the performance would be repeated in spite of them. It was repeated we find, and better received the second time, but has since then disappeared from the repertory. Meanwhile the comic papers got hold of the subject, and to them we may leave it.

—The French theatrical annuals are never very punctual, and have been no more so this year than heretofore. But though not prompt they lose little interest on that account. The 'Almanach des Spectacles,' now in its fifth number, is the same admirable little volume as ever, in paper, type, and etchings. Nothing could better mark the different positions held by the stage in France and in England than a comparison of this dainty little book, fit record of an art, with the English theatrical annual, the '*Era* Almanack,' a business-like pamphlet, as well stuffed with advertisements as any other trade year-book. Or set the English annual with its scant record of dramatic doings beside the stout duodecimo of over six hundred pages which comes out as the fourth volume of the 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique.' The 'Annales' for 1878 is more carelessly edited than any previous issue, and its bulk is unduly generous; not even the theatres of Paris call for six hundred solid pages a year. A falling off is also to be noticed in the quality of the always amusing 'Soirées Parisiennes (de 1878)' which M. Mortier every year gathers together from the pages of *Figaro*. But these gossiping, semi-satirical sketches are not without value to the future historian of the French stage, or to the student of French life in our day, as is amusingly pointed out in the preface, written with much wit by M. Édouard Pailleron. The 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique' has also its preface, as is its custom. The first volume was introduced by M. Sarcey; to the second and third were prefixed essays by M. Got, of the Comédie-Française, and M. Victorien Sardou, on travelling companies and on the effect of a late hour of dining on the theatre. This year the essayist is M. Zola, and his subject is "Naturalism on the Stage."

—M. Zola opens his essay with a discussion of the meaning he attaches to the word "naturalism": it is "the return to nature, it is what scientific men did when they first thought of beginning with the study of bodies and phenomena, of basing themselves on experience, of working by analysis. Naturalism in literature is also the return to nature and to man, direct observation, exact anatomy; the frank acceptance and depicting of the thing as it is." M. Zola admits that Homer was a naturalist, so there can be nothing very new in the theory; the typical naturalist would be Dickens minus humor. M. Zola seems to jump from Homer to Diderot, who begat Balzac; and Balzac and Stendhal bring him down to M. Gustave Flaubert and MM. de Goncourt. The naturalistic novel is "simply an inquest on nature, beings and things." The interest is "no longer in the ingenuity of a fable, well invented and developed according to certain rules. Imagination is no longer needed, plot is of little consequence." What is wanted is facts, documents on humanity. "Instead of imagining an adventure, of complicating it, preparing stage surprises, which from scene to scene will bring it to a final conclusion, one simply takes from life the history of a being or of a group of beings whose acts one faithfully registers." The work has no other merit than "exact observation, the penetration more or less profound of the analysis, the logical linking of events." Above everything else "poetic justice" is abominable. M. Sardou is, he thinks, a prestidigitator who plays with marionettes, and his human documents are worn out and commonplace. M. Dumas is almost a naturalist at times, and his human documents are better; but he is too witty and too clever, and he "uses truth as a springboard to jump into space." M. Augier is nearly always a naturalist, but some of his characters are too good to live, and his pieces are too well made. In conclusion, M. Zola sets up face to face "the two formulas: the naturalistic, which makes the theatre the study and painting of life, and the conventional, which makes it a mere amusement of the intellect, an art of balance and symmetry, ruled according to a certain code." He ends by expressing his belief in the great future of the theatre so soon as it shall have adopted and adapted itself to the naturalistic formula. Here, by the way, he is in direct contradiction with his fellow "naturalist," M. Edmond de Goncourt, who recently declared that he did not believe in realism on the stage, and that the novel would kill the theatre in fifty years.

BENJAMIN ROBBINS CURTIS.*

THE biographical part of this memoir, contained in the first volume, is the work of Mr. George Ticknor Curtis, the brother of Judge Curtis. The second volume consists altogether of professional and miscellaneous writings, of which the most important are an article on "Debts of the States," republished from the *North American Review* for January, 1844; the Report of the Commissioners on the Reform of Procedure in Massachusetts; the dissenting opinion in the Dred Scott case; and the Argument in Defence of President Johnson, delivered before the Senate in 1868. The biography is well written, and as much is made as was possible out of the uneventful life of its subject. It would be easy to find fault with its length; it might, too, have been made less dry and professional; but there was no one so well qualified on the whole for the task as the person who undertook it, and of great American lawyers of recent times we know none more deserving of an elaborate biographical memorial than Judge Curtis.

He was born in 1809, and, we may almost say, was born a lawyer. In other words, he developed very early in life those strong moral and intellectual qualities which afterwards made his success at the bar so marked. As in the case of so many distinguished men, his mother was a woman of great force of character, who devoted herself to the education of her children. The family faith was Unitarian, and the Unitarians of that day in New England were, as a class, noted for the possession of high principle and vigorous intellects. As Mr. Curtis points out, this early New England Unitarianism was no exotic, transplanted from abroad, but sprang from the soil, and was a revolt and protest against the old rigid Calvinism handed down from generation to generation of orthodox believers. There was still in Massachusetts a close connection between church and state; the old Puritan habits and traditions gave an air of severity and rigidity to New England life which has long since passed away, leaving no trace behind. In 1809, in Watertown, heretics were probably not unfrequently prayed for by name in the village meeting-house. The minister wielded a power and authority, both spiritual and temporal, utterly impossible a generation later. There was still profound thinking and discussion about fate, fore-knowledge, and free-will—not among professors of metaphysics, but among plain, honest New England people like the Curtises—when the week's work was done, and the Puritan Sabbath, with Saturday's sunset, had settled down upon the quiet, God-fearing community in which they lived. In 1809 almost every New-Englander believed not only in the God of justice and retribution that he found in the Scriptures, but also in a personal devil, and in a hell, with torments such as had been graphically described by Jonathan Edwards. We may mention here as a curious fact illustrating the difference between the New England of our

* 'A Memoir of Benjamin Robbins Curtis, LL.D. With some of his Professional and Miscellaneous Writings. Edited by his Son, Benjamin R. Curtis.' 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1879.

day and the New England of two generations ago, that in the village in which Edwards once wrote his treatise on the Will, on a proposal being made to erect a monument to his memory within a few years, we have known degenerate opponents of the project to go to the length of circulating extracts from the divine's description of the torments of hell as an argument against it. In that early New England atmosphere Unitarians who protested against the orthodox faith were themselves imbued with its peculiar tone; and while they entertained liberal sentiments, and by intellectual processes reached conclusions at war with the established articles, they were, in disposition and character, filled with the serious and sombre view of life of the old Calvinism. It was an essentially religious community, and it is not surprising to find that Mr. Curtis had from his childhood up a strongly-marked religious character. In 1825, at the age of fifteen, we find him writing an essay on the Origin of Evil, and his treatment of the subject strongly shows the seriousness of his mind, while the method of argument as remarkably illustrates his logical bent. In the conclusion at which he arrived at this early age—that "the origin of evil is to be attributed neither to the agency of an evil spirit nor the natural depravity of man, but to some pleasure or advantage which outweighs a man's abhorrence of sin"—he was probably not shaken by his maturer experience of life.

It is unnecessary to pursue his career at school or at Harvard, where he was graduated as second scholar of the class of 1829, distinguished in Massachusetts for the number of men which it contained who afterwards became eminent in connection with art, science, letters, and the liberal professions. He took to the law without any hesitation, because, as his brother says, nature had made him a lawyer, and a great one. It is a proof of his natural inclination to the law that his studies in Coke and the Reports were begun while he was still in college and only seventeen years of age. In the same year in which he left college he entered the Law School of the University, where Judge Story was just beginning to lecture. In 1831 he left the Law School and began the practice of the law in the small country town of Northfield. After an active practice there for three years he moved, in 1834, to Cambridge, for the purpose of practising in Boston, and a year or two later to Boston, which became his home until his death, except during the period when he was one of the judges of the Supreme Court at Washington. The Boston bar, led as it then was by Choate and Webster, formed perhaps the most distinguished body of lawyers in the country, and for a man as young as Curtis to establish himself rapidly among the foremost of these was no ordinary proof of capacity. To those who never had the pleasure of hearing Judge Curtis argue a case it is difficult to convey an idea of the peculiar qualities which made him the great lawyer he was. The description given by his brother of his professional characteristics is the best which we have met with anywhere:

"His means of producing conviction, whether with a court or a jury, were plainness, conciseness, and accuracy. He was persuasive, because of his rejection of all superfluous and irrelevant matter, and because it was known that he disclaimed all the mere devices of speech. Mr. Webster said of him that 'his great mental characteristic is clearness, and the power of clear statement is the great power at the bar.' His power of lucid and exact statement, observed by all his contemporaries, was united with the power of close, logical, and sustained reasoning. There have been very prominent advocates who, when they have stated their case, have done all they can for it; and when this gift has risen to a high accomplishment it has been of great value. But in Mr. Curtis it was accompanied by another power of equal importance—the power of argument—which should come into play after the groundwork for reasoning has been laid. When he had stated his case he had *not* done with it, unless the statement was all that was needful to lead the tribunal to the desired decision. . . . Those who took pleasure in listening to him at the bar derived their enjoyment from the lucid and unimpassioned character of his discourse. . . . This enjoyment was felt in listening to Mr. Curtis by the unlettered as well as the lettered of his hearers, by jurors as well as by judges. Yet although he always had his feelings under control, he had very deep feelings; and he sometimes, with great simplicity and with an imagery that was all the more effective because it was never forced, and was but a momentary deviation from the steady march of his mind, touched the feelings of others while he was addressing their reason. But on such occasions he used no art. . . . To the passions or prejudices of men he never appealed. His mind was too honest, his strength was too real, to allow him to employ a weakness in others which he knew should not be allowed to govern them" (vol. i. pp. 82–84).

Perhaps it should be added to this—since nothing human is perfect—that a hostile critic might have found fault with Judge Curtis's manner as being slightly too *judicial* in tone for forensic argument.

After a practice of seventeen years in Boston Mr. Curtis was, at the age of forty-two, appointed a justice of the Supreme Court at Washington to fill the place made vacant by the death of Judge Woodbury. This period was one of intense political excitement in Massachusetts, and was marked by the rapid rise of the Free-soil party in power and numbers, culminating in the "coalition" of 1851. Mr. Curtis, like so many eminent lawyers all over the country, was conservative by instinct and training. He had no sympathy with the extremists on either side, though, like all true conservatives of that or any period, he had less sympathy with those who were endeavoring to effect a change in the established order of things than with those who stood by what they regarded as the traditions and customs of the past. But Mr. Curtis was genuinely independent, and, as his subsequent career upon the bench showed, cared nothing for the bearing of his opinions on party politics, provided he was satisfied that they were right. From his brother's account, it appears that one cause which led to his retirement from the bench was the feeling created among the judges by the Dred Scott decision. We must refer the reader to the very interesting account of this case given in the 'Life.' His biographer goes very minutely into all the details of the process by which the decision was finally reached. To the professional reader it is a melancholy story. Another cause for his retirement from the bench was the insufficiency of the salary, and on this subject some interesting facts are given. In the seventeen years from 1857 to 1874, Judge Curtis's professional receipts amounted to $650,000, or nearly $40,000 a year. A comparison between this sum and the salary paid a Supreme Court judge will enable any one to judge of the strength of the pecuniary inducements which the Government of this country holds out to eminent lawyers to adopt a judicial career. Of the part which Judge Curtis took in the impeachment trial of Mr. Johnson his brother gives a detailed account, and incidentally tells an anecdote, recalling in an amusing way the excitement of the trial, of a Republican who expressed to a Senator great regret at having read Judge Curtis's argument in the newspapers, on the ground that it had shaken his faith in the guilt of the accused.

We have no space to notice at the length they deserve the professional and miscellaneous writings collected in the second volume. To the student of law and of the constitutional history of the country they will be found of considerable value. In the article on "Debts of the States" is suggested an idea which, in a different form, has been discussed in many quarters since the repudiation of the carpet-bag debts of the Southern States. It is, that a foreign government might acquire the claims of its citizens against a defaulting State, and sue the State in the Supreme Court of the United States. Whether the same thing could not be done by one of the United States themselves was not considered by Judge Curtis; but a great part of his argument covers one case as well as the other. His report on the reform of legal proceedings in Massachusetts is also a valuable paper. The abuses of the old common-law system of practice and pleadings attracted the attention of reformers and the public at about the same time in Massachusetts and New York. The result in New York was the adoption of the Code of Procedure; in Massachusetts a simplification of the old system, without the destruction of any of its essential features. Any enquiry into the comparative merits of the two systems would involve technical considerations, but it may be said that there is no doubt that if the New York system has stood the test of time in the great commercial community of the country, and has given evidence of inherent fitness for our times by establishing itself in many of the newer States, the Massachusetts system has steadily gained favor with a bar which is certainly as competent as any in the country to judge about such matters. It is a pity that at the time when law reform obtained full swing in New York the degradation of the judiciary through the elective system also began. It is impossible to say how good the New York system might have proved with a really good bench to administer it, or how much confusion and uncertainty might have been introduced into the Massachusetts system by bad judges.

All eminent lawyers belong to one or both of two classes—great advocates and great judges. We leave out of consideration what it is the fashion now to call "jurists," who generally belong to neither. Advocates, again, may be either effective with juries or in argument before a court. Judge Curtis was a great judge, and he was also a great advocate, but, as may be inferred from his brother's description of him which we have quoted above, his strength in argument lay in addressing a court. He addressed himself to the intelligence and reason of his audience, and he consequently needed an intelligent and reasoning audience. It was, indeed, fortunate for the country that, at the critical moment of the Johnson impeachment, when it depended on two or three wavering votes to decide what was to be the fate of the Government, such a man should have been at hand to warn unthinking partisans upon what sort of a path

they were entering. It is hardly too much to say that it was owing to Judge Curtis's argument that Mr. Johnson was acquitted. One of the Republican minority is quoted as having tersely said after the trial was over: "Judge Curtis gave us the law, and we followed it."

CONFUCIANISM AND TAOUISM.*

THIS work forms one volume in a series of original treatises, issued under the auspices of the well-known Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, which are intended to describe all non-Christian religious systems. Judging by the four already issued, and the names of their authors, it promises to be a valuable aid to an accurate knowledge of many obscure phases of human faith and practice, and of the lives and times of their teachers. Whatever rank the others may take, this treatise of Mr. Douglass's will bear comparison with any previous one on the subjects he has treated; and we can recommend it as a careful and trustworthy account of Confucius and Lao-kiun, their times, their tenets, and their disciples. The author is professor of Chinese at King's College, and has here given a convenient summary for the information of those who have no inclination or time to pursue these topics into their deeper recesses and minutiæ. We think that we shall do a good service to such enquirers by a sketch of its contents.

It is a source of constant error to Western people to call the teachings of Confucius a system of religion; and the title, "Non-Christian Religious Systems," given to this series, upholds this idea. Mr. Douglass lends it no countenance, but he seems to have overlooked the desirableness of saying a word or two against it. One result of this misconception is that people are looking in the writings of the Chinese sage for an outline of the systems of religious belief which are now seen in China, and which they naturally infer came from him. But if the moral writings of Seneca, Cicero, Plato, and many modern philosophers are not regarded as systems of religion, those of Confucius have even less claim to such a name; for he never even discussed the nature, powers, or origin of the gods, he laid down no rules for worship and instituted no ritual or sect. The very word Confucianism to denote a system of belief is unknown among his countrymen, and has been adopted by foreigners as a convenient rendering of the term *Yu Kiao—i.e.*, Instructions or Tenets of the Literati—because he is regarded as their highest authority. If we carefully remember this distinction we shall not look for what never entered his mind as being his great vocation, and shall be in a better position ourselves for estimating what he accomplished.

Mr. Douglass divides each of his topics into eight chapters, and devotes about two-thirds of the volume to the first and most interesting. A brief notice of the early history of the Middle Kingdom, aided by a skeleton map, shows the position of the leading feudal states north of the Yangtse River before and during the era of Confucius, and prepares the reader for the sketch of his life and actions. It is such an account as ought to supersede many current notices, for it has been digested from the most authentic sources available in Chinese history, and is divested of the legendary and supernatural incidents with which native writers have surrounded his name. If this sketch be compared with that of M. Pauthier in his 'Chine' (pp. 120–160), 1839; or an earlier 'Vie de Confucius en 24 Estampes,' Paris, 1783; or the still earlier accounts contained in the 'Mémoires sur les Chinois,' its superiority will be seen. One or two extracts, summarizing the leading traits of Confucius' life and character, may be introduced to show Mr. Douglass's style, and his opinion of the sage:

"He was now sixty-nine years of age, and if a man is to be considered successful only when he succeeds in realizing the dream of his life he must be deemed to have been unfortunate. Endowed by nature with a large share of reverence, a cold rather than a fervid disposition, and a studious mind, and reared in the traditions of the ancient kings, whose virtuous achievements obtained an undue prominence by the obliteration of all their faults and failures, he believed himself capable of effecting far more than it was possible for him or any other man to accomplish. In the earlier part of his career he had in Lu an opportunity given him for carrying his theories of government into practice; and we have seen how they failed to do more than produce a temporary improvement in the condition of the people under his immediate rule. But he had a lofty and steady confidence in himself, and in the principles which he professed, which prevented his accepting the only legitimate inference which could be drawn from his want of success. The lessons of his own experience were entirely lost on him, and he went down to his grave at the age of seventy-two, firmly convinced, as of yore, that if he were placed in a position of authority, in three years the government would be perfected" (page 57).

"Probably no man has been so contemned during his lifetime, and so worshipped by posterity, as Confucius. In both extremes there has been some exaggeration. His standard of morality was high, and his doctrines were pure. Had he, therefore, had an opportunity of exercising authority, it can but have resulted in good to an age when the notions of right and wrong were strangely confused, and when both public and private morality were at their lowest ebb. On the other hand, it is difficult to understand the secret of the extraordinary influence he has gained over posterity, and the more the problem is studied the more incomprehensible does it become. His system of philosophy is by no means complete; and it lacks life, if we may venture to say so, in face of the fact that it has supplied the guiding principles which have actuated the performance of all that is great and noble in the life of China for more than twenty centuries" (page 66).

In chapters iv. and v. Mr. Douglass gives a good synopsis of the two leading features of the teachings of Confucius, and readers will gather from their perusal a very just idea of his position among the intellectual leaders of mankind. One shows the "Training necessary to become a Superior Man"; the other, the proper "Government of the State." Confucius divided mankind into four classes, viz., those who are born with the possession of knowledge; those who get knowledge by learning; those who are dull and stupid, but can get knowledge by great effort; and those who are innately dull and stupid, and learn nothing. Besides these, he set before his disciples and countrymen, as a desirable object to strive for, the *kiun-tsze*—princely scholar, superior man, or perfect man, as it has been translated—a worthy character, whom every one of them could "imitate and equal." The sage was beyond common reach, being incapable of wrong-doing, but the "*kiun-tsze* was subject to faults and failings, which, though they were as transient as eclipses of the sun and moon, were yet equally observable by all men. He was endowed with no special grace by nature, but by carefully perfecting the good originally implanted in him his way became identical with that of heaven and earth and of all things, and he arrived at the dignity of a superior man."

Mr. Douglass then epitomizes the nine things which such a man seeks after, and the three things which he shuns, by extracts from the Classics under such heads as virtue, filial piety, friendship, benevolence, reverence, government of the person, family, and state, etc., etc. The high standard which the Pattern of Ten Thousand Ages has set here before the black-haired race for their moral guidance is well delineated. We think our author fails to appreciate the influence of Confucius in his ideal *princely scholar*, and fully set forth what a power for good over his race it has been ever since. It might be compared to the glorious work of Phidias on the Acropolis of Athens, that matchless statue seventy feet high, whose casque and spear of burnished brass glittered above all the towers and walls of the city in the eyes of the mariner coming from Sunium across the Ægean Sea, and engaged his constant gaze; guiding his onward course, it was still ever beyond his reach. Like the Minerva Promachus to the old Athenian voyager, so stands the *kiun-tsze* of Confucius among the ideal good men of pagan moralists. The immeasurable influence in after ages of the character thus portrayed proves how high his own standard was, and the national conscience has ever since assented to the justice of the portrait.

Mr. Douglass stops short of this; but he does ample justice to the unsullied character of the sage, and the high objects he set out to reach. He might have found a partial explanation of the devotion exhibited by his personal followers, and the lasting influence his name has carried with it ever since, in this purity, singleness, and practical wisdom. We must be careful, however, in estimating him and his great disciple Mencius, not to take them out of their proper surroundings and place them in our own, and this our author has in general tried to do, though not so fully as we should have wished. We disagree with him, however, in his translation of *ti* and *Shangti*, by God; though we will not dispute his assertion when he says: "Shangti approached nearer to the idea of the Hebrew God than any of their divinities." We might stop to ask him whether he himself regards the "Hebrew God" as one of a pantheon, for such a phrase seems to be rather a slip of the pen than anything else; but the conclusion is far more likely that Confucius reached as high an idea of Shangti as any of his countrymen, and never departed from the higher faith of his ancestors, which was akin to the deification of the visible heavens, mixed with that of apotheosized ancestors. His influence would have been greatly weakened if Confucius had left the enforcement of the practical duties of life, as given in the Analects and Great Learning, to go off into deep speculations on unseen things and beings, and multiply words without knowledge as his contemporary, Lao-kiun, did.

* 'Confucianism and Taouism. By Robert K. Douglass, of the British Museum.' With a Map. Published under the direction of the Committee appointed by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1879. Fcap. 8vo, pp. 287.

The enquiry which Mr. Douglass has raised in the extract already quoted, regarding the secret of the extraordinary influence Confucius has gained over his countrymen, he has partially answered at the close of the essay. Herein, too, as in his estimate of the *kiun-tsze*, our author seems to us to have been ready for a fuller exposition than his limits allowed. His words are:

"But it will naturally be asked, Wherein lay the secret of the vast influence which has been exercised by Confucius? And to this we answer, first, that being a Chinaman of Chinamen, his teachings were specially suited to the nature of those he taught. The Mongolian mind, being eminently phlegmatic and unspeculative, naturally rebels against the idea of investigating matters which are beyond its experiences, and its calm, placid habit forbids its being the instigator of fiery tempers and hot-headed crimes. With the idea of a future life still unawakened, a plain, matter-of-fact system of morality, such as that enunciated by Confucius, was sufficient for all the wants of the Chinese. Secondly, it was to the interest of both the rulers and the ruled to support his doctrines. The *de facto* ruler found in him a tower of strength; for if the throne was the reward vouchsafed by heaven for eminent virtue, then he who occupied it in peace must necessarily have an unassailable right to it; and the constant exhortations to loyalty to be found on every page of the Confucian writings cannot but have been grateful to the ears of sovereigns.

"The ruled, on the other hand, felt that they were supreme in the estimation of the sage. The promotion of their interests and material well-being was the first duty of the sovereign; and the extent of their loyalty was to be measured by his success in this direction. He recognized no ranks or titles but those won by merit, and thus every office in the state was open to every one alike. The people were to be well cared for, and in case of oppression or neglect they had the right of rebellion. The sovereign was the vicegerent of Heaven; but only as he walked in the heavenly way were the unswerving loyalty and devotion of his subjects due to him.

"And thirdly, the possession of so highly-prized a literature at so early a date having suggested its adoption as the curriculum in schools and the test of scholarship at all examinations, the people, ignorant of all else, have learned to look upon it as containing the quintessence of wisdom, and its author as the wisest of mankind. It might be considered impossible to calculate the concentration of a nation's mind, century after century, on the study of any given text-book; but in China we have the result worked out before us, and we find that it has amounted to the absolute subjection of upwards of forty generations of Chinamen to the dicta of one man" (pp. 169, 170).

This is good as far as it goes, even if it contains something like reasoning in a circle. Space does not permit an analysis pointing out the omission of some powerful influences and circumstances tending to the result now before us. Among these are the geographical isolation of the Chinese, which has prevented their mixing with other nations, and the still more complete intellectual isolation arising from their language, which has, as Mr. Douglass says, "left them ignorant of all else." When, therefore, they took the nine Classics as the curriculum of their competitive examination for office and honor, they did the best they could. They set the children to learn by heart the purest and best treatises on morals, ethics, and personal conduct in the language, and based the national standard of equity on the teachings of the highest moralist they knew.

Only one paragraph can be devoted to Taouism, though it presents many remarkable contrasts to Confucianism, in its founder, his teachings, and their outcome, which tempt one to enlarge. The first chapter is devoted to an historical notice of Lao-tsze, who will always remain one of the mysterious characters of antiquity, but who has left enough to assure us of his personality, his intellectual grandeur, and his remarkable originality, all fitting him to sit on the same seat with Pythagoras or Lucretius. His only work, the Tao-Tih King, or Canon of the Method of Virtue, is analyzed in the next two chapters, followed by a reference to some of his most eminent disciples, as Lih-tsze and Chwang-tsze, and the manner in which they departed from his instructions. In the course of ages the sect became imbued with and imitated the idolatry and hierarchy of the Buddhists, deifying Lao-tsze himself as the *San Tsing*, the Three Purenesses, or Pure Ones, and setting up a vast pantheon of gods and goddesses for the worship of their countrymen. Chapters vi. and vii. form two of the most interesting portions of this part, containing a translation of the Kan-ying Pien, or Book of Rewards and Punishments, and a brief synopsis of the Yin-chih Wăn, or Book of Secret Blessings. These two books contain all that is considered by the people of the present day essential in Taouism. They will reward perusal, but their effects in purifying and elevating society are very trifling. Modern Taouism is described, too, and Mr. Douglass shows how it has become little better than a system of alchemy, fortune-telling, and priestcraft, dividing the worship of the people with the Buddhists, and both of them disfavored by the literati.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

EVERY holiday season brings a fresh assortment of stories for the young which, as being new, recommend themselves as gifts and do their share in the cultivation of juvenile ethics. The books are few, of this class, to which exception cannot be taken either on the score of literary merit, or of adaptation of means to ends, or, finally, of good breeding; and as a rule they justly drop out of sight before the holidays recur. Of the better and rarer sort is Mrs. Mary Thacher Higginson's 'Room for One More' (Lee & Shepard), which has an enigmatic and almost misleading title. A motherless boy, it is true, is taken into a family already overburdened with children, but he is not the hero of the story, and the fate of the experiment is not the *motif* of the story. Mrs. Higginson rather gives a simple picture of family life for two or three years as it is apt to be passed, not without incident but without plot, and scarcely more worthy of record at one time than at another. Her narrative seems very real, and some of her readers can doubtless unmask the Rand family and locate Clifton and Riverbank on the map. The moral of it is the reward of duty and the efficacy of the law of love in the training of children. In actual experience, as we all know, these facts are often obscured except to the inner sight and in the long run, and there is a certain illusiveness in smooth and summary accounts of their realization. Anything else, however, would not be comprehensible to children, or impressive, and the compensation is that the illusions are humanizing. So we commend this book for all its examples of the formation of character from day to day under wise and gentle teaching and with the help of conscience, though we do not think it contains the whole gospel of birds'-nesting. There is a pleasant sense of restraint on the part of the writer, both in avoiding extravagant talk in her characters and in repressing fine writing about nature, and the tone of the book is irreproachable.

Mr. Ascott R. Hope's 'Spindle Stories,' "or new yarns spun from old wool," as the sub-title reads (Geo. Routledge & Sons), is an attempt to expand Mother Goose in prose, with a result anything but successful. The stories possess a degree of ingenuity, but compare sadly in humor and imagination with the corresponding portions of 'Alice in Wonderland,' etc.—the episode of Humpty Dumpty, for example. Rhyming head-lines for the pages are an innovation which will hardly become a fashion.

The repulsiveness of "Rashycoat," the first of the 'Tales of Old Thulê,' collected and illustrated by Mr. J. Moyr Smith (J. B. Lippincott & Co.), would quickly be seen if the incidents narrated should appear on the stage or in a police court. It seems to us, for all its likeness to 'Cinderella,' thoroughly unwholesome reading for children. This objection does not apply to the remaining fairy tales in the volume, but another may be raised to the intercalated Scotch popular stories, "The Brownie in the Pantry" and the "Trial of the Suitors," which have a vulgar tinge. Nor can we praise Mr. Smith's illustrations, in which there is too much india-rubber posturing.

The right and wrong of shutting up caterpillars to watch their transformations is not discussed in Mrs. Higginson's 'Room for One More,' but Mrs. Julia P. Ballard assumes the right and the instructiveness of it in her 'Insect Lives; or, Born in Prison' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.) The introduction gives the necessary information to the beginner in the business, and then in a very charming and easy way shows from her own experience the delights of watching the spinning of the cocoon and the shedding of it, and the emergence of the known moth from the unknown shell; how the entomologist's curiosity is piqued and gratified; how fastidious in their diet worms are found to be, and the rest. The young naturalist cannot fail to be stimulated by this book, and will be rightly directed by it. The cuts are borrowed from a variety of sources, and some of the best.

For very little folks, praise must also be accorded to 'Tiny's Natural History,' in words of four letters, with plenty of illustrations (Routledge). Not only is the limited vocabulary used with great skill and fluency, but the instruction itself is admirably condensed and packed. The reindeer, fox, gold-fish, ass, dog, seal, hawk, wolf, and bear are some of the animals treated within the compass of eighty pages.

A cheap edition of 'Hans Brinker' (Charles Scribner's Sons), made from the old plates and the new illustrations, should not be overlooked. There is no better sign in juvenile literature than the survival of what deserves to endure—the genesis of a new classic.

Breton Folk: an Artistic Tour in Brittany. By Henry Blackburn. With one hundred and seventy illustrations by Randolph Caldecott.

(New York: Scribner & Welford. 8vo, pp. 200.)—"'Breton Folk' is not a description of the antiquities of Brittany, nor even a book of folk-lore. It is a series of sketches of a 'black-and-white-country' under its summer aspect; of a sombre land shrouded with white clouds, peopled with peasants in dark costumes, wide white collars and caps, black and white cattle and magpies. The illustrations have been drawn by the artist from sketches made on the spot, and, apart from their artistic qualities, have the curious merit of truth. They have been engraved with the utmost care by Mr. J. D. Cooper." Thus does Mr. Blackburn review his own and Mr. Caldecott's book. There is scarcely more preface than we have quoted above. A headpiece shows the artist lifting hard to open a large gate, while two girls in high steeple-shaped white caps await his success: a tail-piece shows him sketching, seated on the coping of a dwarf wall and leaning against high iron railings, while children swarm around him, one of whom he holds encircled with his left arm, and an old peasant cranes his neck from beyond the bars to see. The title-page vignette gives a *menhir* with a very large magpie on its top and a *dolmen* behind; a peasant, with broad hat, buttons, *sabots*, and shirt-collar, leaning against the upright stone on one side, and a peasant girl half-hidden by it, cattle beyond, a desolate landscape, and the distant sea. The gateway-towers and one angle of a fourteenth-century castle make up the headpiece to the list of illustrations; sheep, crouching behind a bank for shelter from the wind, with well-suggested thin bushes and hedgerow, are the subject of the *cul-de-lampe*. And in this way throughout the book the strange and interesting people, dress, and roadside scenes of Brittany are sketched and preserved in all the nooks and corners of the text. There are larger, and even full-page illustrations as well. Especially good are those which show each the whole of some little old village, or at least its principal square, at a glance: Pontaven and Le Faouet are two of these. "Potato-getting at St.-Pol-de-Léon" gives a charming hint of the not very distant town and its two considerable churches which tower above the near hedges and farther houses. Indeed, all these designs are of interest and some of peculiar value. They are just such studies as the attentive traveller would like to make for himself, and to one who had loved Brittany without knowing how to make memoranda of it this book would answer all the purposes of a private sketch-book, except that he would wish it doubled or trebled in extent. The reader must be prepared, however, for woodcuts of very different appearance from the elaborate works of art produced by our two rival magazines when they do their best. These seem to be fac-similes of the artist's swiftly-made drawings, and are quite regardless of refinements of light and shade.

The text is a pleasant and easy-going account of the country and people, with a good deal of advice for travellers. In both text and pictures the antiquities and the important mediæval architecture of Brittany are almost wholly neglected, and indeed little else than the ways and fashions of the people has received attention. The book may be the more pleasing to most persons on that account.

A Series of Character Sketches from Dickens. Being Fac-similes of Original Drawings by Fred. Barnard. (New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.)—This Christmas publication is of a very unusual character. It consists of six lithographs on very large paper (20x27 inches), each accompanied by a fly-leaf on which is printed some brief extract from one of Dickens's novels having to do with the subject of the plate. The whole is contained in a portfolio. Each picture is a simple portrait of one of Mr. Dickens's immortalities—of Mr. Pickwick or Alfred Jingle, Bill Sykes or Sairy Gamp, Little Dorrit or Sidney Carton—a full-length portrait with appropriate surroundings and attributes. Mr. Pickwick is perhaps the most successful of all; he is represented as seated on the grass and caressing affectionately that famous jar of cold punch, on the occasion of the shooting-party which ended, for him, in the pound. The portraits of Little Dorrit and Mrs. Gamp are the less satisfactory because the personages are not seen at any eventful moment of their existence. It is possible that very great success in character-painting would make Mrs. Gamp, for instance, complete in herself, without the aid of her immediate occupation, but this picture, which suggests only a recent and surreptitious appeal to the "bottle on the chimley-piece," makes an insufficient impression, and we should like to have her seen shaking up old Chuffey, or denouncing Mrs. Prig. Nor do we speak without book, for in the 'Martin Chuzzlewit' which belongs to the Household Edition of Dickens those very scenes are capitally given, and in each Mrs. Gamp is prodigious. Moreover, the two designs, with all the rest, are, we take it, by this same Mr. Barnard. On the title-page, indeed, the illustrator is called J. Barnard, while on the title-pages of 'David Copperfield,' 'Bleak House,' and half a dozen volumes more it is F. Barnard; but the style is the same, and the cipher in the corner of each picture is the same, and, lacking positive information to the contrary, we conclude that our "Fred. Barnard" of the large lithographs is the illustrator of all those books. It is necessary only to add that the lithographs, without being of the highest refinement of workmanship, are good, and may be trusted to render the original drawings with fidelity.

Illustrations of the History of Art. (Boston: L. Prang & Co. Oblong folio. Part I., 39 plates; Part II., 57 plates.)—This is a gathering together of woodcut pictures from a number of different works on the fine arts. The first number is devoted to the nations of classical antiquity, and the second to the epoch of Christian art, commonly so called. The third is announced to contain forty-eight plates devoted to the architecture and sculpture of the Renaissance and of modern times, the fourth to give the history of industrial art (by which we suppose decorative art is meant) in all ages and nations, and the fifth to the history of painting. There is also to come a volume of text, of which the size and price are not announced. The books of plates, in their paper covers, are to cost ten dollars, and also will be sold separately at different prices. Such books may be made useful by students who have not access to better ones. This possible usefulness is to a certain extent counterbalanced by the possibility of their doing harm. It is the old question, never to be answered categorically: Are a few general impressions, certainly vague and therefore often erroneous, better than none? Is it better to know nothing about Greek, Roman, Persepolitan, Assyrian, or Egyptian art, or to look at these four hundred or five hundred woodcuts, all different in size, in subjects, in scale, and in style, and in doing so to pick up a lot of partial information? Nor is our question quite satisfactorily answered when we are told that such books are good for schools to have and for school-teachers to refer to. Unfortunately, the teachers of this land are not fitted to make any proper use of them.

Public Addresses of John Bright, M.P. Edited by James E. Thorold Rogers. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 542.)—The speeches contained in this volume are thirty-three in number, and extend from 1863 to 1879, all except one being arranged in chronological order. They may be said as a whole to present a vigorous running commentary upon the course of politics in Great Britain, both when the speaker was in sympathy with the Government and when he was in opposition. The speeches delivered during the present administration will be found to contain a keen criticism of the successive measures of the Government, from the purchase of the shares in the Suez Canal to the Afghan war. The single speech delivered in the present year is upon the Eastern policy of the Government. There is rarely in any of them any appeal to the emotions, except through the clear and forcible statement of facts, and they are almost wholly devoid of "flights of eloquence" such as second-rate orators delight in. Mr. Bright quotes (p. 107) Milton's definition of eloquence, as "the serious and hearty love of truth," and seems to have taken it as his own standard; for all his eloquence consists in the earnest conviction of a strong nature, so serious and so hearty as to possess him for the time being and inspire his utterances with genuine power.

Perhaps the nearest approach to impassioned oratory which this volume contains is the close of the speech at Bradford on unveiling the statue of Cobden (July 25, 1877); it is a noble example of sober, manly eloquence (p. 366):

"But let me add that this which you have erected to-day, or which is erected in your midst, is by no means the greatest monument that has been built up to him. There is one far grander and of wider significance. There is not a homestead in the country in which there is not added comfort from his labors, not a cottage the dwellers in which have not steadier employment, higher wages, and a more solid independence. This is his enduring monument. He worked for these ends and for these great purposes, and he worked even almost to the very day when the lamp of life went out. He is gone; but his character, his deeds, his life remain a possession to us, his countrymen. And let this be said of him for generations to come, as long as the great men of England are spoken of in the English language—let it be said of him that Richard Cobden gave the labors of a life that he might confer upon his countrymen perfect freedom of industry, and with it not that blessing only, but its attendant blessings of plenty and of peace."

A good specimen of Mr. Bright's style is found in this vigorous description of the Government of India before the Mutiny (p. 110):

"It was called a double Government. It consisted of a number of directors of an extinct trading company—a company that was always

bankrupt. The directors, who were bred in corruption, and who practised it during their tenure of office, and who, in point of fact, may be said to have lived upon it, neglected everything they ought to have done except the collection and expenditure of taxes. And to that curious Government was added a Minister of State, who was appointed to control the said directors. He allowed them to do nearly everything evil that they liked to do, and he added to their evil-doings some other evil-doings of his own. To a system like this there were numbers of persons in this country—thousands, perhaps millions—who assented. They imagined that it was possible to go on governing a country containing 150,000,000 of people, composed of more than twenty different languages, of different religions and different ways in every particular, under such a system."

Mr. Bright sees no merit in schemes for improving the machinery of government, like personal representation. His object is to carry measures, not to attain an equitable representation. "Let us have no new-fangled ideas," he says (page 104); and adds that this measure might have come "from Bedlam, or a region like that." The sixth address (at Birmingham) is especially devoted to this subject; and he insists that Birmingham, being a Liberal constituency, is entitled to a unanimous Liberal representation—not seeing any merit in having the Liberal minority in Conservative constituencies represented, to balance the representation of the Conservative minority in his own town.

There is an excellent index—an invaluable feature of a book like this. We have found it correct and complete so far as we have consulted it, except that "Irrigation" (in India) is placed out of its alphabetical order.

The Relations of Mind and Brain. By Henry Calderwood, LL.D. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—Professor Calderwood tried the prolix style in his first work; in the second he attempted compression; in this he has reverted to prolixity, not, we think, altogether to the reader's advantage. This octavo of 450 pages, however distended it may be, is, nevertheless, one more pleasant sign of the *rapprochement* which is going on with ever-increasing energy between those who approach mental science from the introspective and physiological sides respectively. There is hardly a physiologist now whose duties do not call him to give some account of sensation, perception, and thought. It is amusing to see how easily they do it in Germany, referring mainly to each other's writings, adopting or refuting each other's opinions and experiments, and acting on the whole as if such creatures as purely metaphysical psychologists had never been seen on earth. It does not surprise us in the least nowadays, when the last *Lieferung* of Stricker's 'Lectures on Experimental Pathology' reaches us, to find that that excellent medical investigator has thought it incumbent upon him to present us with a complete little treatise on mental science, in which all the cardinal questions are settled after his own fashion.

Crude as a great deal of this laboratory psychology is, and ignorant as are some of its cultivators of what has been done by the philosophers who have preceded them in the study of the same problems, the whole movement must be admitted, even by those whose studies least qualify them for taking part in it, to be full of the richest promise. The facts which the trained cunning and keen rivalry of the physiologists are constantly bringing to light could never be known but for them, and whatever lack of analytic acuteness may lie in their reasonings is sure to disappear as they discuss matters more and more minutely, and have forced upon their attention the difficulties and paradoxes which philosophers have always found in personal identity, cognition, and the relation of mind, brain, and thing known. Then also their respect and sympathy will rise for their introspective rivals.

That these latter at least respect the experimentalists, is evident from the great pains which an orthodox Scotch metaphysician like Professor Calderwood has taken to master their results. The first two hundred pages of his book are occupied by an account of the anatomy and physiology of the nervous centres which would not discredit a professed naturalist, and which may be recommended to all who wish a comprehensive view of these subjects. In the latter half of the book the author tries to show at great length that none of the facts yet discovered enable us to dispense with the notion of a personal soul to which the brain stands only in the light of an organ. The excessive diffuseness of the arguments in this part makes it difficult to summarize them. The strongest is that derived from the form of consciousness. Separate nerve processes, as well as the separate feelings which accompany them, may awaken each other and coexist to all eternity, without either being aware of the other. In consciousness they not only exist distinct from each other, but are compared and distinguished. This coming together and at the same time remaining separate is a thing to which we can imagine no physical analogue. To combine several nerve processes in one "would end in confusion, not in discrimination."

In other chapters we think Dr. Calderwood decidedly less happy Notwithstanding his conscientious efforts he has failed to place himself at the proper point of view for seizing the full strength of the physiologist's position. He seems not to understand even the way in which introspective psychology has tried to build up the full working mind out of elementary motor and sensory images. The nowadays much-talked-of localization of functions on the surface of the brain is but an attempt to schematize mechanically the laws of association of these images. Professor Calderwood is grossly mistaken in supposing, as he does on page 353, that the brain theory of volition rests on the fact that the frontal lobes do not respond to electricity, and that a certain monkey of Ferrier's seemed to lose his power of attention when they were destroyed. And what a strange objection is it to the physiological account of memory to admit that a brain tract may produce the thought of a past occurrence when made to vibrate by a present sensation; but to ask triumphantly, how is spontaneous memory ever possible? for in the absence of a sensory impression "*what starts the vibration?*" Has it never occurred to the doctor that the tracts may start each other?

Altogether the critical part of the work is mediocre in the extreme, and, beyond one or two anecdotes, contributes hardly a sentence to the real elucidation of the subject. Its main merit is its temper, and that may make it do some service to ultra-orthodox readers.

A Popular History of the United States, from the first discovery of the Western hemisphere by the Northmen to the end of the first century of the Union of the States. Preceded by a sketch of the pre-historic period, and the age of the Mound-builders. By William Cullen Bryant and Sydney Howard Gay. Vol. iii. Fully illustrated. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879.)—The third volume of Bryant's 'History of the United States' extends from the accession of William and Mary to the close of the campaign of 1778 in the Revolutionary War, ending with the victory of John Paul Jones. In space it is divided equally between the Colonial and Revolutionary periods; there are twenty-four chapters, and chap. xiii. is headed "Alienation from England"—narrating, therefore, the series of events which led to the revolt. The period embraced by this volume is, more than any other part of American history, a period of wars; and we regret that the chapters are not so arranged as to make clear the succession and connection of these wars—the earlier wars of the period being narrated incidentally in the course of the chapters upon the several colonies, while the "French War" (or, as we used to call it, the "French and Indian War") has three chapters devoted to it. Perhaps this method has the advantage of making plain the fact that war with the Indians (and consequently with the French) was almost the normal condition of things all this time; it has its advantage also in making more prominent the peaceful side of events. But it certainly makes it less easy for the reader to find what he wants. As a history of military operations, which is the most important feature of this volume, it will rank high. These operations are described clearly and with animation, and we can only wonder that the narration is so seldom accompanied by charts and plans, without which the most careful and accurate descriptions are inadequate. There is an abundance of plans of Boston and vicinity, and a good map of Manhattan Island; a good map, too, of Lake George, for the French War, and one or two other small ones; but the battles of Long Island and White Plains, the retreat through the Jerseys, Burgoyne's battles, and other important engagements are left wholly without illustration.

As in the former volumes, good use has been made of the latest monographs and researches: in the battle of Bunker Hill the chief command is attributed to Colonel Prescott, which we think hardly correct—he commanded at the redoubt, it is true, but cannot fairly be said to have had the chief command of the whole movement. This has been proved, we think, by Mr. Tarbox (see the *Nation*, No. 588).

Études accadiennes. Par François Lenormant. Tome troisième, première livraison. 4to, pp. 200. (Paris: Maissonneuve et Cie. 1879.)—The bulk and the number of the tasks which the versatile M. Fr. Lenormant sets for himself compel the purchaser sometimes to wait long before he can send to the binder the completed volumes. The last *partie* of his still incomplete 'Essaie sur la propagation de l'Alphabet Phénicien' appeared four years ago; and only now, after five years' interval, is he attempting to complete his 'Études accadiennes,' which was interrupted,

after the appearance of the first half of the second volume, by his reply to M. Halévy's denial of the existence of any Accadian language, and then by the studies necessary to write his important work, 'La Monnaie dans l'Antiquité.' The first portions of his 'Études accadiennes' were reproduced by photo-lithography from the author's autograph, though by no means with such mechanical beauty as the second edition of Delitzsch's 'Assyrische Lesestücke.' They included a tentative grammar of Accadian; a table of 548 characters, with their variants and values; and an interlineary translation of over forty Accadian texts. During the past five years, thanks largely to the spur of Halévy's destructive criticism, Accadian studies have received much attention from cuneiform scholars, and M. Lenormant could not take up his task where he laid it down in 1874. Leaving the second volume permanently incomplete, he now begins the third volume with a chrestomathy of the same bilingual texts as were contained in the second volume, with improved translations, and with some important texts added. The knowledge thus far acquired of Accadian, the Turanian language spoken by the earliest civilized people of southern Mesopotamia, is still so imperfect that it would be difficult for the best scholars to translate a long text if found by itself. Fortunately, the texts are chiefly bilingual, and most of them are known from their Assyrian translations, as the Assyrians adopted the science and religious lore, as well as the graphic system, of the more learned Turanians whom they had conquered. Our author's translations from the original Accadian of these primitive magical formulas and hymns to the gods are constantly checked by the Assyrian, which he gives in a parallel column. This forms the fullest collection of translations of these remains yet made, although nearly all of them, translated from the Assyrian version, have appeared in the 'Records of the Past,' or in Lenormant's 'Chaldean Magic,' or in the Proceedings of learned societies. When it is remembered that the Accadian ceased to be spoken as a living language about seventeen centuries before Christ—that is, from one to three centuries before the exodus from Egypt, according to what chronology we adopt—the importance to the student of comparative religion of these texts found in Assyrian libraries can be readily imagined. Not one of them is more important than the penitential psalm (p. 146), also translated by Mr. Sayce in vol vii. of 'Records of the Past.' In this psalm, which is so much like the Hebrew psalms in its parallelisms and in its humble confessions of sin, we notice that Lenormant has made some important improvements over the translation of Sayce. The rubrical directions that certain stanzas be repeated from five to sixty-five times are all otherwise translated. This volume will be completed in three more *livraisons*, which will include an Accadian glossary as complete as can be made, a new table of characters, and new paradigms of grammatical forms. It is printed from ordinary type, although the glossary will have to be reproduced in autograph, as it is almost impossible to set in type the complicated cuneiform characters.

Cebetis Tabula, with Introduction and Notes by C. S. Jerram, M.A. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878. 12mo, pp. xxxix. 51.) —The 'Tablet' of Cebes was once a very popular school-book for beginners in Greek. For nearly a century it has fallen into comparative neglect, the last preceding English edition having appeared in 1804. The present edition contains an elaborate introduction, discussing the character and genuineness of the work, the relative value of the MSS., and the various editions. The Greek text, as given by Mr. Jerram, appears to be, on the whole, very satisfactory, and a sufficient apparatus of various readings is given to enable the critical scholar to make his choice. The commentary is more than ordinarily well adapted to the use of both teachers and learners. The classical scholar will hardly find a neater, more convenient, or more useful edition of this pretty little fragment of Greek literature.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Allen (Z.), Solar Light and Heat	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Babcock (W. H.), Lord Stirling's Stand, and Other Poems	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	$1 50
Butterworth (H.), Zigzag Journeys in Europe	(Estes & Lauriat)	
Colange (L. de), Dictionary of Commerce and Manufactures, Parts 1–4, swd	(Estes & Lauriat)	
Colomb (Mme.), True as Steel	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
Dobson (A.), Hogarth	(Scribner & Welford)	1 25
Eggleston (Rev. E.), Brant and Red Jacket	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	1 25
Gilman (A.), Shakspere's Morals	" "	1 50
Gilmore (Prof. J. H.), English Language and Early Literature	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Hasell (E. J.), Calderon	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 00
Hope (A. R.), Spindle Stories	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
Kett (C. W.), Rubens	(Scribner & Welford)	1 25
Kingston (W. H. G.), Notable Voyages	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
Lamb (Mrs. M. J.), Homes of America	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
History of the City of New York, Vol. II., Part 2, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	50
Larcom (Lucy), Landscape in American Poetry	(D. Appleton & Co	
Liddon (Rev. H. P.), Sermons	(Rivingtons)	
Linton (W. J.), Some Practical Hints on Wood-Engraving	(Lee & Shepard)	1 25
Maberly (J.), The Print Collector	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	
Matthews (J. B.), Comedies for Amateur Acting, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Rideing (W. H.), The Alpenstock, swd	" "	30
Smith (G. B.), Life of W. E. Gladstone	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	4 00

Fine Arts.

MR. RUSKIN'S DRAWINGS.

THE exhibition of drawings by Mr. Ruskin, which was opened at the Twenty-third Street "American Art Gallery," on Monday, is in many ways unusual. Indeed it is unique, in that it is a show of things never made to be shown, of drawings made not as an end but as means to a different end, the property of the artist and yet not for sale. Mr. Ruskin and his books are now undergoing trial, and in these drawings is testimony in his behalf. They are exhibited, it appears, for that reason. They show the best side of the mind and work of their author. They should be studied by those (and they are many) who, having been swayed powerfully by Mr. Ruskin's books of twenty years ago, now review their old enthusiasm and that which called it forth in the light of greater experience and the recent startling and hardly reasonable utterances of their teacher, and are not unapt to conclude that they have been fools, and their guide a fanatic.

In the spring of 1878 an exhibition was opened in London of drawings by Turner, a hundred and twenty in number, belonging some to Mr. Ruskin and some to that Oxford collection which was his own gift to the University. While this was still on view a few admirers contributed to buy and present to Mr. Ruskin a certain important Turner water-color, of his best late time, the "Pass of the Splügen," which had been bought in 1842 for eighty pounds, and was now worth a thousand, more or less, as competitors might be minded. Mr. Ruskin, it appeared, had coveted the possession of this drawing, and now, as he lay ill at Brantwood, considered how to acknowledge his sense of the preciousness of the gift. It seems an odd thing to do, but he made up a collection of drawings of his own, "in illustration of Turner," as he said, "to show the importance of this Splügen drawing, and others." What he meant was not very evident. His own work illustrates Turner only by representing topographically what Turner had drawn artistically, and that only in a few instances. The exhibition of his own drawings could be of avail in only one way, by attracting public attention to the great extent, variety, and long-continued energy of his own studies, in at least one subject—namely, the external aspects of things. This was his own especial domain, the field he was born to cultivate, but which he had almost wholly quitted for vague excursions in regions only half comprehended, only half seen by their too-confident explorer. For the illustration of his own labors as a student of external nature this exhibition was very important, and, indeed, came none too soon; for, of course, he had never sent work of his own to any public exhibition, nor sold any, and few persons could have known it except through the engravings from it contained in his books.

The present exhibition in New York is better fitted for this purpose than the London one. The writer has spent many hours in the study of each of these collections, and, while missing the important Oxford drawings which could not be brought to America, prefers on the whole the collection which makes no pretence at "illustrating Turner" or anything except Mr. Ruskin's thirty years of study from external nature. The drawings are 106 in number, and are arranged in four groups, but, in the main, chronologically. There are a few drawings of childhood, of which nothing need be said more than this—that they are rather precocious. Then come some rather slight pencil drawings of Gothic buildings, Peterborough, Roslyn, a view of the Swiss Bâle—work done between the ages of eighteen and twenty, very much under the influence of Samuel Prout, very mannered, unusually good for a boy of that age, but not remarkable if their author had been four years or so older, and promising nothing as to future advance. It is perhaps a pity that these drawings are here. A mention of them in the Catalogue would have answered all purposes, and they do harm in confusing people and creating false general impressions. One overhears gentlemen expounding to their lady friends the weakness of the work, seemingly unaware that it is schoolboy work. At all events, there should be in some way a marked division between this and the independent, strong, purposeful work from nature which begins in 1842. If this paper is read by any person who means to go to the Exhibition, let him begin his examination with Nos. 17 and 18. If, then, the visitor has any curiosity to see what kind of boy's work the boy John Ruskin did, he may look at Nos. 1 to 16 before he leaves, remembering that these drawings, which would not be remarkable for a young man who had already begun the regular and practical study of art, were the result of his own in the main undirected thought and labor.

Beginning, then, with Nos. 17 and 18, it is to be observed, as the Lon-

don "Notes" pointed out, apropos of a drawing which is not here, that this was the point the student had reached "when the first volume of 'Modern Painters' was taken in hand." This book was begun as a protest against popular and shallow views of Turner's pictures of the time, hung in every successive Royal Academy exhibition, and rather sneeringly treated by newspaper critics, to the wrath of his young admirer and personal friend. And it appears that Mr. Ruskin could draw neatly, delicately, and prettily, if the word may be used, but with no especial vigor, at the time when his first volume appeared, and people began to talk about the "graduate of Oxford." He was then twenty-three years old, and more mature in mind than these drawings would imply; by which is meant that that first volume, amid all its errors and defects, represents more thoughtfulness and power of using knowledge, and far more patience in a task of magnitude, than is possible at that age to more than one or two men out of a thousand; while, as for the drawings, they do not show anything like an extraordinary precocity of power. If ever sensible drawing from nature gets to be fashionable among us—or, better, gets to be understood by sensible parents as good training for their children—one hundred out of every thousand "educated" persons will make equally good drawings at the age of twenty-three. What Mr. Ruskin had in him of eagerness and devotion, the same gift that spurred him on to write and print that first volume, and kept him up to his work as a draughtsman—it is *that*, and not any exceptional artistical gift, that shows in these early drawings.

It is pretty well known how—his first volume published and more discussed and even more praised than he had expected—Mr. Ruskin awoke to the fact that he had undertaken a huge task, and how he set himself to work to perform it. For ten years after 1842 he published nothing very important except the hastily-written essays called 'The Seven Lamps of Architecture.' During those years he was at work studying, first and most important, External Nature, the real look of plants and rocks and distant mountain-sides; second, the work of man in painting, in associated sculpture, and in building. Perhaps the most important part of this exhibition is the series of drawings which show his rapid gain in knowledge and in dexterity during the years from 1843 to 1848, or thereabout. No. 20 is a dark little drawing, in which a serious effort is made to get the near tree-boughs and the distance into harmony—an effort which has only in part succeeded. Nos. 21 and 22 are studies of parts of Venice boats, showing strong sense of subtlety in curvature, but harsh and disagreeable in color. No. 59 (put out of chronological order, to go with other Venice drawings) is a study of two of the capitals of St. Mark's at Venice, far from being as adequate in representation of them as some of many years later. These drawings all date before 1846. At this point we have to look at the large, slight studies in pencil and thin washes of gray of pieces of northern Gothic architecture, Nos. 78, 79, and 80. The character of these sketches can be understood, very nearly, by examination of the etchings in the first edition of the 'Seven Lamps of Architecture' (London, 1849). No. 79, indeed, was partly copied for Plate II. of that book—copied by himself, that is; for all the plates of the first edition were his own handiwork, while those of the second edition were all re-engraved by professional engravers. The American editions, of course, give no idea of what we are discussing. These drawings are certainly inadequate as representations of the architecture from which they are taken. They are most faithful in intention: nothing before them had been so true to Gothic detail. But their incompleteness is against them—the hand stopping when the desired memorandum was made; the architecture is not solid, the stones are not heavy, the sculpture is not so represented that one thanks the drawing for having demonstrated to him its value. They are interesting, because they call attention to the picturesqueness of the architecture; the way of regarding the buildings is the right one, and one feels sympathy with the sincere and modest draughtsman; but the drawings are not thoroughly good. There is better architectural drawing a few years later.

No. 27 shows landscape work of about 1847. No. 73, though marked in the Boston catalogue as of Vienna, and in the New York as of Verona, says of itself "Vicenza," a not very important drawing of 1849. No. 28, "Falls of Schaffhausen" (1850 ?), is full of bounding spray, gleaming white, and blue water seen through the whiteness. * This drawing, showing an immense advance in power over the work of three or four years previous, is as good an example as we could take to illustrate the especial peculiarity of all this collection—viz., the absence from it of what most persons expect to see in a collection of framed drawings. No one of these is a finished picture. Not only is no one of them intended to be a picture—that is, a composition meant to give pleasure to the beholder, and in the strict sense a "work of art"—but not one of them is finished into the corners, or fills up its frame. Each is a drawing *begun*, dropped at some moment usually far short of completion. This No. 28 looks to be the most finished one in the room, because nearly all the opening of the frame is filled, but it is on the rush of the cataract alone that the draughtsman's eye has been fixed; it is with this, its color and sense of movement, that the workman has been concerned, and this once expressed the rocks are left only suggested—soft and feeble rocks enough—and crowned with merely suggested vegetation.

Nos. 60 to 67 inclusive should now be looked at. Those who know the large folio, 'Examples of the Architecture of Venice,' of which three parts, or fifteen plates, were published in 1851, will have the means of judging of these drawings. No. 85 takes us back to wild Nature, and is that large drawing of a Block of Gneiss which has been exhibited before in America. The great bowlder has been finished with elaborate care; its exact portrait is taken with great minuteness; the draughtsman's concern has been for its laminations, its cleavages, the newly-broken faces, the soft rounded surfaces, the scarlet and orange stains of iron, the translucent shadows upon its face. That duty done, and all that the stone had to teach once learned, an hour is spent in dashing in the near rocks and the background, that the stone may not look too flat on a white sheet of paper. Birch saplings near, pines farther away, are seen against a dark-blue sky barred with white, and distant purple *aiguilles*. The sky is nothing in itself; it is ugly, an impossible and undesirable blue; the foreground rocks and the far peaks show knowledge, indeed, but are nothing; they are merely to set off the great block.

It is impracticable to follow up the catalogue for the years that follow. The qualities of the drawing steadily improve, and especially in the evidences it gives of power of swift intuitive decision, and a way of setting down the chief lines of a landscape. Persons judging too hastily, from the engraved work in 'Modern Painters' and elsewhere, are apt to conclude that Mr. Ruskin can work only in a minute, almost microscopic, way. The late drawings here rather show him as a swift and vigorous draughtsman, doing a great deal with a few touches. We repeat that this exhibition reveals Mr. Ruskin to us in the best light. Whatever deficiency there has been in judgment and critical sense, and however serious a loss to his influence for good this deficiency has been, we see here only his singular insight and perception and the conscientious preparation for his accepted task.

* We cannot find room for statements which are printed in the catalogue, but advise all readers to write to Mr. R. E. Moore, at No. 6 East Twenty-third Street, and to send twenty-five cents for a copy. There is a great deal of Mr. Ruskin in it.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 18, 1879.

The Week.

CONGRESS adjourns to-morrow for the holidays, having accomplished little. On Friday last the House passed the Fortifications and the Pensions Appropriation Bills, the latter calling for $32,404,000. During the week Mr. Warner has asked for information as to what came of the bi-metallic mission to the governments of Europe, for which $20,000 was appropriated; and Mr. Morrill for the effect on the revenue of the repeal of the duties on tea and coffee. Resolutions have been introduced expressing sympathy with the Irish Nationalists in their effort for equal laws and self-government, and the hope that they may soon become owners of the soil they cultivate; and equally buncombe speeches have been made over petitions for enriching the soldiers and sailors of the civil war by the difference between the gold value of the greenbacks in which they were paid and their nominal value. This impudent proposition of course comes from the demagogues who denounced as ruinous the measure which was to remove the discount on greenbacks.

General Grant has made a sort of progress through Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, and Philadelphia, but refused to come to New York for the present, probably because it is considered by his managers too early for the grand "boom" which is to terminate in his nomination. During the past week or two his friends have thrown off all disguise and openly brought him forward as their candidate for the Presidency. This is owing to the meeting of the National Committee at Washington, which, as we write, is deciding upon the place where the next Republican Convention is to be held. It is very important to the Grant managers that the meeting should be at Chicago on account of the local strength of the Grant movement, and every wire is now being pulled for that purpose. It seems to be definitely settled that William H. Kemble is to retire from the Committee, and that Don Cameron is to take his place. The Grant party will then try to make him chairman, and any one who knows of what materials party conventions are made, knows that even to have the temporary organization in the hands of a man who can be counted upon is of importance. It is said that this plan in its general features will be supported by the friends of Mr. Sherman, which looks as if a formidable "combination" had been effected between the Grant party and the most influential wing of the Ohio Republicans.

As things stand now, the nomination of Grant seems to all regular politicians such a foregone conclusion that the most important consideration for his nearest rivals, such as Blaine and Sherman, must be what terms they can make with the new Administration. Considering their long and faithful services the terms ought to be very good. Meantime, with regard to the popular enthusiasm over General Grant, accounts differ. In Cincinnati it would be strange if all the dissatisfaction of the past ten years with the extreme wing of the party had been completely swept away by joy at the General's return; and it is said that the Germans in Cincinnati have by no means forgotten that only four years ago General Grant represented to them all the most dangerous tendencies in the government of their adopted country. General Grant continues to make brief speeches wherever he appears, which are always well received. He seems to understand perfectly that what his audiences wish is to see him, and that it makes no difference what he says. There is in one respect a curious similarity between these "efforts" of the General and those which the crowned heads with whom he has been recently associating regale their subjects with on public occasions, and that is, they are thoroughly commonplace. General Grant's apologies for his want of eloquence are often infantile in their simplicity. It is not, he says, his "habit to talk much," and he expressed his belief at Pittsburgh that he could do better "with a pen." This we should be inclined to doubt.

The efforts of rival cities to secure the holding of the next Republican Convention by influencing the choice of the National Republican Committee are very instructive. Cincinnati's chances are ruined, we are told, by "the unfairness and indecency with which the *Gazette* and *Commercial* of that city treated Mr. Blaine in 1876," for which it will be "well punished." An Eastern city, like Saratoga, will be opposed by those who desire a locality more favorable to Grant. Chicago is unexceptionable on this score, and has besides the great attraction of a hall—the Exposition building—having seats for eight thousand persons. Here are at least all the conditions for a spectacle and, in the choice of a candidate, for a *coup de théâtre*, but nothing could better illustrate the purpose of these great and unwieldy gatherings—to dispense with deliberation, and rely on outside pressure and "spontaneous" enthusiasm to bear down opposition to the slate prepared by the managers. The vicinage, always of some consequence as regards the platform, was never, perhaps, more important to the nomination than it will be in 1880. Chicago gave us Grant in the first instance, and would enjoy the distinction of proposing him also for the third term. The choice of that city would therefore have a decided significance.

In spite of the season a movement northward has begun among the negroes of North Carolina, and a considerable body, having exhausted their means on the way to Indiana, were obliged to go into camp at Washington until their needs could be met. They appear to have been grossly deceived as to the aid they would receive from some imaginary organization with a sounding national title. In North Carolina this disturbance of the labor market is attributed to designing Republican politicians bent on carrying Indiana for the party at the Presidential election next year. The notion receives some color from the fact that less than a year's residence in Indiana is sufficient to qualify a voter; and in the same way the winter exodus would be partly accounted for. Their new fellow-citizens of the Democratic persuasion are naturally not pleased by this influx of negroes, since they too look upon it as a purely political colonization. Nevertheless, the authorities of Shelbyville have humanely contributed to the temporary support of the two dozen who invaded the city last week, and have endeavored to find employment for them, while the commissioners of Shelby County have notified the township trustees against allowing the refugees to become a charge upon the county in contravention of the statutes, of which chapter and verse are given. The Boston *Herald's* Washington correspondent says the Government clerks have been called on to help along the North Carolina migration to Indiana, not on the score of humanity, but for party ends, and hints that there is a Stalwart scheme to buy up great tracts of land in West Virginia and plant it with colored voters drawn from other States, to affect the representation in Congress. All this recalls the days when Secretary Stanton threatened to set up a Government saddlery in the lower counties of Delaware to overcome the disloyal supremacy.

The State Board of Canvassers, composed of the Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, Attorney-General, and State Engineer (all Democrats), officially announced the result of the recent election in this State at their session in Albany last Friday. They simply acted upon the returns sent them by the local supervisors,

deciding that they had no authority to "go behind" them. The figures differ slightly from the unofficial list heretofore published, and as a matter of record we here give the principal ones. The total vote for governor is 901.535, Cornell's vote being 418,567, Robinson's 375,790, and Kelly's 77,566. Cornell's plurality is thus 42,777, his minority under the combined vote of Robinson and Kelly being 34,789, and his minority under all 64,401. The pluralities of the other candidates are as follows: Hoskins, 290; Carr, 1,875; Wadsworth, 5,928; Wendell, 2,815; Ward, 4,144; Seymour, 12,441.

The New York *Times* has apparently joined the Grant movement, which looks as if it had private information that he had broken with the Stalwarts or the Stalwarts had broken with him. The news about the condition of his "boom" at the South is still very conflicting, but there seems to be nothing wildly improbable in the prospect of Southern adhesion to him. His progress through that region on his way to Florida will shed a good deal of light on the matter. That he is not naturally a Stalwart, there is no doubt; and the disorders and illegalities of his Administration at the South, as at the North, were largely due, doubtless, to the necessity he felt of letting "the boys" enjoy themselves with the offices. Should he now abandon the Stalwarts, the incident will be one of the oddest in recent political history, and will lead to some extraordinary posturing and grimacing.

It is reported, on Democratic authority, that the next Maine Legislature will stand as follows: House, 77 Fusion to 62 Republicans; Senate, 19 Fusion to 12 Republicans. This means, of course, a reversal of the expressed will of the people of the State, as it has been understood since the election, and (since, in order to accomplish it, the returns from seven cities have been thrown out) a disfranchisement of a large number of inhabitants—about one-seventh of the entire population of the State. The excuse for this outrage is that the returns thrown out and changed were so treated because of technical irregularities, such as the lack of a city clerk's signature, the posting of the notice of election one day too few, and so on. Though there has been a good deal of fraud charged by the Democratic contestants before the Council, it does not appear that anything but these technical irregularities was needed to accomplish the desired result, and apparently the Maine Returning Board has less excuse for its action, and alleges less, than its malodorous Southern prototypes.

The result will probably make it impossible for the Democrats to talk as volubly about the transactions of 1876 as they have done for the past three years, at least with the same solid comfort. Their position up to this time has been that the Republicans were making themselves ridiculous by their absurd suspicions of Governor Garcelon and his associates; that the assembling at the Capitol of Messrs. Blaine, Hamlin, Dingley, Chamberlain, and their cohorts, and the petitions of leading citizens headed by the names of various "ministers of the Gospel," were insolent and indecent exhibitions of a bull-dozing spirit; that arguing an application for a writ of mandamus to compel the Secretary of State to exhibit the returns, at the same time that the returns were being freely exhibited to all applicants, was an absurd spectacle; that the Governor and Council had at first refused to show the returns only from a Falstaffian objection to compulsion, and because they were not "good and ready," and that the entire tea-pot tempest would be quieted by the result, which would show that nothing like fraud had ever been contemplated. All that was needed to make this position unassailable was action by the Governor and Council precisely the reverse of the action it is conceded they are about to take. As it is, some other must be sought, which is difficult, as the Democrats have since 1876 vehemently reprobated a servile obedience to the letter of the law when this involved violation of its spirit.

The municipal elections in Massachusetts during the past fortnight were the first in which women taxpayers were allowed to vote for members of school-committees. They were everywhere treated with courtesy, and in Boston an order even prohibited smoking at the polls. In the country districts they were generally successful in electing or helping to elect some one of their sex, but in Boston they attempted to throw a disproportional weight in favor of their own candidates and lost them all. Partly this was due to a hostile feeling, and partly, we may surmise, to a frolicking humor on the part of the male voters. The importance of having a share in the voting so much exceeded that of having a woman on the committee, that it ought to have dictated a rather conspicuous policy of voting for "the best men" without regard to sex.

Talmage last Sunday made a vigorous assault on the minority of the Presbytery from the pulpit, in reply to a proposal from some members of his congregation that they should escape further persecution by withdrawing from the Presbyterian Church. He dealt with the matter in characteristic fashion by concurring in their account of the sufferings of the congregation, which, he said, had been put to heavy expense both by the trial and by other ecclesiastical assessments, and he intimated that if the matter went any further he would expose the "moral rottenness" of his persecutors, by means of information regarding them which certain sympathetic "gentlemen" had furnished him with. This has called out a protest, signed by the minority of the Presbytery, in which they treat his statement "as a tissue of falsehoods," and so far from his having suffered from assessments, ordinary or extraordinary, the ordinary assessments of his church are, they say, three years in arrears. His insinuation about "moral rottenness" they treat as "a slander of the most ignoble kind." In fact, if what they say is true, it is difficult to know how to characterize him, or to define the religion of the people who listen to him on Sunday. The prosecutors are now seeking to carry him before the Synod, which has just met at Jamaica, L. I. The Judicial Committee of this body has reported in favor of hearing the appeal, on the ground that the decision of the majority in the court below, on the charge of deceit and falsehood, was "in open conflict with the recorded testimony," and the grounds on which it was based were calculated "to bring religion and morality into contempt." One simple-minded brother, Judge Armstrong, moved to dismiss it on the ground that the reopening of it would "tend to disturb the peace and harmony of the Church." But then the Church does not exist for peace and harmony, but to get people to live rightly. It might be "harmonious" and yet be composed of a band of rascals.

It has been a quiet week in Wall Street. Enough gold arrived to raise the total specie imports since the resumption of specie payments to more than $83,000,000; and foreign exchange declined so that fresh shipments from Europe could be ordered at a profit. The decline in foreign exchange was not in consequence of a more liberal supply of bills drawn against the exports of grain, provisions, and cotton, for the speculation in these staples keeps the market prices higher in this country than in Europe, but because there were more bills forthcoming against securities shipped by bankers. The currency demands from the interior on the New York money market were large during the week, and the surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced a little more than $2,000,000. At the Stock Exchange speculation drooped and was dull. The two most important pieces of news which came to light were (1) that the managers of the Wabash system of roads have entered a syndicate formed to complete the Texas Pacific Railroad to a junction with the Southern Pacific, now being built by the owners of the Central Pacific Railroad; and (2) that the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad have entered into an arrangement with the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railroad to extend their line to San Francisco under the old Atlantic and Pacific Railroad charter, which is owned by the

first-named company, and which has a land-grant exceeding forty millions of acres. It is therefore likely that within three years there will be two more Pacific railroads. The market for silver bullion in London declined to 52½*d.* to 52⅝*d.* per oz. The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was 0.8778 at the close of the week.

Mr. Gladstone has in his speeches in Scotland fully developed the Liberal policy as he understands it. He makes the usual criticisms on the foreign policy of the Government, with which everybody is now familiar. Coming to home policy, he placates the Scotch by admitting that the Church should be disestablished if the majority desire it, and that Scotland had not got her fair share of representation in 1868. As regards Ireland, he advocated an extension of the sphere of local government through some sort of provincial assemblies, and admitted that there was no objection in principle to the legislature's buying land to set up peasant proprietors, though this admission was made in talking of Scotch agriculture. Entails and settlements of land he heartily denounced, and also the custom of primogeniture. The chief reason he gave for disliking settlements has brought down some ridicule on him. It was not that they tied up land so that no one had at any time either the power to improve it or complete interest in its improvement, but, what few or none had ever thought of before, that they "introduced an unnatural relation into the constitution of that primary element of society, the sacred institution of the family," by allowing the father to join the son in making provision for the son's children. The enthusiasm of the Scotch for him seems to have increased steadily. Probably no man in public life has had such a greeting in Great Britain. To find a parallel for it one has to go to Ireland in O'Connell's day. His attack on the ministerial finance in his last speech in Edinburgh was most destructive, and in this field his worst enemies do not deny his authority.

The authentic history of the failure of the attempt to get Germany into another bi-metallic conference is that Bismarck was so disgusted and annoyed by the account which Mr. W. D. Kelley gave of his interview with him, that he refused absolutely to see Mr. George Walker, who came as an accredited American negotiator, but turned him over to Count Bülow, his assistant, who paid Mr. Walker in phrases. We presume Mr. Walker is now satisfied that there never was any good ground for the story that Germany was ready to go back to the double standard or silver standard, industriously as it has been circulated here. Kelley's narrative came just in time for the Maine election. We knew it was a poetic narrative, but did not know whether it had any basis in fact; but we believe Bismarck does not even credit him with poetry. Kelley has been keeping very quiet ever since, but he ought to be hunted down by a couple or two couples of reporters and made to spin another explanatory yarn.

The dispute between the clergy and the Government in Belgium over the schools has taken a curious turn. The Pope wrote a letter of advice to the bishops, repeating in substance what he had said to the Belgian envoy, but its existence was for some time kept secret. Finally it had to come out, and then the Archbishop of Malines met it by a pastoral which, coming from an Infallibilist, is strange reading. It says the Pope is not infallible in the way some newspaper editors and members of parliament think he is. He is "not infallible when he expresses simply his own thoughts, but only when he defines, as head of the Church, the truths contained in the deposit of revelation, in the Scriptures, and in tradition. He is not infallible when he judges questions purely personal, but he is infallible when he judges questions of doctrine which touch faith or morals." But surely the question whether a man will be damned or ought to be damned if he sends his child to a certain school is not a personal question, but a question of doctrine, and if the Pope does not speak on it with great, if not infallible, authority, who can? The Belgian bishops have been giving the Pope a good deal of trouble lately. The Bishop of Tournay has been a little insane, and when an administrator of the diocese was sent to relieve him he resisted his entrance to the seminary, and the administrator tried to force the door, but the bishop held his own, and at the last accounts had not surrendered.

The Beaconsfield Ministry are again troubled by the state of affairs in Afghanistan. The murder of the envoy was, of course, a terrible disappointment, but they cheered up under the ease with which General Roberts captured Kabul, as if the capture of Kabul had ever been thought or found a difficult matter. When he was installed there, and had hanged a number of persons accused of complicity in the murder, they announced gravely that he was "practically Amir of Afghanistan." The fact was that he held the ground he camped on and no more, as now plainly appears. They sent at the beginning of the campaign a set of regulations for newspaper correspondents which the Prussian staff would not have ventured to promulgate, and which no writer with any self-respect would live under, being determined apparently to have this war, at least, carried on without hostile criticism, and the result is that there is no independent observer at General Roberts's headquarters. Had there been, the British public would probably not have been surprised to learn that a heavy Afghan force, of all arms, estimated at twelve thousand, had appeared on Wednesday last on the heights above Kabul. A combined movement against them by cavalry and light guns, under General Macpherson, to take them in the rear, and by infantry, under General Massey, to take them in the front, had miscarried on that day, the cavalry arriving too soon, charging bravely, and retiring with the temporary loss of four guns. On Friday, General Baker attempted to storm the heights above Kabul and failed; he succeeded, however, on Saturday, driving the enemy from all his positions. The accounts of the fighting are, of course, brief and official, but they reveal the facts that the Afghan combination was a strong one, and was unusually well led, and had taken the offensive after Macpherson's first repulse.

That Baker's victory on Saturday was a barren one is now shown by the subsequent intelligence that General Roberts had not only abandoned the heights, but had evacuated the position at Bala-Hissar and given up the city, and retired to the fortified cantonment at Shirpur, two miles to the north. There he is now cooped up by a force estimated at 30,000 men, under Mohammed Jan. Reinforcements are accordingly being hurried forward from India. The tribes are reported as gathering to Kabul from every direction. The governor of Herat is marching to it also. The worst of it is that winter snows must within a short time block the passes. In fact, the season thus far appears to have been an unusually open one. The resemblance between this invasion and that of 1839 has thus far been curiously maintained.

A ministerial crisis has arisen in Spain which promises a good deal of trouble. The resignation of Martinez-Campos, for reasons of which no clear account has yet appeared, but which seem to have been made up partly of the dissatisfaction of the Radicals with his emancipation bill for Cuba and partly of Conservative intrigues, has been followed by the formation of a new one under Canovas del Castillo, who made his opening statement in the Chamber on Thursday last. He ascribed the downfall of Campos to the form of the bill for economic reforms in Cuba, and declared vaguely that he would himself shortly submit other proposals of a more satisfactory nature. This did not satisfy the Constitutionals, who asked for further explanations, which the Minister declined to furnish, saying that he had to go to the Senate, but would shortly return. This so offended the Constitutionals that seventy of them have withdrawn from the Chamber and refuse to return. The Minister, at the latest accounts, refuses to explain or apologize further, and the crisis grows more grave. Campos has spoken, but does not seem to know more about the causes of his resignation than anybody else. If one may judge from the cable despatches, the Constitutionals have nominated a sort of committee of safety to follow the matter up.

SECRETARY SHERMAN AND THE LEGAL TENDERS.

SECRETARY SHERMAN has made an exposition of his plan of keeping $300,000,000 of Government notes afloat as a permanent part of the circulation after depriving them of their legal-tender quality. His reason for advocating it is that "it is both politic and right for the United States to maintain in circulation a carefully-limited amount of United States notes, always redeemable in coin, supported by ample reserves in coin, and supplemented by the circulating notes of national banks." Government notes, he maintains,

"are in some form or another an essential part of the national currency, and the Government alone cannot maintain intact a coin reserve sufficiently large to support such a currency at par with coin. The saving of interest on the notes would more than compensate the cost of such a reserve. Banks and corporations cannot alone do it, for when such a reserve as is necessary is scattered over the whole country among 2,000 banks it would be attacked in detail, and the failure of a few banks would impair confidence in and destroy the whole system. Banks can properly and ought to supply a large portion of the currency to meet the ebb and flow of business, but to make assurance doubly sure the Government must hold in its vaults, under all the safeguards of the Sub-Treasury laws, a coin reserve, and one ample enough and concentrated beyond the reach of private speculation to meet any probable demands that could be made upon it. When it does this I do not see why it ought not to have the benefit of the saving of interest on so much of the public debt as is represented by United States notes."

There is a certain obscurity here which we wish he had cleared up. The banks, of course, could not be counted on to meet the demand for gold created by the issue of $300,000,000 of Government paper; but no one would ever suppose that they could. Mr. Sherman assumes that his issue of Government notes is "politic and right," which is the very point in dispute, and proves it apparently by declaring that the banks could not keep up the reserve of gold sufficient to keep these notes at par, which nobody ever doubted. If it be expedient for the Government to undertake the functions of a bank of issue it must, of course, keep its own reserve in coin. But is it expedient?

The only reason he gives for thinking that it is expedient is the following: After the repeal of the legal-tender clause, and the authorization of contracts either in gold or paper (which exists already),

"We should then," he says, "have a sound financial system based upon coin, but so arranged that the amount of coin in the country would be utilized to the utmost extent of safety. As I said to you, a national-bank system pure and simple could not do this, because the coin reserve would be distributed among two thousand banks, and instead of a great reservoir accessible to all we should have only a great number of little ponds. On the other hand, a circulation of Treasury notes alone would hamper industrial enterprise by a lack of the elasticity which a free banking system so judiciously and safely secures. Combine the two as I have suggested and you have stability, elasticity, and safety united, and the possibility of an unsafe inflation is prevented by the fact that, Treasury notes being no longer a legal-tender, there can be no inflation of them, because, when redundant, they would flow in for redemption in coin. The limit of $300,000,000 fixed by the Resumption Act I consider to be perfectly safe."

The national-banking system is a system "based on coin," for the simple reason that when greenbacks cease to be legal-tender the banks may be compelled to redeem in gold, and will have no more difficulty in doing so than they now have in redeeming in greenbacks. It is "sound" because behind the banks stands the Government, holding security for the payment of the bank-notes in gold, so that an over-issue of such notes, resulting in suspension of specie payments by the banks, is impossible, and Mr. Sherman's theory that "the failure of a few banks would impair confidence in and destroy the whole system" is, therefore, absolutely baseless. The law provides ample security against their failure as regards their notes. It is only depositors who can possibly suffer from their bad management. His assertion, too, that the Government would, through his plan, supply a great reservoir of coin "accessible to all," needs a good deal of explanation or limitation. No reservoir of coin is or can be "accessible to all"; it is only accessible to those who hold the notes which the coin is intended to secure. It makes no difference whether this reservoir consists of two thousand small ponds or one great lake, as long as it can be got at by noteholders, and the system by which the holders of bank-notes can draw on it is at present perfect. In fact, Mr. Sherman's admission that the banks would have to be relied on to supply that elasticity of the currency which industrial enterprise needs, is a surrender of his whole case. Elasticity of the currency means a state of things in which not only can a trader obtain more paper when he needs it for his home uses, but can turn his paper into gold readily when he needs the gold for foreign exchange. If he can do this through the banks, and through the banks only, the bank reservoir of gold is all-sufficient. The analogy of the Bank of England is misleading because it enjoys a monopoly of paper issues at the great financial centre, and the holders of paper, therefore, when they need gold *must* go there, and it can do what Mr. Sherman does not propose that the Treasury should do here—namely, increase or diminish its paper issues according to the demands of the market. In fact, when we analyze his scheme, all it amounts to is that it would be a good thing for the Government to make a fixed addition to the currency of $300,000,000, and thus save the interest on about half that amount of its own indebtedness. The connection of the scheme with the safety of the paper in circulation is wholly fictitious. If this $300,000,000 were withdrawn the vacuum would be filled up at once by the national banks, if the country needed the money, and the bank circulation thus supplied would be secured in the very manner in which Mr. Sherman proposes to secure the Government notes—namely, the pledge of the Government to redeem it in coin in case of the failure of the banks to do so. If, on the other hand, the country did not need this amount, it could be returned for redemption to the banks just as readily as to the Treasury by those who needed the gold. In fact, the plan is so vague and cloudy, and bears on its face so many defects, that one cannot avoid the feeling that it is no more a finality with Mr. Sherman than his talk about silver before the Congressional Committees two years ago—that is, that it is simply one of the devices by which he humors the politicians or entices them on to what he has more remotely in view, but is afraid to propose openly and directly. It may be that this mode of bringing the country back to sound finance is more effective than telling the honest truth would be, but it is one which everybody cannot be expected to adopt, and which we, for our part, do not believe in. On the contrary, we think it debauches public opinion and lowers the tone of public life.

His "reservoir" of coin would differ, too, from all other banking reserves in the world in being liable to destruction or diversion to other uses by the votes of a body which has repeatedly and in the most solemn manner placed on record its contempt for the experience accepted and acted on by the commercial portion of the civilized world, and has treated the opinions of those who make finance a business, in all civilized nations, as the devices of cunning speculators for the plunder of the poor. The resumption of specie payments has really been brought about almost in spite of Congress. The Act under which it has taken place was passed because the bulk of both parties did not believe it could be executed, and it probably would not have been executed if the extraordinary succession of bad harvests in Europe and good harvests here had not, in combination with the high tariff, in a measure forced the greenbacks to par by pouring gold into the country in unprecedented volume. That Secretary Sherman skilfully took advantage of these favoring circumstances we do not deny, but we do deny emphatically that there is anything in the connection of Congress with the matter to warrant the belief that it would be restrained either by doctrine or feeling from hereafter meddling either with a great coin reserve or with a fixed amount of Government notes. If the legal-tender character were now taken away from greenbacks, and the issue of legal-tender notes in time of peace were declared by the Supreme Court unconstitutional, undoubtedly the chief temptation to increase the volume of greenbacks would be gone; but no such

decision would lessen the temptation to suspend specie payments during any commercial crisis, or to repudiate the whole issue. The very existence of the Government notes has filled the heads of politicians with currency schemes to a degree before unknown in American history. A very large number of members of Congress think of nothing else, and keep their imaginations open for every financial absurdity which is invented in any part of the world, and only a small number have the training or experience or modesty which qualifies them even to discuss such subjects. As long as there is an immense body of Government paper in existence which is as good as gold in the market, and behind it an immense sum in gold lying idle in the Treasury, these men will never take their eyes or their minds off either one or the other. They will fill the land with schemes for getting at it or "utilizing" it, or giving the poor man a chance at it, or preventing it from enriching "the money kings" and the speculators. They will inject declamation about it into every party platform, make up issues out of it for every election, and fill every winter with debates over it. We grant that, as Mr. Sherman says, they are not likely to get any legislation through which would seriously damage the public credit, but they are certain to keep legislation constantly pending which would alarm the business world, impair confidence, promote gambling in all sorts of securities, and make financial folly the main staple of our politics, to the exclusion or serious detriment of healthy thought and action on other and really important subjects.

The creation of the national-banking system was, next after the removal of the slavery cloud from the political horizon, the best result of the war. It has worked and is working admirably. It promises to supply all the wants of the country as regards a stable and sound and elastic paper currency, and probably none of the strange devices in politics to which Mr. Sherman thinks it advisable to resort is stranger than his present attempt to discredit it by representing it as likely to break down in a panic by over-issues of notes. He of course knows that the banks cannot break down in this way; that their danger lies in excessive discounts; and that a non-elastic currency of fixed amount, such as he proposes that the Government should issue, would at such a crisis afford no relief. In the period of inflation which usually precedes such a crisis the Government paper would be all afloat. Suppose the crisis to come and banks to collapse, what relief could the Treasury then give? The answer to this question goes to the bottom of the Secretary's plan and of the reasoning by which he supports it.

PRESIDENTIAL "GERRYMANDERING."

ACCORDING to the *Herald's* Washington correspondent a scheme for dividing the electoral vote of this State next year is being seriously considered by Republican Congressmen, and in some quarters finds a good deal of favor. As things look now, the thirty-five votes of New York will decide the Presidential election of 1880. The number of electoral votes required to elect is 185. The South casts 138, and these the Democratic candidate is sure to get. New York and New Jersey have 44, which with the 138 Southern votes would give the Democrats 182. Oregon or California or Indiana might easily make up the required number. The Democrats might fairly consider it very hard luck if they lost all those States. New York, of course, they count upon carrying, because all the recent votes in the State elections have shown large Democratic popular majorities. But there is one way in which this electoral slate could be completely broken. If the New York electors were to be chosen by Congressional districts instead of on a general ticket, the result, judging by the present complexion of the State, would be that, instead of New York going "solidly" Democratic, three-quarters of its electors would be Republicans. This would make the election of a Republican President almost certain.

We should not be at all surprised to see a vigorous attempt made to carry the plan into execution, for to the men who now control the destinies of the Republican party in this State and to Stalwart Republicans throughout the country it is one which must have many attractions. It is not illegal, since the State may appoint its electors in any way it sees fit; it would undoubtedly be carried through by the Legislature if the Conkling-Cornell managers ordered it done. It would exasperate the Democrats, and very likely lead them to do something very injudicious, and almost certainly bring out some Southern speech-making of the sort which just now constitutes the best capital the Republican Stalwarts have. It would, moreover, be a bold *coup* in the somewhat desperate game that this wing of the party are now playing for the retention of power; for it must be remembered that within the past month or two the struggle between the two parties has, so far as the Republicans are concerned, become almost entirely a contest for the possession of the Administration during the next four years by what they themselves touchingly describe as the "Old Set"—*i.e.*, the band of hardened political gamesters who surrounded Grant during his second term. The new device for "fixing" New York bears all the marks of their workmanship, and we think we may venture to predict, without much fear of error, that it will have the cordial support in New York of every Republican who helped to nominate the present Governor of the State, and the opposition of every one who opposed his nomination.

It is hardly worth while to waste time in discussing the fairness of the plan. Republicans who support it will not pretend that it is fair, but merely that it is a less unfair way of securing the vote of a State than the Democratic methods of intimidation and extermination. Of course, they will argue, if all elections were conducted in a perfectly just manner all over the country, there would be serious objections to adopting a new method of appointing electors in a single State so as to secure the success of the party which by an accident happened to have the temporary control of the Legislature of that State. But then things are not managed fairly. What do we see the Democratic party doing in the South? Have they not in half a dozen of the most important Southern States actually disfranchised entire populations, and transferred the electoral machinery to their own hands by frightening the peaceful and law-loving Republican negro away from the polls with bludgeons and shot-guns? If such things can be done in Southern States, it seems to become almost a sacred duty to use all legal means to "fix" any Northern States of which we may have temporary control. Moreover, when we consider what the composition of the Democratic party is throughout the country, its support of the rebellion and slavery, its opposition to the reconstruction measures, its wild schemes of inflation and repudiation, the extra session, the Potter Committee, etc., etc., it does seem as if almost anything was justifiable which should prevent the Government from falling into their hands.

As a method of forestalling the vote of a State the plan is by no means a novelty. In 1800, when the Federalist party was on the point of losing the Presidential election of that year, Hamilton proposed to Jay, then Governor of New York, to call the outgoing legislature together in order to effect the choosing of electors by districts, instead of directly by the new legislature, as was then the mode. The arguments by which Hamilton supported his proposal bear a striking likeness to those by which the Stalwarts now endeavor to recommend their scheme. "In times like these," he says, "in which we live, it will not do to be over-scrupulous. It is easy to sacrifice the substantial interests of society by a strict adherence to ordinary rules." He points out that the Anti-Federal party is "a composition, indeed, of very incongruous materials, but all tending to mischief," and adds that "in proportion as the true character of the party is understood is the force of the considerations which urge to every effort to disappoint it, and it seems to me that there is a very solemn obligation to employ the means in our power." The Anti-Federals were the "bad men" of 1800, just as the Democrats are those of to-day. Jay's endorsement on Hamilton's letter, "proposing a measure for party purposes which I think it would not become me to adopt," and the immediate abandonment of the scheme show what a queer, punctilious set of statesmen had control o the country then. It was hardly the endorsement that a states-

man like Mr. Cornell would probably make on a letter, say, from Wm. E. Chandler or Eugene Hale making a similar proposal.

The revival of this scheme by the Stalwarts throws a curious and almost comical light upon the discussions of electoral reform in Congress and elsewhere during the past three years. It has been conceded by every one who has considered the question that our electoral system is not satisfactory, and a number of plans have been brought forward to correct its defects and bring it nearer an ideal system. Election by districts and election by popular vote, with all possible variations of detail, have been proposed, criticised, put into the form of bills and joint resolutions. Elaborate essays have been written on the subject in the press, and elaborate speeches have been made on the subject in Congress. But whenever the matter has come up for practical settlement, hitherto, the insuperable difficulty has been that any scheme for a change has been suspected of being a partisan device for affecting the next Presidential election, and the mutual doubt and distrust of the politicians on both sides at Washington have prevented any action being taken. But now, just as a Presidential campaign is about to open, the matter is taken up, not this time by idealists and doctrinaires, but by "practical men," who have considered the subject in all its bearings. Instead of beating about the bush with arguments in favor of this or that view of an ideal electoral system they go straight to the root of the matter, and, with that unerring sagacity which distinguishes the practical man from the dreamer, they discern at once that the way to settle the "electoral problem" is to "fix" the State in which you happen to have control of the Legislature six months ahead.

With the Stalwart politicians who have revived it it would be, as we have suggested, idle to discuss the merits of the plan. But it has lessons for that large mass of the Republicans whom the Stalwart managers generally count upon as facile dupes, but who have in the recent election in this State proved their independence of machine dictation. Independent Republicans can hardly fail to see with what danger to public security and the stability of affairs such plots are fraught. Popular irritation and disgust with a party in possession of the Government are sure to be aroused by them, no matter whether they are sanctioned by the letter of the law or not. With the great mass of the voting population the present electoral system is the only one they know anything about. That the States formerly appointed electors in several different ways, and have always retained the abstract right to do so, makes no difference. For fifty years there has been only one way, to which the customs, traditions, and political arrangements of the country have adapted themselves. To change this by a radical alteration of method, affecting the whole country together, and introduced after mature discussion and deliberation, is one thing; to change it in particular localities, with a view to affecting the fortunes of this or that party, is another. It is one which is seen and felt to be intended to make the election itself a farce. After the election of 1876, the danger to the quiet of the country consisted not so much in the chance that an attempt would be made by the leaders of a defeated party to seize the Government, as in the widespread feeling that the political machinery in certain States had been tampered with for the express purpose of effecting a particular result. It makes very little difference, so far as the effect on the popular mind is concerned, whether the trick is done by a Returning Board, acting under forms of law in Louisiana, or by a sudden change of the electoral system through the Legislature in New York. The impression created in both cases is the same—that the election itself is an empty form, which is made to produce whatever results the dominant party for the time being chooses—much as plébiscites were managed under the Empire in France, when the way in which the question was put determined the answer that was given. We do not anticipate for a long time any actual danger to the public peace from the tricks with the suffrage to which the managers are gradually accustoming us. But we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that the time may very soon come when, after an election decided in the midst of great popular excitement, by means of some brilliant device such as it is now proposed to resort to in New York, local discontent may take the form of violent outbreaks, requiring to be put down by the strong hand. The effect of such outbreaks is, of course, in the long run, to disgust quiet people with the very name of elections, and to pave the way for that sort of quiet which is secured by having none at all.

If the Democrats could be expected to learn much from their enemies, this scheme with regard to the vote of the State would have an important moral for them. If it is carried out, it depends for its success upon the voting strength of the two parties remaining as they now are. To defeat it there is only one way open—to nominate a candidate for President who will draw off heavily from the Republican side. With a commonplace candidate they have, of course, no chance of doing this. Such a candidate will represent to the voters of the State nothing but the same political tendencies, ideas, and passions which Congress has been representing in the eyes of the whole country for the past two years. To say that the mass of Republican voters at the North, including Independent Republicans, doubt and distrust these, is to describe their feelings very mildly. As long as the issue to be decided at the next Presidential election is between the *two parties*, we should expect to see party lines remain very much as they are now, and with this State "fixed" the Democrats would have little chance of carrying the country. But a contest between the Republicans led and represented by the Stalwarts, and the Democrats led and represented by a candidate with character, convictions, and principles, would be a different matter. Against an opposition of this sort it would be as impossible for the "Old Set" to "fix" any electoral vote as the old Ring found it to "fix" this city after the respectable classes once discovered that they had been mistaken in supposing that perpetual Tweeds and Sweenys were a necessity of municipal government.

DEMOCRATIC "JOURNALISM."

APROPOS of our remarks in our issue of last week, an entertaining illustration of the way in which the Democratic party is served by its press appears in a late number of the Albany *Argus*, one of the oldest Democratic papers in the country, and in many ways one of the best. The leading article has for its title "Calumniating Parties as a Whole," and the text is "one of the silly sentences" of the *Nation*—viz., "The Democratic party is the party of ignorance." After vigorously denying the truth of this proposition, and showing its "flippancy" and "impertinence," the writer declares that this "slur" on the Democratic party "is on a par with a rake's estimate of the sex of his mother, something neither to be resented nor refuted, simply because it is self-evidently false and ineffably foul," and also "because men do not employ a battery of artillery to bombard a flea." He does, however, resent it vigorously. He goes on to show that though it is "natural" that expressions like the *Nation's* "should postpone in many minds the conception of journalism as either a reasonable or respectable calling," nevertheless this view is "regrettable and unjust." But this is not the worst consequence of the *Nation's* language. It also "tends to break down the securities and conventions of journalism by leading persons to trace the libel, not merely to the paper which prints it, and to stop there, but to the man who owns and edits the paper, and to accord him that social ostracism or personal chastisement which, for such an assertion in society or before an audience, he would challenge and receive." In other words, our disrespectful treatment of the Democratic party "as a whole" may lead to an increase in the number of assaults on editors, beginning with one on the editor of the *Nation*, besides causing him to be cut in society by sensitive Democrats. The writer then points out that impersonal editorship has "obligations as well as advantages"; that "to be respected it must not only respect itself, but respect the rights and feelings of whole factors in the country"—whatever this may mean; and he maintains—somewhat obscurely, however, for his English is peculiar—that to libel a class or party is a worse offence than to libel an individual, because there are so many individuals in the party—this making the libel "enormous"; and he predicts that if we continue "fatuously to provoke it" a "rude reminder that a libel is dangerous in proportion as it is large" will be "administered" to us "one of these days." He then severely criticises the state of the law which provides no penalty for libel on "whole classes and parties," but leaves it to "natural and social and personal forces"

which means, we presume, earthquakes, "ostracism," and assault and battery. If this is correct, we must say the law *is* atrociously defective. The remainder of the article is equally alarming, and, in fact, points more and more plainly to the plan of making editors respectful to the Democratic party by means of corporal punishment:

"The State says in effect: 'The offences too large for judicial regulation are left to the public manhood to deal with.' The journalism of wholesale defamation is gravely interested in whether the majority of the American people, or impulsive persons in political sympathy with that majority, will for ever tolerate the systematic abuse to which the majority is treated. If the theory that that abuse will be for ever tolerated should be a delusion and some 'able editor' should find his person violently abraded, he would possibly also find that a jury of the period, with sundry 'of the party of ignorance' on it, would declare that the abuse of assault was less than the abuse of assertion. A 'reform' in that much of 'journalism' would follow to a certainty; for the epicene gentry never let their phrases put them in peril or their syllables interfere with their safety—when they are aware of it."

If this threat is carried out, "the loud lament and dismal miserere" of the Republican editors undergoing their chastisement will fill the land, for there is hardly one who does not occasionally use uncivil language towards "whole factors in the country." But then the process will hardly give the Democrats a majority at the polls. We commend the *Argus* article to the perusal of those who are puzzled by the constancy with which the North remains Republican.

DAUDET'S 'ROIS EN EXIL.'

PARIS, Nov. 28, 1879.

THE 'Kings in Exile' is the title of a new novel by M. Alphonse Daudet, the author of 'Jack,' of the 'Nabab,' and other books.* It seemed to me that in 'Jack,' which is so far his best novel—even better, in my appreciation, than 'Froment jeune et Risler aîné'—Daudet had attempted to become a sort of French Dickens. There is a vein of humanity, of tenderness, of love for the poor, the despised, the suffering, in 'Jack' which was very charming and very peculiar. But M. Daudet has changed his manner. He has become less humane and more Parisian. He himself calls his 'Kings in Exile,' on the title-page, a "roman parisien." Paris is indeed essential to his new heroes. In the present work he has undertaken to show what becomes of the fallen potentates of the world, of the whole world, in this terrible crucible of Paris. It was a bold attempt. We Parisians are somewhat *blasé* in respect to kings and emperors in exile or in disguise; but it was not easy to describe their lives without writing a libel or a pamphlet. Daudet was obliged to choose types, and he has appended to these types stories which are here familiar to all. His work would have been hardly worth noticing if it had been nothing better than a collection of articles put together from the *Figaro*. We have our daily *menu* of scandals. We recognize very well the characters of the * * or the initials of the newspapers. Everybody knows the princes whom Daudet alludes to here and there, but it seemed difficult to construct a drama of scandals which are only fit to amuse a club for an evening.

What Daudet has really meant to show and to paint is the contrast between the princes who believe in themselves and those who no longer believe in themselves. It is immaterial whether they are or are not in exile. There are great kings and emperors sitting on their thrones who do not believe in their own royal or imperial mission, who have no monarchical faith or creed, who play their part without understanding it, without believing in it. They are actors; and it is wonderful to see how much interest most princes and sovereigns have taken in actors and in actresses. They feel instinctively that there is a certain sort of brotherhood between them. They also are on the stage, and they also like to become men again behind the scenes. Daudet's title ought to be, not 'Kings in Exile,' but kings who don't believe in themselves. To such kings, of course, like the hero of the novel, the Prince of Illyria, exile is a terrible trial, and exile in Paris a most dangerous experiment. They find themselves in the most revolutionary city in the world, a city where every stone speaks of some insult offered to royalty. The Prince of Illyria, who is a Slav, a child in character, a sensual youth, finds himself one day stranded in this Paris. He has no longer any duties; he has only vices and instincts. To him a revolution has been a deliverance. He plunges at once into the abyss. He is like the butterfly before a brilliant light. This noisy, deafening, brilliant, smiling Paris is the Circe who will turn him and his friends into swine. He has nothing to defend himself with—no profession, no work, no hope, no thought. The few remnants of his past, the shadow of etiquette which a few devoted friends keep up, the homages of old faithful followers, become odious to him. What he wants is liberty. He is free for the first time in his life.

You will conceive at once that such a character furnishes the writer with the elements of a drama; for, if the Prince of Illyria is a renegade from monarchy, if he abhors in his heart those monarchical principles which have assumed the shape of monarchical duties, the Princess, his wife, is a true queen. She is a devotee of the monarchical faith; she is unbending; she believes in herself, in her rights, in the rights of her husband, in the rights of her young child, Zara, with an ardent, unselfish, religious faith. In the contrast of these two characters you have all the drama; and it must be confessed that the contrast is drawn in the novel with much ability, and sometimes with much beauty. The Queen is really the man. She fought the last battles for the King; she preserves in all their purity the forms, the traditions, the phantoms of the past; she is impersonal; she is a character; she is a type. He cares only for pleasure; she cares only for greatness. He is courageous, but only on the battle-field; she is courage itself, heroic, ready to give life, fortune, everything for the cause. She is ready to ascend the scaffold as quietly as Marie Antoinette. She never has a doubt. She lives in this modern, turbulent, noisy, impudent, insolent Paris as she would in a cloud. The mud of the streets cannot touch her.

It is impossible here to describe all the accessory characters, which are very numerous. Some of the followers of the little court of Illyria, transported to Paris, are very touching in their fidelity, some are half touching and half comical. The true hero, after the Queen, is a Frenchman, a plebeian, the tutor of the Queen's little child. It seems that Daudet has really known a person of this sort, a royalist Gambetta—I mean the Gambetta of old times, who lived in the Quartier Latin, and was always ready to pour out to his friends torrents of easy and imaginative eloquence. Élysée is the name of this tutor; he is a royalist; he has the same religion as the Queen. The faith which was distilled in her veins in infancy, which is born in her through the inscrutable mystery of hereditary instincts, this same faith has been adopted by the poor student. In his coarse clothes, with his ungainly appearance, his unkempt hair, his violence, he is still in perfect harmony with the calm, austere, majestic Princess of Illyria. They feel alike, they see alike, not only on points of principle and of politics—on all points. They have the same notions of honor, the same supreme contempt for the mere glitter of rank, of fortune. Of course, Élysée falls in love with the Princess; he conceals his love in his heart, and feels it to be almost a madness and an insult to his ideal. "Je suis un ver de terre amoureux d'une étoile," as Victor Hugo says. Élysée is a very original character, and not an impossible one. There is an old vein of royalism in France which is not always found in the aristocratic classes; you will find it sometimes, to your great surprise, where you least expect it—in a peasant, in a poor clerk, in an *épicier;* and the very name of *épicier* in France seems to forbid any disinterested sentiment.

The most Parisian characters of the work, taking the word in the bad sense, are those intriguers who attempt to ruin and disgrace the Prince of Illyria, to drag him by the most diabolical means to an abandonment of his hereditary rights, and to a complete renunciation of them. This struggle is the story of the book. The King is protected by the Queen, by Élysée, by a few devoted followers; his enemies choose as their instrument a man called "Tom Levis" in the book (anybody in Paris could give you the real name). Tom Levis is a speculator; he cares for nothing but money; he deals in apartments, pictures, thrones, revolutions, medals, loans; he wants the commission which has been promised him if the Prince, covered with debt and threatened with disgrace, signs his renunciation. He is determined to ruin the Prince; a very easy task with such a prince in such a city as Paris, and with such an ally as Sephora. Sephora is a type; she is the cold daughter of Israel, who fulfils *her* mission in dishonoring the sons of men, especially when they are Christians. She is a sort of partner of Tom Levis, and finishes what he has begun. They are both vultures. And what prince in exile or not in exile has not had his vultures? When you hear of such or such a one arriving in a city you can name at once, almost with certainty, the vultures who will appear with him at the theatres, at the clubs. The world in all countries has its vultures, who feed on carrion, on weak and stupid youth, on inexperienced folly, on hungry passions. The princes of finance have their vultures as well as the princes of the blood.

Sephora is admirably drawn in the book; she does her part with a serenity which has something appalling; she is working for her family;

* 'Rois en Exil. Roman Parisien. Par Alphonse Daudet.' New York: F. W. Christern.

she really likes nothing but her dirty, gregarious home, where there is no question except of buying and selling. The Prince, driven almost mad by her frigidity and her insensibility, makes her a countess, gives her a palace, tries to make a queen of her. She despises him, and feels nothing but contempt for the poor fool, whom she leads, step by step, to that fatal renunciation—that is, to dishonor. When the crisis comes the dishonor is complete. It does not come quite as Sephora wished—the Queen saves the King once more ; but when he starts for Illyria, to place himself at the head of the friends who are conspiring for him, Sephora contrives to keep him one day too long. By her means the conspiracy is discovered, and the friends of the unworthy prince are tried by a court-martial. The end of the story is almost too painful. The Queen herself is finally divided between her regal duties and her maternal love. Zara, who is everything to her since Christian has dishonored himself—the poor, sickly Zara—is taken by his mother to a great physician. He is threatened with blindness ; an operation might save him from it, but it would endanger his life. If he is blind he cannot be king ; if the operation is performed he will probably die. "Règne ou meurs." The poor mother cannot find the strength to sacrifice her child : "Qu'il vive ! qu'il vive !" And there is the end of a race. The Princes of Illyria will disappear, others will occupy their place.

The book is singularly clever ; it is full of life. I have, of course, only touched a few points. There would be much to criticise in Daudet's style. He is in literature what our "impressionists" are in painting ; he is sketchy ; his descriptions make you think of the wonderful drawings of the new school. But drawings are not pictures. They want finish ; they seem to have no durability ; they are mere instruments ; they ought not to be the end. Still, I would not find too much fault with Daudet. We live so rapidly that sketches are perhaps enough for us. The school of Zola produces such horrible novels that it is something to find one which, after all, leaves a strong, healthy impression. This impression is very clear : the "kings in exile" are poor creatures who have ceased to believe in themselves. A king, a minister, a priest, a servant of the people, must understand himself. He cannot divide his life into two parts, and believe that he can think differently on the stage and behind the scenes. Kings and princes must be in earnest, as well as soldiers or priests. We do not allow a bishop to forget his see ; we cannot allow a public man to forget his public character. A deep moral lies hidden under the frail and colored envelope of these "Kings in Exile," a moral which can be applied to all human beings : for we are all of us "kings in exile," and, to use the beautiful words of Lamartine,

"L'homme est un Dieu tombé qui se souvient des cieux."

Correspondence.

POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In connection with a paragraph in your last issue touching the undeveloped resources of the United States, permit me to call the attention, especially of your English readers, to the article "America" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' After a careful estimate it arrives at the conclusion that, "if the natural resources of America were fully developed, it would afford sustenance to 3,600,000,000 of inhabitants." While the United States contains only a little more than one-fourth of the area of North and South America, it has nearly one-third of the arable land. If, then, the estimate of the 'Britannica' be correct, the natural resources of the United States, fully developed, are capable of sustaining a population of nearly 1,200,000,000—equal to the present estimated population of the globe.

This estimate seems extravagant until we remember that even such a population would give us but three hundred and sixty-four persons to the arable square mile, while England to-day has about three hundred and eighty-nine. Josiah Strong.

Sandusky, O., Dec. 8, 1879.

THE VENUS OF MILO.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In the interest of the public I claim your courtesy to make known a new source of information regarding the statue of a so-called "Venus" owned by France. An unassuming publication has been issued by an individual to whom the following invitation, emanating from the French legation at Athens, was addressed in 1847 :

"Come to-morrow, whether disengaged or no, and breakfast with us at Patitia. You shall be placed at table beside Mr. Brest, our consul at Milo, the first man who *saw* the beautiful Venus on her antique pedestal."

The story rehearsed then and there by the discoverer of the statue, before a numerous company of diplomatists, art-students, and tourists, was noted down in subsequent private interviews accorded to M. Doussault, architect by profession, and now author for this occasion only. The documents thus obtained, with additions of drawings executed under the direction of Mr. Brest—showing the ground-plan and elevation of the ruins which contained the statue—are worthy of attention from all to whom the question of the Venus of Milo is not irrevocably closed by some patented invention of their own. I subjoin the title of M. Doussault's curious pamphlet,* of which I hold a copy, which is wholly at your service. M. F. C.

Boston, Dec. 13, 1879.

THE MANUFACTURE OF OUTRAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The following paragraph, cut from the columns of the New York *Tribune* a week or more ago, is going the rounds very generally of the Northern country Republican press :

"The exodus of the negroes from the Southern States to Kansas is attributed by a correspondent of the leading English journal to the unheard-of cruelties and oppressions to which they are subjected by the planters. An instance of the atrocities is cited. A respectable colored man went to Kansas at the beginning of the exodus, worked diligently, saved money enough to buy a little building plot, built a hut, went back to Mississippi for his wife and family, and was seized, dragged from the house, and both his hands were cut off ! He was then told, with fearful oaths, to 'go to Kansas now and work for your family and make a fortune !' The poor maimed man has returned with his wife and little ones. Another instance is even more heartrending. A young man who, after working hard in Kansas for some months, laid by $100, went back to marry and fetch his bride. The very night after his marriage he was dragged from the house, both hands and arms were cut off above the elbows, and he was left to bleed to death."

Now, on its very face this whole statement is so palpably a lie that one wonders at the *Tribune's* consenting to give it an appearance of authenticity by reproducing it. Think of a man with both hands cut off preserving physical strength sufficient to travel from Mississippi to Kansas ; and strangest of all, that in these days when the newspaper man is alive everywhere for items, no one chronicled his journeyings ! Where is the poor maimed man now ? If he was to be found in Kansas, anywhere, or at any time, could it be doubted that the Stalwarts would have overlooked the opportunity to make votes by putting him on the political platform as a spectacle in every closely-contested State ? In face of such an exhibition Blaine and Chandler would have been nowhere. But there have been, according to the English correspondent, two such horrible cases of mutilation. Prudently, in the second case, the victim was allowed to die ; but if a single person, intelligent enough and with a will to write to the press, actually knew of such a transaction, does it stand to reason that an occurrence which throws all the Chisholm and Dixon outrages into the shade, would escape investigation, and that its details would not have been read throughout the land ?

What, then, is the object, and what the political morality, of intelligent editors who give place in their columns to such calumnies against the people of one section of the Union ? The answer is sufficiently obvious. W.

New York, December 8, 1879.

[This "story" first appeared in the London *Daily News* some weeks ago in a letter from Mr. Allen, the Secretary of the British Anti-Slavery Society, who said it had been sent him by "a friend" in Kansas. He believed it and commented on it with proper horror. We marked it for notice at the time, but subsequently overlooked it. Of course, apart from its intrinsic improbability, the failure of the Stalwart papers to take it up is fatal to it. A colored man with two hands lopped off would have been worth any money in the late canvass, and would be used all this winter to prevent discussion of the currency question and throw discredit on civil-

* 'La Vénus de Milo : Documens inédits. Par C. Doussault, Architecte.' Paris : Paul Ollendorf, éditeur, 28 rue de Richelieu. 1877.

service reform and justify the gerrymandering of this State in preparation for the Presidential election. In fact, he would be used for all sorts of purposes. Mr. Blaine would never let him out of his sight, and Mr. Conkling would carry his photograph, and they would produce him in debate to "stir up Ben Hill." One of the remarkable things in the evolution of "the story" is that each Stalwart paper is getting to have its own "murders," and to keep silent about "murders" discovered by rivals. The use made of the Chisholm case by the *Tribune* was, in fact, fatal to any combination in the business.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been a pretty constant reader of your paper for a long time, and agree with most of its views, so I rarely feel called upon to write letters about its utterances, as I see a large fraction of the great American people are in the habit of doing. But one such letter, which I have just read for the first time, though you published it several weeks ago, seems to need a little response.

Though I do not live in Maryland, I have many friends and connections in that State, and spend a certain amount of time in it every year, besides having constant advices from its most conservative portions. I have long been of the opinion that in States farther South political outrages have frequently occurred, and I have thought it not unlikely that in some cases they might have decided elections; but the total absence of anything of the sort from my observation and experience in Maryland had made me adopt various ingenious theories to explain the cause of the difference. The *fact* of orderliness was too obvious to be questioned.

I was more than astonished to find in a recent copy of *Harper's Weekly* one of Nast's sulphurous cartoons which was calculated (by a skilful use of one or two trivial incidents, real or supposed) to give the impression that a reign of terror existed in this quietest of States; and now it seems that your correspondent writing from New York has devoted his energies to the same work. I do not know what may be the effect of such representations on others, but they have cast discredit for me on the whole batch of Southern outrage reports. When men place one State in a wrong light, what certainty can I have that they are not treating every other in the same way when their ends can be served thereby?

Suppose there *was* a disturbance at Elkridge Landing, do not such things continually occur in cities like New York and Philadelphia during exciting elections? Men must change their nature, or grow much wiser, before these election rows entirely cease in any State. Your correspondent's letter is based apparently on no other foundation of fact than this probably overrated incident, which seems to be little known in the State where it occurred; yet he proceeds to make broad charges about intimidation in Maryland, which, I have no doubt, are essentially untrue. He asserts that Anne Arundel County is systematically "roughed" at every election, so that a four-hundred Republican majority is annually changed into a much larger Democratic majority; but he takes good care not to touch upon the fact that almost the only palpable evidence of "roughing" at the last election was the murder at the polls of a white Democrat by a colored Republican. Again, he omits to tell us how it comes to pass that Talbot County (in sight of Anne Arundel) often gives Republican majorities of from four to a dozen. Can it be that the Democratic leaders prefer to buy or bull-doze four hundred voters rather than four? Or are we to believe that all the weak-kneed Radicals have gathered in a single county? If a mass of Republican voters operates as a magnet for savage Democratic bull-dozers, why is not their attention turned effectively to the lower Western-shore counties, where colored majorities still seem to produce their supposed natural effect? The statements will not bear examination from any point of view, and, further, it is proverbially hard to convince a man against the evidence of his own senses.

I am not a bigoted partisan nor a blind admirer of the Southern character. I often offend my friends of that section by my plain speaking about their faults. But the worst possible way to convince a man that he errs or sins is to rail at him as a monster of villany, and impute to him crimes which he knows (and knows you know) he never committed. It is true that Southerners, like children, are under the dominion of their passions to a greater extent than a Northern-reared man can readily imagine. I have often been both amused and shocked to see how some utterly insignificant trifle would transport a man who was generally considered as wise and well-balanced. They are altogether too ready to set down anything done on impulse in the category of unavoidable accidents. But it is only fair to say that the greater number of these explosions do not operate outside of very narrow limits, and rarely go beyond words; that they hardly ever have any predetermined or systematic character; that they accompany a tone of mind which disdains offences against property or truth; and that the impulsiveness which prompts them prompts no less readily all manner of acts of good-will. So that, on the whole, Maryland is no worse than States farther north.—Yours truly,

W. H. Babcock.

513 Seventh Street, Washington, D.C., Dec. 11, 1879.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If you do not deem the subject of "Maryland bull-dozing" exhausted, perhaps you will find space for this response to the communication from Mr. Edward J. Shriver (whose name is erroneously printed Shrizer), which appeared in your issue of December 4. According to Mr. Shriver, the accusations of "Democratic slaughter of negroes" and "repeating," at our last election, do not "rest upon partisan or doubtful authority in the least." As to the general charges I submit the following extract from the Baltimore *American*, the only avowedly Republican daily in this city, and the recognized organ of the party throughout the State. Mr. Gary being the Republican candidate for governor, and Mr. Hamilton the Democratic candidate, the *American* spoke as follows the day after the election:

"Against the strong current of popular sentiment which ran in favor of Mr. Hamilton, Mr. Gary, with all his tact, ability, and popularity, could not make any headway. So far as the personal attention of Mr. Gary himself could extend, his canvass was admirable. His own behavior on the stump was marked by the fairness and honesty which belong to his nature, and everywhere that he appeared he produced a most favorable impression, and gained the good-will and esteem of his hearers. But great as was his personal popularity and able as was his canvass, it availed nothing against Mr. Hamilton's popularity, and the deep rooted prejudice of the majority of the voters of the State against the Republican party—a prejudice which the reputation of some of those who appeared on the stump in Mr. Gary's interest was not calculated to decrease."

So much for "partisan testimony" from Mr. Shriver's own partisan newspaper. As to the specific mention of Col. Charles Marshall, with the implication (ingeniously substituted for direct assertion, which might have ensured too prompt refutation), that he witnessed "slaughter of negroes" and prevented "repeating," you will see, by the enclosed "interview," clipped from the Baltimore *Telegram*, that the colonel denies having seen or interfered with either "slaughter" or "repeating," or having any knowledge that either was attempted at the Elkridge precinct, where he met Mr. Shriver; and that all the wrong Col. Marshall saw was a charge made on a party of negroes by some white roughs, who fired revolvers in the air and at the ground, which occurrence was entirely over before the polls were opened or the election had commenced; and, finally, that the whites concerned left the place immediately after the affray, and, to the best of Col. Marshall's belief, never returned, being overawed by the strong disapproval of their conduct manifested by the majority of the bystanders, Democrats as well as Republicans. Mr. Shriver figures up Anne Arundel as a Republican county, on the usual Stalwart assumption that every negro is of necessity a life-time Republican. One word as to the election of 1875. Your present correspondent was officially employed by both sides to make stenographic reports of the testimony taken in a contest for seats in the Legislature for the Second District, which grew out of that election. This district comprises several of the most troublesome wards of the city, and the evidence showed conclusively that both sides had armed their "roughs," anticipating a close fight; that collisions had resulted, and that the Irish Brigade, as usual, was too much for the noblest valor of the colored troops. Every negro arrested on that day had a revolver on his person. The proceedings may involve a reflection on republican institutions, but do not appear to bear more heavily on one party than on the other.

Will you permit me to offer a suggestion in this connection? If, as the Stalwarts allege, a few dozen white men can, by terrorizing, disfranchise thousands of negroes, does not this prove the negro to be unworthy the privilege of the ballot? To use United States soldiers for the "protection" of such a shabby fellow is certainly contrary to the spirit of our institutions, and already we hear talk of a change in our form of government for the sake of making such employment of the military regular and lawful. Might it not be better to adopt the ideas so ably urged by Hon. Montgomery Blair, and disfranchise the African at once? Such a measure would diminish the Southern representation in Congress, and for ever put an end to the waving of the "bloody shirt." Thus sectionalism would vanish, and future political contests, North and South, would turn

altogether upon questions of administration, such as engrossed the attention of our statesmen in that happy period "before the war." Would not such a consummation be cheaply purchased at the price?

Very truly yours,

J. T. RINGGOLD.

OFFICE OF THE TELEGRAM, BALTIMORE, December 9, 1879.

[Would it not be an odd proceeding to disfranchise a whole class of voters, and a very large one, because they do not want to fight with deadly weapons at the polls when they go to vote, in the presence of the police and the militia and with the courts sitting? Would not this cause of disfranchisement cover a large and highly respectable body of white voters? How many middle-aged business men, lawyers, professors, and ministers would ever attempt to exercise the franchise if they had to make their way to the polls revolver in hand, and run the risk of having to engage in single combat with a rough? No doubt timidity, or inability to use overwhelming physical force to execute the law, is a fatal disqualification for government on the part of a majority in an independent State; but no Southern State is independent, and in all but three the negroes are in a minority, and we have, therefore, no more right to call on them for the display of martial ardor when they go to the polls to vote than when they go to the savings-bank to make a deposit.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is necessary that I should appear somewhat egotistical in order to explain why I seek to join the noble army of martyrs who each week immolate themselves upon your sharp pen. I am a Southerner; I also am a Democrat—one by inheritance and by conviction. For the opinions or criticisms of most political papers I have a great contempt, as I know that those which damn our virtues and those which extenuate our vices are both moved by the same power—money. But when a paper which has earned a reputation for great candor regarding the party with which it has aligned itself, and for fairness toward the opposing one, and which is supported by the cultured and liberal of both parties, quietly assumes that Southerners are, and always have been, "brutal," and that the Democratic party is essentially the party of ignorance and corruption, I feel compelled to say something; not as one having authority, but simply as an ordinary citizen reporting what he sees and thinks.

In number 751 of the *Nation*, upon the first page (335), in speaking of the Grant "boom" at the South, you say that the Southerners resist negro ascendency in their "old, wild, brutal way." Now, when you say "old," I am afraid that you have tacitly adopted the idea disseminated by the book-makers of the North in ante-bellum days, and have in your mind simply a *general* impression of wildness and brutality. For obviously you could not mean that we resisted wildly and brutally "negro ascendency" in old times, as there was none then to resist. I am assuming that you have not had personally much experience of the manners and state of society at the South in times of slavery. If I am right, then I believe that you would not, upon the interested testimony of Northern Abolitionists, have reached a conclusion which would justify so harsh and so sweeping an expression as the one quoted, had it not been for the violent occurrences which have come to your notice since the war. Regarding these I wish to make the following suggestions:

1. To a considerable extent the political organizations of the Democratic party at the South have not reflected the true sentiments of the Southern people. At the close of the war, seeing that the State governments were placed in the hands of negroes and carpet-baggers for, as they supposed, an indefinitely long period, a large proportion of those who had previously participated in politics withdrew altogether from a contest with such ignoble opponents. This allowed, in many instances, the control of the political machinery of the party to pass into the hands of a bad class of men. Subsequently, when, stung into action by repeated grievances, the first-mentioned class of persons went again into the political field, with a poetic justice which to a satirist would be very enjoyable they found that unless they had military renown to help them they were obliged to take subordinate positions. From this has flowed most of the corruption and violence. Candor obliges me to say that intimidation, as such, *without actual violence*, has been looked upon with much indifference by all classes of Southern Democrats. Appeals to the fears or the pocket (by refusing employment) were found so much more efficacious with the negro and carpet-bagger than refined arguments based upon the ethics of American politics, that the temptation to use them, or to allow their use, was very great. But the real employment of physical injury or pain, or of other violence, has not been tolerated by them as a community. As to the fraudulent practices, I do not seek to excuse them on the part of the Democrats by pointing to those which kept the Republicans in power for ten years, and which gave them a President in '76, but will merely say that in their practical effect upon the elections they are more than counterbalanced by the false "swearing in" of negro voters who are not of age, or are non-residents and not entitled to register.

2. Northern people do not understand upon any other theory than that of violence how negroes can vote the Democratic ticket, whereas the process is a very simple one. The patronage of the State governments was, of course, absorbed by carpet-baggers and their rings. All could not be provided for, and so there was the usual dissension. The Democrats, taking advantage of the real good feeling which often exists between the whites and blacks, and also of that affection of the employee for the employer which is so well understood by Republican administrations, turned these discontents into the Democratic ranks.

3. Many portions of the South are thinly settled, and in such regions we always find a "word-and-a-blow" sort of society, as will be seen in the Western States, and even within five hours' ride of Philadelphia, a Republican stronghold.

4. In protecting Democratic negroes from the assaults or insults of Republican negroes the whites would frequently be drawn into conflicts, and their superior courage generally made them victorious. These, of course, were set down as outrages, pure and unadulterated.

5. Owing to the comparative immunity which negro criminals had with the court officers, or more especially with the juries of the carpet-bag rule, there were a great many instances of personal violence by the negroes, and the whites were in an apprehensive state. Hence persons were rather apt to seek with their own hands that redress which they knew the law would not afford. Unfortunately, too, their apprehensions prevented their sifting deliberately the evidence against the person towards whom their vengeance was directed.

6. The negroes are known by those well acquainted with them not to give great value to an oath, and there were easily to be found among them those who would swear what unscrupulous and designing persons wished them to.

7. Being impressed with the idea of the existence of this mysterious Ku-klux, even the truthful in their testimony were inclined to magnify into importance unimportant things, and to connect incidents which had no real connection. How far this can go may be shown by the familiar illustration that it has not been long since the Puritans of Massachusetts upon such testimony were burning as witches helpless old women.

8. The many occasions in which a given crime at the South is presented to the Northern public, each time perhaps in a different form, beget an impression of frequency of occurrence which is far from accurate.

9. Perhaps the greatest source of "Southern outrages" is the imagination of Republican political orators and editors. This has been so frequently pointed out in the columns of the *Nation* that I will content myself with giving a recent instance. A man named Parr, being at Binghamton, N. Y., wrote to the *Republican*, a newspaper of that city, that a man named Bodeman, who was a Republican candidate for the office of sheriff in Putnam County, Fla., had been warned to withdraw; that not doing this, he had been murdered; that he (Parr) and two Northern men—Wm. Clarke, a plumber, of Jacksonville, Fla., and J. M. Adams, his bookkeeper—were upon the coroner's jury, from which they were finally ejected for refusing to bring in a false verdict. He went into the greatest detail, and gave, with an air of precision, the date of the election as being the 6th of February, 1879. He also said that, at an election held in Jacksonville, March 4, 1879, with a black population of six thousand, the Republicans were only allowed three hundred votes. The following matter was sent in refutation: As to the murder, the office of sheriff is not elective in Florida. No election took place in February. A mass-meeting was held at Pilatka, the place where the occurrence took place, and the whole thing was denied by the citizens. Wm. Clarke came out in a letter to a Jacksonville paper and denied any knowledge of the matter; that he had not been in Pilatka for three years, and had never been upon a jury in his life. His bookkeeper, Adams, did the same. As to the Jacksonville election there was none in March, and at the one nearest that date the Republicans elected their entire ticket. Judge Randall, Chief-Justice of Florida and a Republican, wrote to the Binghamton paper and denied it. *Yet the paper said Parr was a reliable man, and*

adhered to its story. In these suggestions for thought I have not attempted any elaborate proof. For this, as for the obtaining of a more healthy state of politics, the course so constantly urged by the *Nation* is the best: let Republican orators come to the South and see for themselves.

II. As for the charge made by "J.," and assented to by the editor of the *Nation*, that the Democratic party is essentially that of ignorance, and one from which reform cannot be expected, I can only allow myself a few words. "J." connects Democracy with ignorance by saying that the Irish day-laborer is always a Democrat, and that "his name is legion and his ignorance is Egyptian darkness." This is brilliant rhetoric, but not exact. We will offset the Irish vote by the negro. By the census of 1870 there were 4,870,364 negroes and 1,855,827 Irish. But, supposing that the invariable stupidity of the land of Burke, Sheridan, and Charles O'Conor should cling to the blood, the number of Irish and those with an Irish parent would amount to (estimated) 3,700,000, leaving still a balance against the Republicans of over a million. That which attached the Irish laborer to the Democratic party was its resistance to a measure of religious intolerance which belonged to the dark ages rather than ours. On the other hand, the Republican party—which, I judge from "J.'s" remarks, is the true and only child of the Federal, the Whig, and the American parties (is there no other door at which it can be laid ?)—boasts as its only great political measure (other than our high tariff) the placing into unlimited political power and trying to give social equality to a race which in its native country has remained for dim ages without civilization, as brutal as the brutes with which they wage an equal war. Although "J." does not say so, he would, no doubt, make the South add to the ignorance of the Democratic party. Well, in that bric-à-brac sort of culture which the wooden-nutmeg millionaire of New England is accustomed to display we have always, perhaps, been lacking; but in real culture and refinement we are not so far behindhand. But perhaps the census-taker will go for more than bare assertion. In 1860 Georgia had 32 colleges (these, of course, indicated a large number of preparatory trainers) and 3,302 pupils, with a white population of 593,088, while Massachusetts, with a population of 1,231,066, had 8 colleges and 1,733 pupils. In South Carolina there were 14 colleges, 1,384 pupils, and 301,304 whites; while in Vermont there were 3 colleges and 173 pupils to a population of 315,098. Upon the abstract question of conservatism the inference is in favor of the Democracy, which is that of the greatest agricultural interest. Operatives are radical and money is timid, not conservative. Upon the financial question alone the party is tainted, and that has been from a want of commercial and financial knowledge in the local leaders. Can you ignore or deny the fact, Mr. Editor, that up to the war the Democratic party was more honest and had fewer thieves in high places than the Republican since its accession to power? On what ground do you deny the power of pure government to that party which holds Bayard as its favorite leader, and grant it to one which, after ten years of scandal, represents the church by Beecher and the state by Blaine? FLORIDA.

[By "old wild, brutal way," we meant the way in which, before the war, the discussion of slavery and cognate questions was prevented at the South—that is, by threats of personal violence on the part of mobs, sometimes called "committees of citizens." This may have been necessary to the protection of the social system established by law; but it was none the less "wild and brutal," looked at from the standpoint of civilized states. The method has been revived since the war for the prevention of negro ascendency in States threatened therewith by regular elections. It is, of course, aggravated by what our correspondent must admit is, if not a Southern custom, a common Southern practice—of killing persons with whom you have private quarrels.

Our correspondent's figures in regard to the higher education are purely fallacious. Does he really believe there is any comparison except in name between the colleges of Georgia, or of any State having thirty-two "colleges," and the eight of Massachusetts?—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. have brought out in very readable style and in paper covers the translation of the first volume of Mme. de Rémusat's 'Memoirs,' translated by Mrs. Cashel Hoey and John Lillie.——'Outlying Europe and the Nearer Orient,' by Joseph Moore, jr., is in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co, together with 'Under the Tricolor; or, The American Colony in Paris,' by Lucy Hamilton Hooper.——Lockwood, Brooks & Co, Boston, will issue immediately 'The Ponca Chiefs,' a narrative of the tribe's dispossession of the Missouri lands belonging to it.——The *Atlantic* portrait for 1880, in the series already begun with Longfellow, Bryant, Lowell, and Whittier, is of Dr. O. W. Holmes, whose seventieth birthday his publishers, Houghton, Osgood & Co., celebrated with so much *éclat* on the 10th inst. As a likeness we are almost inclined to regard it as Mr. Baker's greatest success.——Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell's 'Counsel to Parents on the Moral Education of their Children' (New York: Brentano) is a work as difficult, for obvious reasons, to review as to compose. The writer's well-known professional standing will secure her the attention of the thoughtful, and deservedly so; on the other hand her sex is a drawback to the satisfactory treatment of the main topic of the book, though by no means depriving it of all value.——Harper & Bros. publish this week Mr. Dorman B. Eaton's report, referred to in the President's message, on the 'Civil Service in England,' to which Mr. G. W. Curtis furnishes an introduction. They also add Pattison's 'Milton' to the "English Men of Letters."——Charles Scribner's Sons will have ready in January 'The Emotions,' by Dr. James McCosh; 'Socialism,' by Dr. T. D. Woolsey; and the 'Autobiography of Prince Metternich,' edited by his son.——Howard Challen, Philadelphia, sends us his alphabetical 'Record of the New Books published June–October, 1879,' arranged by author, title, and subject, with price annexed. It should be useful to somebody. ——The two features of the *Magazine of American History* for December are a full account of the battle of Buena Vista, by Ellen Hardin Walworth, and some highly interesting correspondence between Jared Sparks and Colonel Benjamin Tallmadge, of Connecticut, in relation to the circumstances of André's capture and execution, with which Colonel Tallmadge was intimately concerned. A portrait of André, a view of the house from which he was led to the scaffold, and a map of the Hudson showing André's route, illustrate the text.——A young Englishman bearing the Teutonic name of Fleuss has invented a method of staying under water in a diver's suit without connection with the upper air for breathing. Dr. B. W. Richardson communicates to *Nature* of November 20 his observations of this remarkable performance, of which he is unable to reveal the secret. He predicts great results from the discovery.——We have received Nos. 1-3 of the bi-monthly Bulletin of the St. Louis Public School Library. The list of additions is annotated after Mr. Cutter's example, and, so far as it goes, helps to solve the problem how to regulate the reading of school-children.——Notes from Rome, furnished by Signor Rodolfo Lanciani to the *Athenæum*, relate the progress of the "new Tiberine Museum," which was located in the conservatories of the old botanical gardens near the Palazzo Salviati, on the Lungara, only three months since. The monthly average of coins fished from the Tiber reaches twelve hundred, but they belong mostly to the popes of the last two centuries, and are held to have come from the dirt-heaps, collected from the streets or private houses, thrown into the river above Ripetta and near the Church of S. Giovanni de' Fiorentini. There are four halls filled with works of art worthy of any of the great European museums now visitable; but the most signal attraction is afforded by the set of frescoes from a Roman house at La Farnesina, arranged in the same order in which they were painted and discovered. The first room displays a red ground, the second a black, and the third a white; the surface of the whole set exceeds eight hundred square feet.——From the same paper we learn of a proposed new monthly bibliographical review to be started in Paris on January 10, with the title *Le Livre*. Its peculiarity is that it will rival in paper and ornamentation the best modern art-journals.——The Thirteenth Annual Exhibition of the American Water-Color Society will open at the National Academy of Design on February 2, and close on February 28, 1880.

—At the librarians' conventions held this year at Boston and Manchester three papers were read, on the classification of books on the shelves, that were by no means in the beaten track; but for originality of suggestion not one of them could compare with an article in a late number of *Il Buonarroti*. The author, who signs G. P., after dilating on the usual objections to classification—that it can never be perfect; that the boundary-lines of many subjects are indistinct, that books which treat of many subjects, as they can be put in only one place, must of necessity be missing under all the other subjects; that new subjects are springing up like mushrooms every day, to the utter confusion of any system and the great bewilderment of classifiers (in what catalogue a century old, asks he, will you find statistics, philosophy, political economy, sociology,

hygiene, education, and he might have added biology, microscopy, comparative physiology, comparative mythology—in fact, all the comparatives ?); and, finally, that scientific collocation demands extravagant space—finds the escape from all these difficulties where the just vanishing generation thought to find the remedy for the evils of classed catalogues, viz., in the alphabet. Arrange your books alphabetically, he says, and the whole problem is solved. No more shall the unfortunate librarian cudgel his brains to know where to put a new book ; no more shall the baffled reader curse the stupidity of the librarian, who did not put the book where the reader could have found it. The library shall be its own catalogue. So far there is little novelty in the plan. We in America have several libraries arranged in this way: the New York Mercantile, for example, and the State Library at Albany—libraries not, we believe, considered to be specially conveniently arranged for students. The novelty is this : G. P., in order, apparently, to restore the learned and scientific flavor which is lost by discarding classification, proposes to break up his alphabet chronologically, dividing his books by the centuries in which they were written, and even by the decades. Every student, thinks the confiding author of this plan, knows nearly when the book he wants was written. The whole course and tendency of modern thought is to the historical treatment of all subjects ; why not make the library not merely its own catalogue but a history of literature in itself ? Indeed, a chronological arrangement is, after all, the most logical. The difference between Dante, the poet, and St. Thomas Aquinas, the theologian, is much less than between St. Thomas Aquinas and Strauss, or Dante and Leopardi. This concluding argument is ingenious and not without force ; and yet we fear that when G. P.'s scheme shall have been carried out, and some large library has arranged its books in decades, it will be found that, whatever were in past times the defects of subject-classification, the unsatisfactoriness of the new system will be greater, and the last state of the classifier and the reader will be worse than their first.

—The number of Americans who by their lives or by their character are suited to become subjects for the historical novel and drama is so small that a patriotic writer of either kind must read with envy Legouvé's "souvenirs" lately delivered at the Institute, which leave the impression that in the fine days of romanticism Scribe and he had but to stretch forth their hand to pluck plots from the tree of history. What have we to compare with Henry IV., with Francis I., with Adrienne Lecouvreur, merely to begin a long list ? Perhaps we may get a morsel of comfort from the discovery made by another Frenchman, who finds much more in Madame Bonaparte than American and English critics have seen. The latter, so far as we have observed, perceive in her an utterly worldly, scheming, vulgar, avaricious, cold-hearted woman. M. de Varigny denies nothing of this, but finds something admirable in her courage and persistence. "If she had been allowed to wear a crown she would have defended it with a manly energy. Prince Gortchakoff was not mistaken : 'With that woman on the steps of the throne the overthrow of the Empire would have given us much more trouble'; and Talleyrand added: 'What a queen she would have been !' Napoleon did not know her. He was mistaken in thinking that his brother had made a misalliance" Here, perhaps, is a hint for some future Scribe or Delavigne. Unluckily for him, although there is character enough, events were wanting. After all, though she might furnish a striking scene, she would make but a sorry heroine. And what could a patriot do with one of the least American of women ?

—In its notice of Pole's 'Philosophy of Music' the London *Examiner* asserts that "Dr. Hullah was quite right in his protest against the attempt (now an accomplished success) to force upon the musical student a knowledge of the physical and physiological laws which underlie his practice"; that a system under which Beethoven or Mendelssohn would have failed to pass for a degree must be erroneous ; and that the theory of music is part, not of music itself, but of physiological psychology, and therefore of much greater interest to a psychologist than to a musician. That the theory of music as expounded in the works of Helmholtz and his followers is a branch of physiological psychology must, of course, be granted ; but that is no reason why students of music should not be obliged to make themselves familiar with it. A musician, too, ought to be ashamed to play all his life on a horn or a violin and not know how tone-vibrations are produced, in what manner they affect his ear, and how or why one instrument differs from another in the quality or timbre of its tone, or why one violin or voice is better than another. All these and a thousand equally interesting things are explained by Helmholtz, and his reasoning is so simple and clear that it can be adapted to the comprehension of every student who has had an ordinary education. It might, therefore, be expected of the humblest member of an orchestra that he should have some elementary notions of the science as well as the art of music. It will stimulate his dormant intellect, and, notwithstanding the ridiculous current notions about music for the head and music for the heart, and the superiority of the latter and its independence of the former, it will be found that, given the same man, the more he cultivates his intellect the more his performance will "speak to the heart."

—In determining whether physiological acoustics and æsthetics should be taught to musical students it must also be borne in mind that not all are destined to become humble members of an orchestra. Some become instrument-makers, some teachers or composers, and others critics and historians. Instrument-makers will find revealed the acoustic laws which their predecessors *unconsciously* followed in their slow and laborious experiments by which, in the course of time, good wind and string instruments were produced, and they will be able to continue these experiments with a full *consciousness* of their aims and means, gaining thereby as great an advantage as the horticulturist by his careful artificial selection gains over the unconscious natural selection of the vegetable world at large in producing more and more beautiful and varied plants and flowers. Composers, in their turn, will learn to their encouragement that music is an experimental art ; that it has passed through various phases of development ; that advances in it were always due to bold innovations on the part of the great masters ; and that they, therefore, need not be afraid to express their ideas, if necessary, in a new form, however much they may be insulted for it by ignorant grumblers who imagine that music consists solely of a series of fixed laws, which must never be transgressed. Critics, again, will become less partisan and violent when they have once fully grasped the idea that the notions about genial melody, intelligible harmony, unprepared discords, and noisy instrumentation are all matters of relative culture, and have in course of time undergone a great many modifications; that even our whole modern system of scales, harmonies, and major and minor modes is not irrevocably based on any laws of nature or necessitated by the anatomical structure of the ear (thus excluding other possible musical systems). More important than any of these points is the following consideration : A great many questions relating to musical theory and æsthetics are still involved in great darkness. What is needed to solve them is a body of accurate observations and facts. Nobody can furnish these except intelligent, trained musicians, versed in scientific methods.

—Mlle. Marimon selected "Dinorah" for her second appearance at the opera, and gained the same brilliant success which she so richly deserved in her début in "Sonnambula." All the tact and grace of two such eminent artists as Mlle. Marimon and Sig. Galassi are needed to enable a cultivated audience to endure the insipid and tedious insignificance of a work like "Dinorah." The libretto is, of all the absurd subjects which composers of opera have delighted in selecting for their music, the most ridiculous. The music is utterly devoid of interest, merit, or character. It is difficult to explain why so worthless an opera has not disappeared long ago from the operatic stage. We could not pay a higher compliment to Mlle. Marimon than by saying that she really succeeded in inspiring some interest in the antics of the doleful heroine. The *pièce de résistance* was of course the "Shadow Song," which she rendered with wonderful brilliancy. Signor Galassi was an excellent *Hoel*, and Signor Runcio deserves credit for the great pains he took in lending something like grace and dignity to the vapid part of *Corantino*. On Monday Mlle. Marimon appeared again with the same cast in "Sonnambula," and excited the same enthusiasm as before.

—A young pianist of unusual merit made her appearance before a New York audience in an otherwise uninteresting concert given by the Arion Society, in Steinway Hall, on Saturday last. Miss Anna Bock, who received her first musical education in this city from Mr. Max Pinner and Mr. Ferdinand von Inten, left this country about four years ago a promising child and has returned an accomplished artist, having studied first under Liszt, in Weimar, and afterwards in Stuttgardt under Lebert, the most eminent teacher of pianoforte playing in Europe. Miss Bock had selected a programme which displayed all her excellent qualities to the fullest extent. She played Weber's brilliant Polonaise in E major, to which Liszt has set a characteristic orchestral part, with great fire. The extremely difficult passages of the Chopin Impromptu were mastered with perfect grace, and the "Valse Caprice," by Tausig, was a marvel of execution. We hope to have an opportunity of hearing Miss Bock again under more favorable auspices.

—Gilbert and Clay's "Princess Toto" was brought out at the Standard Theatre on Saturday, Mr. Clay conducting the orchestra in person. The house was crowded, and the opera met with a very fair reception. It is difficult to judge from the first night's performance how far it will prove a success, particularly as the music, upon which it must stand or fall in the long run, is of a kind that a first hearing hardly enables one to criticise. Of course here and there, as when the Indians make their appearance, it is of a highly popular and "tuney" sort, but there are not many airs in it of a distinctly catching character, and we are not likely to hear any of the songs whistled in the streets or ground out by one-armed soldiers on hand-organs. Mr. Clay has, in fact, always written his music for musical people, rather than for the general public, and such a favorite song as "She Wandered down the Mountain side" is, after all the years it has been sung, chiefly a favorite among *cognoscenti*. All this being conceded at the outset, there is no question that "Princess Toto" is the work of a composer of great skill and taste, or that it is full of beauties which entitle it to a long run. The choruses are all strong and effective, and several of the airs sung by *Prince Doro* and *Princess Toto* very charming. The acting and singing were very unequal. Mr. H. C. Campbell, as *Doro*, is, if we are not mistaken, a graduate of Niblo's, where he has been singing opéra-bouffe airs in "Enchantment." He has only a tolerable voice, and a merely tolerable voice will not do for the part. It is unnecessary to criticise his acting, as he made little or no effort to act. Miss Braham took the part of *Toto;* she has an excellent voice and acted with great spirit. Miss Jarbeau, who seems to be equal to greater things, took that of her attendant very well; and Mr. Wren made *Prince Caramel* decidedly amusing. Mr. Paul as a sham Indian was an immense hit; indeed, the Indian part of the opera was perhaps the success of the evening. "Princess Toto" may be described as a psychological extravaganza. The plot turns upon the mnemonic failings of the princess, who, with the best intentions in the world, cannot remember anything, and consequently acts on the impulse of the moment. Of course this affords the opportunity for a good many amusing situations, but Mr. Gilbert has not made the libretto as funny as his performances in "Pinafore" had led us to expect. *King Portico*, for instance, is intended to be funny through the incongruity between his royal love of decorum and the situations into which he is forced. But (at least, as represented by Mr. Montgomery) he certainly was not very comical. With an opera written by a composer of Mr. Clay's standing, however, the libretto is of secondary importance. The chief thing is the music, and the reception with which this met on Saturday was certainly most cordial. "Princess Toto" had a long run in England, and this augurs well for its future here.

BENEDICT ARNOLD.*

FRANKLIN wrote to Lafayette of Arnold: "Judas sold only one man; Arnold three millions. Judas got for his one man thirty pieces of silver; Arnold, not a half-penny a head. A miserable bargain! especially when one considers the quantity of infamy he has acquired to himself, and entailed on his family." The patriot's hatred of the crime, joined with the philosopher's contempt for the folly, touched the key-note of execration that has deepened through a century.

Palliation is the limit of the author's attempt in composing this Life, and it fails utterly. He errs in implying that the fame of Arnold's earlier services is clouded by his crime, no less than in using those services as a covert plea for indulgence to his memory. There are two Arnolds in history. The soldier who made the marvellous march through wintry deserts to Quebec, who led without command the obstinate battle of Bemus Heights, and fought a Viking's fight at Valcour, is as distinct in men's minds as if he were another being from him who betrayed Washington's friendship, and conspired to sell West Point—from the barbarian who ravaged Virginia, the renegade who burned New London. Up to that September equinox of 1780 General Arnold is a chief actor in the most heroic and desperate passages of the early years of the war. That day his life crossed the line and declined, as the sun into winter, to darkness and dishonor. Yet the infamy of his later career has not at all biassed our best historians towards injustice to his merits while he remained true to the country; and it is neither logical nor fair to plead his services in extenuation of his guilt.

Of course Arnold's biographer condemns his treason, but it is with more of pity than of hearty indignation. Now, it is just that pity which it is dangerous to encourage in this day of lax political morality. A generation for which the shining examples in the Revolutionary era of probity and pristine virtue are losing their force does not need to be taught unwholesome lessons of tolerance for its greatest criminal. It is right that his military fame, while he remained faithful, should be cleared of aspersions cast on it by jealousy or enmity; and it is right, too, that for the evil he did, this nation should be for ever his enemy and his implacable judge. The sham sentiment that weeps because the laws of war could not spare André may rear a superfluous pillar that celebrates other things than his remains or his memory, sincerely and fitly cared for where he rests. It is not to be endured that any one should take from the height of the monument of infamy which Arnold built for himself.

The writer may not intend the task of rehabilitating Arnold—scarce any one would be bold enough for that. Yet by enlarging on his good traits, by exaggerating his provocations, and shading away his faults of character, the biographer takes the attitude and produces the effect of an apologist. Arnold's dominant qualities were the soldier's. He was ambitious, brave, profuse. He lacked, however, the soldier's chief virtue—discipline. His qualities controlled him, they were not controlled by him. His courage was always reckless, his ambition fed by insatiable vanity; his passion for display hurried him into debt and temptation. Besides, he was vindictive, opinionated, and violent. For such a character the best or the worst career may be predicted, according as it is bent by the circumstances which it fails to control. The unfolding of its simple elements offers no psychological puzzle. Its strength is every-day strength; its faults, coarse ones. There is no place for subtle analysis, balancing motives, tracing how far the mind imposed on itself, or amid what conflict of imagined duties it decided wrong. Arnold's treason was absolute, conscious, brutal. Disappointed, crushed by debt, stung to the quick in his self-opinion, the only doubt about it, which will never be cleared up, is whether he was more the seduced or the tempter.

Except to save himself from pecuniary ruin, and to gratify his vanity by the promised rewards of rank and influence, there was no reason why Arnold should betray his country. It cannot be denied that he was treated with injustice; but reparation had been made him as far as possible. Better soldiers have borne worse wrong and remained true men. His disproof of the malicious charge of fraud in disposing of the goods seized at Quebec left his military renown there all the brighter. He overcame the partiality that withheld his rightful precedence of rank, and after his gallantry in the campaigns against St. Leger and Burgoyne had wrung from Congress his commission as senior major-general, the memory of wrong suffered should have perished with the offence. No generous spirit would have nursed it. The Executive Council of Pennsylvania framed grave charges of misconduct against him, which dwindled on the trial by a military court into proof of certain venial errors, followed by a sentence of "imprudent and improper conduct." The official reprimand that Congress imposed on Washington the duty of administering on that occasion spoke in terms so mild and so mingled with praise that censure turned to compliment. In truth, Arnold's wrongs were wounds inflicted by personal enemies on his egotism. Small soldiers were jealous of him, and small political intriguers traduced him. He suffered nothing that should have touched, much less corrupted, a noble soul. No national reprobation stained him; his State was proud to honor him; the army trusted and admired him; Washington was his friend, and the second place in command might have been his. How flimsy, then, is the pretence that his grieved honor grasped at revenge!

The attempt to show how Arnold might have justified his conduct to himself on the ground of the country's true interest is even more feebly sustained. Arnold's intellect was as vigorous as his moral principle was weak. He knew precisely the causes, range, and necessary result of the war. Though born a colonist, his nature hated subordination, and he had fought for independence too desperately and successfully to leave any question in his own mind as to divided allegiance, or any real doubt that the new order of things must in the end prevail. As a soldier he knew thoroughly, even then when the quarrel seemed in equal poise, the resources of America, and the military inefficiency here of the crown. His draught of an impracticable project for retaining the colonies peaceably, prepared for the king after he reached England, reads like an afterthought, a composition of invented proofs that his treason, if successful, might have led to peace. The imaginary conversations with Robinson and with André, in which he poses as a Monk and is flattered as a Marlborough, are ludicrously incongruous with the reality of the situation. Marlborough played the traitor to two princes, the heads of two parties, but he never tried to strangle the liberties of his country. Monk restored the peace the nation clamored for, by restoring the regular succession when

* 'The Life of Benedict Arnold. By Isaac N. Arnold.' Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1880.

Cromwell's death threatened England with anarchy. There is no parity between Arnold's position and theirs—his deed differs from theirs as parricide differs from policy.

Family letters and manuscripts yield material from which the biographer draws some new details of the last twenty years of Arnold's life. They illustrate but do not vary its often-told story: that the ministry asked and rejected his counsels; that a command in the army, earnestly sought, was steadily refused, for obvious reasons; that he maintained his lavish and ostentatious habits, and, to mend his fortunes, engaged again in trade, removing to New Brunswick, but returning soon to England. His duel with the Earl of Lauderdale, whom he challenged for calling him in Parliament an apostate, is related at length. Once more he sailed as a merchant-adventurer for the West Indies, where he rendered the Government, then at war with France, useful services, receiving in reward a large grant of Canada lands. In vain he again implored a military command, then "sought excitement in desperate adventures to restore his shattered fortunes," and at last, in 1801, died "in bitter distress, in self-reproach, in poverty." The tradition that in his last hours he called for his old American uniform, and muttered, "God forgive me for ever putting on any other," is more effectively introduced, though it seems to rest on no better foundation than the various imaginary conversations the author indulges in.

We should be reluctant to suppose that, besides drawing on his fancy, the author had suppressed any facts within his knowledge that might throw light on Arnold's character. There are two circumstances, however, familiar to those among us who have made researches on the subject, which should have weight in forming a judgment upon it. Allusion is made to the charge that Arnold, while at New Brunswick, caused his own stock of goods to be burned, in fraud of the insurers. Now, this accusation was made by Monson, his partner in business; and there existed last year at St. John's the judicial record of an action for libel, brought on that ground by Arnold, terminating with a verdict in his favor for two-and-sixpence. With regard to the complicity of Mrs. Arnold in her husband's guilt, which the author indignantly denies, it is certain that Colonel Varick, his aid, though at first persuaded of her innocence, afterwards changed his opinion, becoming satisfied that she was acting a part at the time of his flight.

A good many generations must pass before Arnold's career can be made to serve as the topic of a literary *tour de force*, such as has been ingeniously exerted to kalsomine Catiline or to deodorize Lucrezia Borgia. A book on such a subject should be written for only one of two objects—either as a passage in history, to help philosophy teach the world warning by a dark example, or as a family memoir, to paint an ancestor's redeeming traits, and so relieve his name from part of its odium. The author fails in both these objects by not distinctly grasping either, and endeavoring to blend reprobation with vindication. Now, the vindication of Arnold is impossible—not because plain Anglo-Saxon sense has judged him in both nations for a hundred years, but because the unquestioned facts of his life compose an offence against the fundamental laws of honor and truth that secure society. Among any people, in any age, his crime would be glaring and unpardonable—it was a crime against humanity. Any attempt to dwarf it strikes from our history the signal page that records retribution for wickedness. If meant as a pious effort to wipe off the stain that clings to the third generation, the book should have been printed for private circulation. Even for this purpose it tells too much. A memoir composed for that laudable end might depict Arnold's heroism on this side the ocean, his affectionate and energetic work for his family on the other, and fill the gap between with a few uncolored sentences recording his fall. That passage in his life is to be turned from, not dwelt on, by descendants who would honor him. "Non ragioniam di lor, ma guarda e passa."

The typography and mechanical execution of the volume are excellent, barring a misprint or two of dates, and an original touch of spelling bestowed on Trumball, Rediesel, Tarlteon, and the Mischienza. The first part of the book is blemished by many errors of grammar and careless constructions, from which the remainder is more free, perhaps because it contains a larger proportion of transcribed passages.

ILLUSTRATED GIFT BOOKS.

WE have already, without attempting to classify them, noticed some of the books designed for the holiday season. It will be convenient here to group and discuss a few more. First in point of elegance and costliness, yet not dear, is the richly bound and lavishly illustrated 'Venice: Its History, Art, Character, and Modern Life,' from the French of Charles Yriarte (Scribner & Welford). This quarto volume, of three hundred pages and upwards, is meant to lie on the table as one of the ornaments of the room, to be opened for the sake of its pictures, to be read piecemeal, as curiosity impels or leisure permits. In one sense it is a superb guide-book. But it goes deeper than the mere indication of what there is worth seeing in Venice, what the city is famous for, why it has such a fascination for strangers from every clime. The chapter (under Art) on Typography, for instance, is a blank to the ordinary visitor; so is that on Medal Engraving, with a sketch of a catalogue of Venetian medals; the Archives of Venice are not open to every one as they are to M. Yriarte. The architecture, painting, sculpture, the glass and mosaics are more common property, but here, as throughout, the special merit of the illustrations is that they are drawn from rare sources; *e.g.*, for the interesting chapter on lace and costumes the Bibliothèque Nationale and the unrivalled collection of M. Ambroise Firmin-Didot have furnished the most curious and instructive old prints. The account of the Doge of Venice is notably adorned in this manner on a very large scale. See the view of St. Mark's Place at the marriage of the sea, and the reproductions of Jost Ammen's engravings. The history of Venice is summarily disposed of, to the general chapter being added the episodes of Vittor Pisani, Marino Falieri, and Daniele Manin. M. Yriarte is by preference an antiquarian and art connoisseur, and his researches entitle him to speak with authority, while the literary gift of the *feuilletoniste* makes him always a charming companion. The second part of the book treats of the Venice of to-day, and is as readable as a magazine article.

'The Homes of America,' edited by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb (Appletons), is a small quarto, in which a running account of some old and modern dwellings of celebrity is interspersed with anecdotes and historical allusions not without interest. The "Colonial Period" and the "Later Period" between them take up a little more than half the volume, and that half, being not necessarily a mere reporter's account of the houses of "our first citizens," can really be read with pleasure. The venerable and most interesting Phillipse Manor House, now the City Hall of Yonkers, but still unaltered and unmodernized in the main; the Van Rensselaer Manor House at Albany, still in the direct line of succession and still perfect; Gunston Hall, Stratford House, and Mount Vernon in Virginia, and a score of other curious old buildings, North and South, are mentioned here, and of each a picture is given. The book makes no attempt to be a treatise on the architecture of these buildings, nor are any plans given, nor anything like descriptions of them. A chatty account of the men who built them, and the men most famous among those who lived in them, is the extent of the antiquarian study attempted. In the Later Period we find Mr. Jay's house at Katonah, and the Morris mansion at Morrisania; Alexander Hamilton's house, "The Grange," in this city of New York, and Mr. Longfellow's house, "somewhat back from the village street," at Cambridge, together with other dwellings and groups of trees, and, unfortunately, some interior views. The subject is becoming too nearly contemporary, already, not to be mixed up with flattery and graceful "tributes" to well-known families. But of course this grows worse when the "Modern Period" arrives, and the villas and mansions of the last forty years, which may be roughly classified as hideous, less hideous, and simply unremarkable, become the theme of eulogy. Probably we have described the book sufficiently. Its value is rather as a series of scraps of family history than in any other way. The woodcuts are of very different degrees of goodness; some seem to be taken direct from photographs, others are from drawings, probably. All, no doubt, are of fair general accuracy.

Mrs. Hemans's popular poem, "The Breaking Waves Dashed High," issued by Lee & Shepard, is printed in the usual Christmas style, on one side of the page, and with as many illustrations as possible (sixteen to ten stanzas), so that a number of the pictures seem to be of doubtful application. Between the "stern and rock-bound coast" of the poem and the miles of yellow sand of the reality the designer has not hesitated to defer to the poet, and has stated in three separate pictures her conviction that there are rocks in the poem, whatever one finds at Plymouth. The question gets complicated, however, in the picture representing the *Mayflower's* boat and Mary Chilton in it about to land. There's a black crag in the distance of no geographical verity. In general the designs are of no particular value or interest, but the engraving is simple and good.

'The Yo-Semite,' from the same publishers, is the title of a poem, by Wallace Bruce, of fourteen stanzas, containing more exclamations and excitement than significance. We are troubled about the first two stanzas, which have neither subject nor predicate, within them or elsewhere—*e. g.*:

I.

"Waiting to-night for the moon to rise
O'er the cliffs that narrow Yo-Semite's skies;
. . . . . .

II.

Alone in a temple vast and grand
With spire and turret on every hand—
. . . . . .

III.

But the darkling touches dissolve, and now
The moonlight touches El Capitan's brow,
And the lesser stars grow pale and dim,"

and so forth. Actually, that is the construction. As for the illustrations, Mr. Smillie gives us fifteen pen-and-ink drawings of scenes in and near the Yo-Semite Valley, which have been reproduced by the Moss photo-engraving process. It is evident that the book-illustration of the future will be more and more frequently of this sort. It is time that the artists who like to furnish designs for books (and we wish they all did—or all the good ones, at least) began to consider especially the style and handling necessary to produce a good effect. In these little pictures the composition is nearly always good, always varying, and always artistic; but we cannot like the way in which foliage and mountain sides and distant waterfalls and rainbows are represented. Let the reader take a weak magnifying-glass to almost any tree, and he will understand our meaning. *Almost* any, we have said. There are one or two exceptionally well-drawn pieces.

Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin's 'Art in America: A Critical and Historical Sketch' (Harper & Bros.) is divided into six chapters, of which the first deals with early American art; the three following are each entitled "American Painters (1828–1878)"; the fifth has sculpture for its subject, and the last considers the "Present Tendencies of American Art." There is no attempt to give biographical accounts of artists. Even the dates of birth and death are not given, except in a few instances in the course of the essay. The book is simply an account of what strikes the author as most noteworthy in the past history of the fine arts in this country, and he has cast it all in the form of a continuous narrative. In this way readableness is secured at the expense of ease of reference, and also at the expense of positive clearness of statement; for, if exigencies of space allow only ten lines in all to the work of one artist, and if the essay-style adopted requires the remarks upon that painter or sculptor to flow pleasantly on, and lead easily into what is to be said about another, then the author must have a very clear sense of what he wants to say about each, unless content to produce a mere parlor-table book without character or significance. There is still another and even greater difficulty in the way of success in such an undertaking as this: the practical impossibility of maintaining an even tone of criticism. The men to be talked about are alive and at work, they are the author's contemporaries and among them are his friends; many of his ideas upon art and his conclusions as to relative merit and standing have come from conversation with them; it is simply impracticable to sum up the record of the life and work of one's neighbor and comrade with the coolness and impartiality of mind which are difficult to preserve even in the discussion of the arts of other times and lands.

For these reasons our expectations are not large when we take up a book like the present one. Of necessity, it is to be compared with the more ephemeral books of the year. But, as it is examined, it proves to be more judicious in its tone and more sound in its conclusions than was to be expected, or than the magazine articles out of which it is made up seemed at the time. Actual blame or strongly depreciatory language would, perhaps, be out of place in so brief a summary. Where so few words can be given to each artist the worst ought not to be said about him, because full explanation is impossible. The author had to limit his fault-finding to suggestions that all is not as it should be, rather than to say boldly that things are as they should *not* be. And in this difficult labor of proportioning praise and implying blame we find that Mr. Benjamin has done well, and has shown some power of delicate discrimination and soundness of judgment. The book is a model in its material and make-up. Especially good is the paper, the same throughout, for full-page cuts and letter-press, smooth but not too glossy, and of an excellent tone. The woodcuts are of all degrees of merit, like the work they represent.

'Landscape in American Poetry,' by Lucy Larcom, which the Messrs. Appleton issue, is well enough explained by its title, if we add that it contains some forty woodcuts from drawings by Mr. J. Appleton Brown, engraved by Messrs. Anthony, Linton, Harley, Lauderbach, Bobbett, and Andrews. The author, or editor, displays considerable ingenuity in her work of selecting the landscape pictures and even allusions of American poets, from Bryant and Lowell to the least eminent of the minor bards, and the only criticism we care to make upon it is to regret the occasional magniloquence of her style. For many of Mr. Brown's drawings a good word may be said, especially of those which are studies from nature; his imaginative sketches strike us as somewhat commonplace. The whimsicality of their presentation—in ovals, clover-leaves, semi-circles, and so on—is perhaps a gift-book exigency, or assumed to be by the publishers. The table of contents gives no clue to the engraver of any particular drawing, but we hazard the conjecture that the expert will be able to identify Mr. Linton's work, and only experts are interested in the matter perhaps.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

MR. W. H. G. KINGSTON'S name is familiar to the younger portion of many households, and at his best this somewhat uneven writer is to be welcomed for what he brings. We doubt if he has made a better offering than his 'Notable Voyages, from Columbus to Parry' (New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons). This book is the result of no little labor, for it involved an abridgment of Irving's 'Columbus,' of Dampier's and Cook's ample narratives, if we should mention no others. But we must mention, to give an idea of the contents, Vasco da Gama, Magellan, Drake, Cavendish, Schouten and Lemaire (the rounding of Cape Horn), and Parry. From the South Seas to the frozen serpent of the North scarcely any part of the globe is left untouched by this collection, and the lesson in geography therefore is considerable, if only the atlas be kept open as the reading proceeds. But it will not be, and Mr. Kingston would have increased the parents' obligation to him by at least providing skeleton route-maps. Pictures have not been withheld, and are mostly of good quality. The text fills nearly 600 pages without being set in a type trying to the eyes.

'Zigzag Journeys in Europe; or, Vacation Rambles in Historic Lands,' by Hezekiah Butterworth (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), introduces the youthful reader to the "Zigzag Club," an association of six boys composing the first class in "Master Lewis's" school, and describes the trip they took in England and France in the company of their teacher during their summer vacation. At every important town stories are told relating to its history or traditions, and the book is profusely illustrated with spirited and effective woodcuts, many of them full-page illustrations. The plan is a good one, and is well and entertainingly carried out. As specimens of the stories told we will mention "The White Ship," "Joan of Arc," "The Wise Men of Gotham," "The Story of the Dauphin." We note also Tommy Toby's unlucky venture at going a-shooting in Sherwood Forest, in memory of Robin Hood. The inside covers contain good, clear maps of the countries visited. There seems this year to be an unusual number of gift books containing elegantly illustrated tales from history—a gratifying sign of the times.

Since our notice of 'Pocahontas' in the series called "Famous American Indians," edited by Edward Eggleston and Mrs. Lillie Eggleston Seelye, and published by Dodd, Mead & Co., a new volume has appeared, viz., 'Brant and Red Jacket.' It has been derived from the best sources, and for trustworthiness and absorbing interest merits the same commendation as the previous work. There is an excellent portrait of Brant.

In Susan Coolidge's 'Eyebright' (Roberts Bros.) all the traits of this vivacious and careful writer reappear. To those familiar with her books, and they are many, we need say no more. For ourselves we wish we could chronicle in this one a nearer approach to the ideal child's book than was made by its predecessors. That Susan Coolidge has not an eye single to her little audience, and seeks not their amusement or profit and their applause alone, but is more or less conscious of aiming at parental approbation, and gives frequent opportunity for reading between the lines, we see again in 'Eyebright.' We might give numerous instances if it were worth while. The trouble is with the author's point of view, and will our preaching mend that? Meantime, girls, and perhaps boys, will read 'Eyebright' with avidity, we shall be told, and we concede it in advance.

The fifth volume of Miss Alcott's 'Aunt Jo's Scrap-Bag' (Roberts Bros.) consists of short stories that have, apparently, appeared elsewhere in juvenile periodicals. They are of the class which confirm our distrust of such publications as wholesome family reading. Against the unreal and sentimental writing in them the child has no protection from month to month. Gathered into a volume the judicious parent can avert it—when it is too late.]

Last week we had something to say of Mr. Ascott Hope's attempt to turn Mother Goose into prose expansively. In Mrs. Clara Doty Bates's 'Child Lore' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) we have the reverse of this. Aladdin, Silver Locks and the Bears, Tom Thumb, Jack and the Bean Stalk, Bluebeard, Little Red-riding Hood, and kindred tales are put into verse and interlarded with Mother Goose. The result justifies us in preferring the original, as in Mr. Hope's case. Here is a bad specimen, when better might have been selected, it is true; but we must keep the standard high for the rising generation:

"Once on a time there was a man so hideous and ugly
That little children shrank and tried to hide when he appeared;
His eyes were fierce and prominent, his long hair stiff like bristles,
His stature was enormous, and he wore a long blue beard—
He took his name from that through all the country round about him—
And whispered tales of dreadful deeds but helped to make him feared."

Extraordinary metres require extraordinary pictures to match, and these are not wanting.

Mr. R. Caldecott's 'Picture-Book' is increased by the addition to "The House that Jack Built" and "John Gilpin" of "The Babes in the Wood" and Goldsmith's "Elegy on the Death of a Mad Dog" (Routledge). The Gilpin will probably remain the favorite, and the artist has shown a grievous want of taste in treating humorously the tragedy of the Babes; but the Mad Dog is mirth-provoking enough.

The Print Collector: An Introduction to the Knowledge Necessary for forming a Collection of Ancient Prints. By J. Maberley, with an Appendix containing Fielding's Treatise on the Practice of Engraving. Edited, with Notes, an Account of Contemporary Etching and Etchers, and a Bibliography of Engraving, by Robert Hoe, jr. (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1879. Square 8vo, 336 pp.)—Maberley's 'Print Collector' was published in London in 1848. It is an essay on the subject of print-collecting, as it was in the author's time, and is readable, amusing, and suggestive; so that it is not without its use even now. A much more methodical and a very recent treatise, Wilshire's 'Introduction to the Study and Collecting of Ancient Prints,' includes many and long quotations from Maberley, whom the later author evidently looked upon as a sayer of neat sayings—one who could put things cleverly; and that is about his rank as a writer. His account of the blunders a young collector is likely to make, and his complaints of the sufferings to which the owner of fine prints must submit when he shows them to his friends, are funny, and are also full of hints for those who can take hints. His work, apparently reprinted in full, takes up rather more than half of the volume before us. Of the Appendix fifty pages are devoted to Fielding's Treatise on the Practice of Engraving, but without the illustrative specimens of the original. This is a tolerably full account of the chief processes in use, and for the most part clear and intelligible. A far better account of the subject might be written or compiled from different sources, but perhaps none better exists all ready to the hand. The article "Engraving" in the new (unfinished) edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' is very much more clear and on the whole more trustworthy, but is of necessity brief. In the multiplication of art-books nowadays a thoroughly satisfactory account of all the different ways of preparing originals from which to print copies may be looked for any day; and, meantime, there are numerous special treatises on the different processes. The appendix includes also a list of Albert Dürer's engraved work, and one of Rembrandt's etchings. The only reason for the appearance here of these lists is that this volume may be bought by persons who have no other books on engraving, and who may possibly wish to study the works of those very famous artists without purchasing others; but this reason seems insufficient in view of the cheap little hand-books which now give all this information. Even the "Illustrated Biography" series gives in its 'Rembrandt,' at a dollar and a quarter, the list of his etchings; and the Dürer volume when published will no doubt do as much.

The editor's share in this reprint, besides some few notes to the Maberley treatise, tending to bring down the application of the author's remarks to the present day, is to be found in what remains of the appendix. There is mention of a few modern etchers: Méryon, Daubigny, Millet, and ten others, besides Turner in connection with 'Liber Studiorum.' In the case of some of these, brief lists of well-known works are given, but incomplete in a curious way, as if made long ago; thus, of Haden, none of fifteen or sixteen exceedingly important etchings of the last three years is named, and under Fortuny the eighteen etchings of the recent posthumous set are not alluded to. The tone of criticism is moderate and appreciative. The work is closed by a Bibliography of Engraving, which, though incomplete, is sufficiently full to be useful, and is accompanied by very intelligent remarks upon the different books named. It is unfortunate that the whole book should be disfigured by typographical errors, and this is more especially the case in this Bibliography, where a hasty glance shows eight in one page. Apart from this the book is rather unusually comely, with good print and paper, and a pleasant appearance of care in the manufacture.

L'Art, revue hebdomadaire. 1879. (Paris: A. Ballue; New York: J. W. Bouton.)—*L'Art*, which is undoubtedly looked on by the greater number of its beyond-seas subscribers as a picture-book, is more accurately an advanced and almost prophetic record of those critical impressions which take form in studios, which flout the fixed opinions of academies, and are the undercurrent going to construct the æsthetics of the future. During the current year this journal has as usual given free expression to the uncompromising views which have been so distasteful to Institute members and have planted such uneasy thorns in the arm-chairs of Academicians. It will none of Ingres, for example. It recognizes in vol. xvi. that fixed unrighteousness which was imputed to him by Delacroix—"that radical vice, the absence of heart and soul and reason, of everything connected with the *mortalia corda;* that capital defect which leads a man merely to satisfy vain curiosity, and make Chinese work—just what he makes, in all but the simplicity, which he lacks above all." It goes to one of the insurgent pupils of Ingres, Amaury Duval, for anecdotes; how the scholars in his atelier were instructed to put on blind-halters when they penetrated the Rubens galleries of the Louvre on their way to the Raphaels; how the master cried, upon the election of Delacroix to the Academy, "Behold the wolf in the sheepfold!" and how he called upon a student to throw open the windows after a visit of Delacroix to see the "Homer," with the exclamation, "It smells of sulphur here!" One of the contributors, Paul Leroi, a realist who feels for Ingres's successors a hate which Delacroix himself could not have improved upon, satirizes a member of the Institute for complaining the other day of Lepage's "Les Foins," when the picture was proposed for purchase by the Government, "that it had in it nothing of École de Rome." The same assistant, in volume xvii., ministers to the journal's already lusty hate of Cabanel; refers to that artist's "impossible portrait of Mr. Mackey," and cites the acquisition of his "Thamar" by the Luxembourg with a "horresco referens!" It will break few American hearts that *L'Art* does not accept the likeness of an American millionaire; but it appears, from this distance across the water, that its eternal disparagement directed against the painter of the "Florentine Poet" is polemical rather than judicial, and that in its comparative estimate of that artist and of certain new-comers *L'Art* may be less sagacious in striking the note of the future than it would desire to be.

The somewhat iconoclastic spirit of the journal is revealed again in its protest against iconoclasm. The peace of those respectable institutions which pillage the world of sculptured portals and *jubés* with no thought but of their own aggrandizement, is rudely shaken by the current series of articles on "Vandalism," with notes, dates, and facts about the hard bargains that have been driven; the latest grievance, stated in vol. xviii., is the suppression of the Indian Museum at South Kensington. But *L'Art* is a live force in the matter of constructive as well as destructive criticism. It makes it its business to detect the new movements in opinion, and it is not often behindhand in the discovery of significant ones, nor ungenerous in giving such its effectual support. The merits of certain German painters, as Gebhardt and Leibl and Lonbach and Menzel, form the greatest discovery made at the late Exposition, and *L'Art* has taken up these worthies; its vol. xviii. gives a wonderful Holbein-like drawing of an old lady's head by Leibl, and engraves Lonbach's likeness of Dr. Döllinger; vol. xvii. shows an allegory of gluttony incisive enough for Dürer—Menzel's vision of a lady gormandizing at a ball in full dress.

Alongside of the discoveries of modern excellence which are made and bruited in studios go those wayward discoveries of old masters which agitate them so madly from time to time; a few years or months ago it was Franz Hals who was unveiled with great pomp as if he had never been seen before; a few years before, Hobbema and Van der Meer; now it is Tiepolo who is the ruling passion, and the clever painter of the decadence is demonstrated like a theorem by Signor Molmenti in vol. xvii.; indeed the illustrations to his article exhibit specimens, of nook-and-corner decoration on small scale especially, which prove Tiepolo to have had few rivals in the knack of purely ornamental adjustment; but to comprehend Tiepolo, indeed, without the trouble of travelling, we must familiarize ourselves with the photographs, not unknown in studios, of some of his Venice work, where emulation of Veronese seems to have been exalted and rewarded in him to the very verge of equality.

Besides the proclamation of inedited Germans, the Exposition served to launch into French celebrity certain merits of English art and American art. The analysis of American painting belongs to past volumes of *L'Art*, and we have duly noticed it; that of English painting has been prolonged into the present year. Apart from the complacent mistakes in nomenclature always to be expected of French critics ("Oppy" for Opie, vol. xvi. p. 45, "David" applied as title to Leighton's "Eastern Slinger," and "The Stage-Office" to E. A. Abbey's scene of British officers cajoled by a patriotic American lady), the notices of both branches of Anglo-Saxon contribution were discerning and thorough. It has occurred to us that a difference is obvious in the treatment of the two nations, the art of neither of which has until now obtained serious Continental recognition. We could fully express this difference only at a great length, and prove it only by multiplied citations; but what we fancy is discernible may be summarized in little space. In the treatment of the American exhibit—and we are thinking now of the *Gazette* as well as of *L'Art*—there is a sudden yielding to astonishment, an obvious incredulity of good proceeding out of Nazareth; and the reiterated compliments have a flattering air of conviction and almost of mortification. In treating the English exhibit, though the reiterated compliments are not wanting, there is a drawing-room manner, a sense of obligation, a suspicion of opinion overpowered by policy, which is not reassuring in criticism. This untrustworthiness clings to all the Paris reviews, though throughout Duranty's articles in the *Gazette* there is much poking of fun, in the old French style, and, in *L'Art*, Tardieu saves appearances by his honest blows at Mr. Watts's "symbolic pictures," and De la Tour comes out with frank dislike of English gold spandrels for water-color effects, and of Mr. Gregory's water-color saints. Despite this occasional assumption of doughty candor, the tone towards British art is transparently labored and mannered, with a constant parade of the virtue of magnanimity; but this is our reading of the whole tenor of a course of articles, and plenty of passages could be found that would seem to conflict with it. It is not of such remote consequence as might seem, on our assumed theory that subscribers here do not read the journal; reviewers read it, and the candid recognition of American success in *L'Art* has been spread about by our press, until an evident strengthening of confidence or pride in native art has ensued in the art-supporting class.

For the department in which this excellent review is supposed to address itself most successfully to its foreign patrons, the gallery of etchings and rare cuts, there has been a sufficiency of good things in the past three quarterly numbers. Rajon's etching of Bonnat's portrait of Victor Hugo; Koepping's of the lovely portrait of a young maiden, by Rembrandt, in the *salon carré* of the Louvre; and that from Le Blant's picture of "Rochejacquelin" in the last Salon, with woodcuts from Duez's triptych and Gervex's "Return from the Ball," are in the last quarter; during the year there have been noticeable plates in aqua-fortis after Ribot's "St. Sebastian" in the Luxembourg, by Monziès; after Delacroix's "Tasso in the Mad-house," by Flameng; after Lepage's "October," or the potato-gatherers, by Le Couteux; and after Jules Dupré's "Hay-wagon," by Chauvel. The quality of the illustrations improves on the whole rather than deteriorates, and the general vivacity and merit of a splendid enterprise are constantly asserted with living force. We need hardly reiterate our opinion that in taking up the British notion of a quarterly, the French have wonderfully bettered their instruction. No literary quarterly was ever so splendid a mirror of current literature as this artistic quarterly is of contemporary art. We are glad that American approval is one of the props on which the periodical depends, and, in present international conditions, should approve of a still more liberal list of American subscriptions going to the support of the artists, writers, and publishers who create the work and now keep it up in times of commercial straitness.

The Evolution of Man. A popular exposition of the principal points of Human Ontogeny and Phylogeny. From the German of Ernst Haeckel. 2 vols. 12mo. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879. Pp. xxxviii. 464 and xviii. 504; many cuts and colored plates.)—Since this treatise reached our table we have seen a paragraph in one of our leading scientific periodicals regretting that there was no English version of the great German naturalist—so little known does this very timely and acceptable translation appear to remain. Haeckel does not make exactly summer seaside reading in any language; even advanced specialists have some terms of his own invention to master before they can fully understand him; and to read him intelligently in the original requires perfect familiarity with German, as well as some scientific training. For this author, notably among the masters of the subject of Evolution, declines to furnish brains to those for whose benefit he presents his long array of facts, to whose intelligence he submits a cogent argument, and for whose timidity, ignorance, or prejudice he has nothing but scorn. We therefore call attention to this English translation of the "Anthropogenie, oder Entwickelungsgeschichte des Menschen," as practically indispensable to the great body of workers and thinkers in this country who are either obliged to keep abreast of the subject, or are desirous of knowing more or less of the positions which Haeckel in Germany and Darwin in England have thus far reached.

These two are names of the recognized leaders of the theory of Evolution in Europe; we wish we could link them with one from this side of the water, but no American prophet of comparable rank has yet arisen. There is the strongest possible contrast between the two, in temperament and in manner, though they start from similar premises, follow parallel tracks of thought, and look to the same goal. The cooler, if not clearer and wiser, head of the Englishman foresaw certain consequences of the logical extreme of his views; with knowledge of human nature, and with kindly consideration for its weak points, he paved the way for the doctrine with such consummate diplomacy that men who conceded every postulate had no idea of the final syllogism, till the 'Descent of Man' showed them to what they had insensibly been brought; and then it was too late to recede. If this be comparable to a siege by slow advance, to successive reduction of outer works and final starving of the garrison, Haeckel's impetuous onslaught may be likened to a cavalry charge, bearing all down before it, excepting those who incontinently get out of the way, taking refuge in the castles of tradition, authority, and precedent, if not also in some of those which Haeckel would consider to be of Spain. As a matter of policy—as bearing upon the spread and the rooting in men's minds of the views of which he is so powerful a champion, Haeckel's "attitude" is undoubtedly unwise; but his brilliant onslaught is backed with such an army of occupation, by such solid columns of facts and figures, officered with such clear and cogent reasoning, that his potency is no less successful than Darwin's own. But, smothering the admiration which Haeckel's genius compels, we repeat that such a course is impolitic: no curl of the lip nor raising of the eyebrows comports well with the exalted position this author has won; for scorn and disdain are affronts which human nature resents precisely in the measure it deserves them. It is exactly our weak or sore spots that hurt most when pricked; and many who shrink from the surgeon who flourishes his knife and cautery might be induced to submit were gentler means proposed for the same end. But Haeckel would compel assent where Darwin would persuade belief.

However, we have discussed the principles of the doctrine of Evolution, as presented by various authors of repute, too often in these columns to need here to go over such ground. That the general question is fully before the public; that the subject is one of the most profound, most momentous, and most nearly touching the self-interest of every thinking human being; that the philosophy of this generation is incompatible with much that is unthinkingly held to be clear, vital, and sacred in human belief, is perfectly well understood. Respecting the book in hand, we need only witness that it is a faithful and able version of the original, and that its sufficient study should enable any one to appreciate the argument with which Haeckel defends his views of the descent of man, and to become familiar with the facts upon which the author reasons. Haeckel appears to have written in this instance not for his peers, but for the public; not to increase but to diffuse knowledge; and certainly less to discuss and analyze the principles of Evolution than to state what the doctrine teaches, explain it fully to laymen, illustrate it in a manner best suited to their comprehension, and then apply it, with all his wealth of resource, to the particular *crux* of the origin of the human species; well knowing that thousands of intelligent persons accept these truths, yet decline to bear that cross. Such is this work of Haeckel's; and we are satisfied that it loses little at the translator's hands. Here and there we find an obscurity requiring us to reread or reflect upon a sentence; but we dare say the German student is no better off. To learn the peculiar significance of fifty or a hundred new words is no great task; and this accomplished, any one may undertake Haeckel with composure if not with confidence.

Those who for any reason do not care to measure Haeckel at full length will find in Mr. Lester F. Ward's brochure a masterly digest of the whole matter. It is Haeckel in a nutshell; a lucid and concise statement of the leading facts, a clear presentation of the argument, and a logical conclusion; being, therefore, no less practically useful than highly commen-

dable. The three papers which make up this pamphlet of 64 pages, published by E. Stern & Co., of Philadelphia, originally appeared in the April-June numbers of the *Penn Monthly* of this year. One gives the "General History of the Doctrine of Descent"; another is devoted to "Ontogenesis," and the third to "Phylogenesis."

Studies of the Greek Poets. By John Addington Symonds, author of 'Sketches and Studies in Southern Europe,' etc. In two volumes. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.)—*Euripides.* By J. P. Mahaffy, A.M., Fellow of Trinity College and Professor of Ancient History in the University of Dublin. In "Classical Writers," edited by John Richard Green. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Symonds's essays have been before the public in the English edition for several years, and have been well received, but as they will now be seen by many persons for the first time, we may speak of the book as if it was a new one. The American edition is a real improvement on the English original in its lighter, handier form, the occasional additions, and especially the rearrangement of the essays in the chronological order of their subjects, whereby the book may now do duty as a history of Greek poetry. But the author does not offer his book for such a use, nor yet as a contribution to Greek scholarship. The preface to the earlier volume in the English edition, which we think ought, in justice to the author, to have been reprinted in the new edition, disclaims any such pretence, and anticipates criticism for extravagance of style and frequent repetition. "To bring Greek literature home to the general reader, and to apply to the Greek poets the same sort of criticism as that which modern classics receive," is the avowed aim of the author, in the first part of which he succeeds much better than in the second. Particularly in the more obscure corners of the subject the book will be valuable—viz., the gnomic and lyric poets, the fragments of the dramatists, the so-called Anthology, the poem of Hero and Leander. These chapters all contain interesting matter not to be found elsewhere by the English reader. The whole book bears witness to the author's keen sense of the beauty of nature, particularly in those aspects which attracted the attention of the Greeks of old, to the quickness of his imagination in picturing a scene or action as it lies in a poet's words, and to the catholicity of his taste. He has caught, moreover, the secret of being interesting, and exciting one's desire to know more of the subject he presents. With these popular qualities Mr. Symonds unites a great familiarity with Greek poetry and what has been written about it, as well as an admirable skill in translating.

The principal faults of the book are the extravagance of its style and the lack of discriminating criticism. The former is most strikingly shown in the chapter on Pindar. It is particularly unfortunate in this case, for he is so difficult an author and so unfamiliar to most readers that the most careful analysis and the coolest discussion of his thoughts and methods of expression are what is needed. One is led to suspect, from the baldness of the translations in this chapter and the complaint of his difficulty, that Mr. Symonds has never thoroughly familiarized himself with Pindar as with other poets, perhaps from want of sympathy. He repeats, we notice, the common mistake of ascribing to Horace the astounding statement that Pindar's odes are "without metrical structure," when a glance at the passage in Horace (Odes iv. 2, 10) would have shown him that the phrase refers to the dithyrambs, not to the epinikian odes. As to the other matter, one wearies a little of almost unvarying laudation of the Greek poets continued through nine hundred pages. He feels that he is defrauded of the due perspective and the desirable mingling of light and shade, and is inclined before he gets through to distrust somewhat the judgment of his guide. Upon Mr. Symonds's opinion of the utter obsoleteness of the Christian theology and view of life we shall make no criticism here, except to say that the intrusion of it into the book seems ill-advised.

Mr. Mahaffy's little book on Euripides, one of the first to appear of a new series called "Classical Writers," contains perhaps the best work he has yet published. It is simple and unpretentious in style without being dry, and presents fully all that need be told about the poet with clear and complete accounts of his plays. Of the character of Euripides as an artist and his influence as a public teacher, which has always been a puzzling question, Mr. Mahaffy gives a view agreeing in general with that expressed in Curtius's History of Greece, and which probably comes nearest the truth—that, living in a time of wonderfully rapid and violent transition, he was all his life unable to make a definite choice between the two conflicting tendencies, the old and the new, and that his plays reflect this vacillation of his mind. There is nothing, we believe, in English which will serve so well as an introduction to the study of his plays as this little book. We should wish, however, that the ten pages given up to a chronological table had been used rather for fuller discussion of some of the finest plays, such as the "Bacchæ," or for some such excellent translations as Mr. Symonds gives from the "Orestes."

A Popular Guide to the Terms of Art and Science. By C. Bankes Brookes. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.)—*An Illustrated Dictionary of Scientific Terms.* By William Rossiter. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.)—Mr. Brookes' guide we find to be very unsatisfactory. The author states that his object is to enable a non-professional or non-scientific person to find the technical terms used in the arts and sciences by merely knowing the popular words relating thereto, and to translate into popular language technical terms which he may need and not understand. When a student sees or hears a technical term which he does not understand he naturally goes to a dictionary where he will find the technical term translated into popular language. Why should he desire to become pedantic by translating the popular expressions into scientific expressions? The treatise of Mr. Brookes might be useful to a student of logomachy, but we fail to see that it affords any aid which Worcester or Webster cannot give in a much more liberal way.

Mr. Rossiter does not profess to have made a complete and exhaustive dictionary. We are surprised to find so much aid given to a student in so small a space.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anson (Sir W. R.), Principles of the English Law of Contract	(Macmillan & Co.)	$2 60
Appleton's Dictionary of New York and Vicinity, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Barrows (Mrs. W.), Little Pilgrim Question-Book	(Cong. Pub. Co.)	
Bruce (W.), The Yo-Semite: a Poem	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Caldecott's Picture-Book	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
Chaney (Rev. G. L.), "Alo' ha!"	(Roberts Bros.)	1 50
Miller (F. W.), Cincinnati's Beginnings	(Peter G. Thomson)	1 75
Peterson (H.), Cæsar: a Dramatic Study, swd	(H. Peterson & Co.)	
Rees (Miss L. L.), We Four	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Rémusat (Mme. de), Memoirs, Vol. I., swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	50
Smith (H. H.), Brazil: the Amazons and the Coast	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	5 00

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 25, 1879.

The Week.

THE Governor and Council of Maine issued certificates of election on the 18th inst. to the Legislature they had chosen, and it will stand when assembled—House: 58 Republicans, instead of 90 as elected, and 78 Democrats, instead of 61 as elected; Senate: 20 Democrats and 11 Republicans, the Republican majority of 7 having been more than reversed. The Republicans of the State have been very much excited over the matter, but have already managed to arrange systematically for the expression of their indignation by means of public meetings throughout the State, as, it will be remembered, the Democrats thought of doing throughout the country three years ago. Senator Blaine made a long speech at one of these meetings at Augusta on Friday, in which he stated the grievance of his party very forcibly, though he did not explain what the laws of Maine prescribe in such cases, nor how they have been violated by Garcelon and the Greenbackers. Instead, he announced the amount of taxes paid by the disfranchised cities; declared that of the thirty-seven cases of counting out "there was not one of which the law did not provide and direct the mode of correction," and that so many cases had not occurred in all the fifty-nine previous annual elections of the State; called attention to the fact that the "fatal defects" were all on one side; and advised vaguely "a great popular uprising" at once. He also made this reference to the Louisiana analogy, which is worth reproducing: "This was the law; whether wise or unwise was not for us to determine. But it was the law, and the enforcement of that law defeated Mr. Tilden and elected President Hayes."

It is curious to notice the similarity between this point of view and that taken by Garcelon in his card to the public published the next day. In this he says that he and his fellows took for their rule of action "compliance with the requirements of the constitution and the law without fear or favor," and that if the result is different from that claimed just after the election "it is owing in part to the fact that the claim was unfounded, and in part to the carelessness of municipal officers in making their returns." He sets forth the provisions of the constitution and the different statutes bearing on elections (save that which has direct reference to his own duties, according to a subsequent criticism of his letter by Mr. Blaine); says they are "plain and unmistakable"; that in following them the Council have obeyed not only their own judgment but "the advice of their duly appointed legal officer, aided by the best legal talent in the State"; and concludes by remarking in a consolatory tone that after all the next Legislature (Fusion quorum) is the final arbiter of the election of its own members. In one point the Governor's defence seems decidedly weak: it does not explain how it happened that there were just enough "fatal defects" to elect a Fusion quorum. But we confess that this could only be satisfactorily explained by a person with the quick appreciation of extraordinary coincidences of the elder Mr. Weller. What the Republicans are going to do beyond holding indignation meetings has not yet appeared. Senator Hamlin joins Blaine in counselling a "great popular uprising," but what shape it is to take, or what it is to do when uprisen, no one seems to know any better than any one did in 1876 what Mr. Watterson's 100,000 Democrats were to be assembled for.

The House passed before adjournment the Military Academy Appropriation Bill, but did nothing else of consequence. The new rules, from which so much is expected, were reported, and an early day fixed for their consideration. A resolution proposing an amendment to the Constitution for the control of trade-marks by Congress was referred to the Judiciary Committee. In the Senate Mr. Morgan, of Alabama, introduced a joint resolution providing for the national repossession of land-grants bestowed on railroad and telegraph companies that have failed to comply with the conditions of the gift. The number of acres involved is 123,000,000. Mr. Morgan also made an ineffective speech in favor of maintaining the character and present volume of the greenbacks, and the full restoration of silver to equality with the gold coinage. But the event of the week was the adoption of a resolution proposed by Mr. Voorhees, of Indiana, which appoints an investigating committee to report on the causes of the negro immigration northward, with special reference to allegations of "unjust and cruel conduct" on the part of the whites. Besides the mover the committee as constituted consists of Senators Vance of North Carolina, Pendleton of Ohio, Windom of Minnesota, and Bell of New Hampshire—a good sectional distribution, with, of course, a Democratic majority.

The debate on this resolution was the most earnest and profitable of the session, and it is a pity that it could not have been reported in full by the Associated Press. A very moderate tone prevailed, and party lines were not observed in the vote, though many Southern Democrats supported the enquiry expressly to avoid furnishing political capital by seeming to fear its consequences. Mr. Voorhees at one end of the present line of migration, and Mr. Ransom, of North Carolina, at the other, seemed possessed with the idea that Indiana had been selected for party purposes; and the Southern members generally were disposed to believe that the movement had something to do with the next census and Southern representation in Congress. Their speeches were, however, the best and most obviously sincere, and Mr. Hill's and Mr. Ransom's showing of the progress in education, comfort, and acquisition of property made by the colored people of Georgia and North Carolina since the overthrow of the carpet-baggers was neither fairly nor adequately met. The suggestive fact that at the time when the blacks had their "political rights" the money to educate them was squandered on corrupt legislators, and that now when, according to the Stalwart view, those rights are forfeited they have their full share of schools and full security in their earnings, and their place in the jury-box, is one which ought to affect the popular judgment of the existing situation at the South.

Only two Senators, Messrs. Jonas, of Louisiana, and David Davis, held the enquiry to be beyond the competence of Congress, but this opinion seems to be ill-founded. Mr. Windom wanted to empower the Committee to propose a remedy for the injustice they would probably discover, but the majority preferred not to anticipate the question what Congress could do about it. The general cause of the negroes' restlessness is, of course, a simple desire to better themselves; the choice of Kansas and of Indiana is explicable on grounds having no relation to political intrigue. This, we may be sure, the Committee will find out, and also that the more ignorant blacks have put faith in unauthorized and mischievous promises of Government or private organized aid, and have thus been unsettled in a greater degree than they would have been by their oppressive circumstances. These last, again, will in many States and localities prove to be due to bad, and perhaps unjust, systems of credit and employment and legislation; and in giving further publicity to these evils the Committee, acting as a mouth-piece for the blacks, will probably render their chief service. The South is more and more sensitive to Northern public sentiment, and needs the light of exposure from that quarter as an aid to reform.

It is very hard to form an estimate worth printing about the condition of the Grant movement. Its promoters have been unusually active during the past week, and have claimed the election of Don Cameron to the chairmanship of the National Committee a s

a decided indication that they will control the Convention which is to meet at Chicago. This, on the other hand, is strenuously denied by the Sherman and Blaine men, who say that Cameron owes the place to a number of small causes, but mainly to his energy and wealth and experience. It must be noted, however, that in any view the selection of a politician of his stamp from Pennsylvania shows how firmly the managers still rely on the sort of tactics which have brought on the party all the grief and shame which have yet befallen it. The choice of Chicago, however, as a place of meeting, and of a hall that holds eight thousand people, is an immense gain for Grant. The "boom" is strong in that city, and an eight-thousand convention must be a "yelling convention," and more or less in the power of strong-voiced men in any part of the building. In a deliberating convention General Grant would undoubtedly be a weak candidate, and the shrewder men really feel this; but can the Chicago Convention be a deliberating convention?

It is more and more plain that General Grant feels that he is on the track, and is being put through the "preliminary canter," with his consent. Mr. McKee, the original promoter of the "boom" at the West, and editor and owner of its chief organ, the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, has just died, which will be a great loss to it. He was very prominent in the famous whiskey thievery of 1875, in which Babcock and McDonald figured, and was convicted of complicity and sentenced to the penitentiary for two years and a fine of $10,000, but was pardoned in six months. He has for the past year been very vociferous for Grant. The "boom" has plenty of such men among its supporters, but none owners of successful newspapers.

Weak-kneed Congressmen of both parties will enjoy the holiday recess all the more because of the motion submitted to the Supreme Court on Monday by Senator Edmunds, in his capacity of counsel for the plaintiff in the made-up Chittenden-Butler suit to determine the validity of the legal-tender of greenbacks. The case stands on the calendar as No. 779, Augustus D. Juilliard, plaintiff in error, *vs.* Thomas S. Greenman, defendant in error. Mr. Edmunds asked for its advancement, and if it could be argued and decided adversely to the legal tenders this winter it would relieve both parties of a burden which they will find it difficult to carry in the next Congress. The Court, however, would probably prefer that Congress should dispose of the matter itself, as it must indicate in some shape or other where the discretion is to be lodged that is to decide when the emergency has arisen which is to authorize the issue of legal-tender notes. The Court got over this in the Hepburn *v.* Griswold case by the aid of the general admission that the war was an unmistakable emergency calling for the exercise of all the powers Congress had. But would the Court decide that war constituted the only emergency which would warrant an issue of legal-tender paper, or that Congress might declare anything it pleased the needed emergency?

The grounds of the motion in detail, as presented by Mr. Edmunds and his colleague, Mr. William Allen Butler, were as follows: That although the case is between private parties and relates to an every-day transaction, the question involved is a vital one for the currency; that the validity of the act of May 31, 1878, which forbids the further retirement of the legal-tender notes, and requires them to be reissued after redemption, is directly called in question by the issue raised in this action, along with "the whole power of Congress to create or maintain the legal-tender quality of United States Treasury notes in time of peace"; that the importance of the case is further proved by the recent message of the President, and the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency, as well as by public sentiment, of all which the Court may properly take cognizance; that the least possible hardship would result from a decision denying the legal-tender quality at a time when business is prosperous and greenbacks are at par, and that this is a powerful argument against postponing the consideration of the case, or allowing it to take its turn; finally, that the question is assumed to be an open one, not embraced in the decisions of the legal-tender cases 12 Wallace, 457–681. From the preliminary argument, which we have not mentioned, it would appear possible for the Court to shirk the issue by declaring the motion not within the rules; but it is to be hoped they will not avail themselves of it. That courage is wanting in the legislative branch is no reason why the judicial should avoid a public duty.

Every indication that the Southern leaders begin to perceive the hollowness of the alliance between themselves and the Democratic party at the North is encouraging. The Grant "boom" at the South, so far as it reflects this awakening sense, is a good symptom. What is wanted, however, is not a man to stand by and rally around, but a set of principles forming a real and not a sham platform, and in the support of which the South can freely ally itself without regard to existing party lines. This has been well expressed in a recent letter addressed by Congressman Aiken, of South Carolina, to the Augusta *Chronicle*. He is unable to discover any principle in the Democratic party except opposition to the Republican tendency to centralization, and this vanishes when personal interests are at stake, as in Tammany's giving the game to the Republicans at the late election here. He advises the South to detach itself from the "Juggernautic car of Northern Democracy," to abstain from President-making, and to await the formation of a new Union party which will bear some other name than "Democratic."

The principal exportable articles—cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions—continue higher in the domestic than in the foreign markets, so that the supply of commercial bills continues small, and the rates for bankers' bills on London rule above the figures at which gold can be imported. The influx of foreign gold has therefore ceased, and the arrivals of lots previously started from Europe amounted during the week to only $689,000. The total specie imports for the year amount, however, to $83,740,000, of which $77,489,000 have arrived since August 1. Notwithstanding these large arrivals of foreign gold, the demands for money throughout the country for legitimate purposes and for speculation have been sufficient to keep the rates for money loans fully as high as a year ago; and the New York banks find even greater difficulty than then in keeping up their reserves. Currency has not yet begun to return to New York from the interior, although ordinarily the current, at this date, is strongly towards the Atlantic cities. The revival of business in every department, in all parts of the country, together with the speculative spirit that prevails, furnishes the explanation of this strange condition of affairs. At the Stock Exchange, the early part of the week was notable for the depression of stocks and bonds; before the week closed, the depression gave place to buoyancy. Congress has taken its holiday recess without making any provision for a further refunding of the public debt; the Committee of Ways and Means still standing for a 3½ per cent. bond and the Treasury for a 4 per cent. bond to replace the $791,000,000 of 5 and 6 per cent. bonds which will begin to fall due December 31, 1880, and which will all mature by June 30, 1881. Silver in London fell from 52⅝*d.* to 52⅜*d.* and returned to 52½*d.* per oz. Here the bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was $0.8778.

The trial of Dr. Talmage before the Synod ended in a dismissal of the complaint by a majority of twenty-six to thirteen. The minority, if the newspaper report be correct, were all ministers; the majority was composed of ministers and elders equally. What renders the case remarkable or important is that there was, we believe, no dispute about the facts. The sole question before the Synod, as before the Presbytery, was whether the facts constituted "falsehood and deceit," and that the twenty-six ministers should be sharply divided on a question of this sort is an extraordinary and by no means edifying circumstance, particularly as, judging from the published testimony, there would not have been any difference of opinion on the question between an equal body of what are called

"men of the world"—that is, simply honorable men making no profession of religion. The verdict was cast, too, immediately after Talmage had made two statements in his pulpit of undoubted mendacity—one about the assessments on his church and the other about the "moral rottenness" of his accusers. The result was apparently reached partly through love of "harmony" on the part of the majority, and partly through a sort of lachrymose dislike to be unpleasant to anybody or to "embitter sentiments," which seems to be a prominent feature in Brooklyn theology. When the decision was announced, Talmage arose and with the utmost coolness declared his willingness to meet "these brothers" who believed him guilty of "falsehood and deceit," and whom he had just been accusing of "moral rottenness," "half way, or more than half way," and went on to propose a reconciliation tableau, which would have been very repulsive, and we are glad to say, both in the interests of religion and morality and common decency, did not come off, "the brothers" having the manliness not to respond to his advances. He also exhibited himself to the thirteen ministers who had just pronounced him a liar and cheat as "a sinner saved by grace."

The news from Afghanistan shows the situation there to be substantially unchanged. General Roberts, with whom some communication seems to have been had by flash-signals, appears to be safe in his cantonment. Although he is on substantially the same ground as General Elphinstone's force in 1841, and seems to have retreated to his quarters somewhat precipitately—witness the reported murder of stragglers and wounded on the way—he is vastly better off. He has a good stock of provisions within his lines, which Elphinstone had not; and his magazine is within the lines too, which Elphinstone's was not. Moreover, he is a vigorous and able commander, and his force has not been demoralized by reverses, as Elphinstone's was. His breechloading rifles, too, kill at 1,000 yards, while Elphinstone's muskets were not good beyond 300 yards, and had to reply to the jezails, which were effective at 500 yards. So he will probably hold out well, if the Sepoys do not begin to die of cold, which is very likely, as his supplies of fuel must be scanty. General Gough is moving down to his relief with from four to five thousand men, but he has to get through the Khoord-Kabul and Jugdulluck passes, both frightful ravines, with the Ghilzai tribe operating on his flanks, and the snow lying heavily. He may accomplish this feat successfully, as Sir Robert Sale accomplished it at the same season in 1841; but it is difficult. All is quiet on the Kandahar side, but no trouble in Eastern Afghanistan has ever been anticipated.

The Government and their newspaper organs are now saying that there is nothing alarming in the situation, and indeed that it is what was to have been expected, because the tribes, being now released for three months from their agricultural labors, have naturally taken to fighting to pass the time, and will disperse in spring. This would be a plausible view if the invasion had taken place merely for the purpose of chastisement. But as it has been undertaken for the purpose of erecting in Afghanistan a "strong and friendly government" dependent on Great Britain, and is costing enormous sums to an exhausted treasury, the escape of the expeditionary force from total destruction can hardly be called a satisfactory result of the first year's fighting. Besides this, it must be remembered that the Afghan hatred of foreigners and infidels, always passionate, has been doubtless intensified by the hanging, shooting, and village-burning of the last six months. These little operations have been intended as wholesome "punishment," but, as Sir John Kaye pointed out in his history of the last war, they are not taken as punishment in a country in which the vendetta is a sacred duty and custom, but as an injury inflicted by an enemy which every man feels under a solemn obligation to avenge when and how he can.

Another test of the relative strength of the Liberals and Conservatives has been applied in England, in the election at Sheffield of a member to succeed the late Mr. Roebuck, who had turned "Jingo" two years ago, and had been rewarded with a Privy-Councillorship—an empty honor, it is true, but one of the kind that Lord Beaconsfield thinks much of. The contest has been extraordinarily severe and the excitement very great, but the Liberals carried the day by 14,062 to 13,584, a majority of 478. The election is mainly important as what is here called "a straw," the Liberal candidate having resigned another seat for the express purpose of making the fight, and the Conservative candidate having the local influence of his cousin, Lord Wharncliffe, who is a great proprietor in the neighborhood. The Afghan trouble is likely to tell heavily against the Ministry all through the winter, even if it do not end in positive disaster, because it opens up an indefinite prospect of fighting and expense, instead of what was promised—a cheap and speedy improvement of the frontier. Mr. Gladstone's Scotch speeches, too, will probably exert powerful influence, and the Turkish cloud grows blacker and blacker.

The French Ministry has at last succumbed and handed in its resignation. It was made clear in the late debates and interpellations that it had no homogeneous majority to rely on, but was dependent in every division on the kindness of some one section of the Left and Left Centre, and lately has even been under obligations to the Centre. It was consequently at the mercy of any one of four or five small cliques. M. Waddington's personal characteristics, too, were unfortunate. His voice is weak and his manner impassive, and he has too much of the English phlegm to hold a French audience. His late defence, therefore, good as it was in substance, was so defective in delivery as to produce a very inadequate impression. M. Grévy has tried to get M. Freycinet, the present Minister of Public Works, to form a new combination, and as we go to press it is reported that, after a first refusal, he has consented The fact appears to be, however, that there is no chance of anything permanent before Gambetta consents to form a cabinet, and no politician of prominence cares to take an *ad-interim* position. Whether Gambetta will consent depends, doubtless, on his own opinion as to the ability of the Republican party to bear him without heavy loss in the country. He is the idol of the main body of the party, but there is in France a very large body of Independents, or outsiders, who are easily frightened, and Gambetta's political capacity has been in no way shown so well as in his unwillingness to alarm them.

Many of the recent European complications have been very curious, owing to the strange races and institutions they have brought into prominence. The British war with Abyssinia eleven years ago was one of these, but since the death of King Theodorus in the ruins of his palace we have heard little or nothing of the country. It now reappears again as the dominion of a certain provincial prince Kassa, who allied himself with the British against his suzerain and then succeeded him. When he got on the throne he called himself "King of Kings of Ethiopia." Since then, hearing doubtless of the legend of mediæval Europe, he calls himself King John of Abyssinia, and says he is a direct descendant of Prester John. In 1875 his pretensions brought him into collision with the late Khedive, who meditated the annexation of Abyssinia entire, but only took certain provinces. But in 1876 King John beat him in the field, and then the Khedive fell into financial difficulties and had to leave the King alone altogether. Since then John has grown more bumptious, and now demands back his lost provinces, and also the cession of the port of Massowah on the Red Sea, or else that it be made a free port. The new Khedive sent Gordon Pasha to negotiate with him, but he keeps Gordon as a kind of prisoner. More than this, he also keeps in custody a Catholic vicar-apostolic named Massaia, who was residing in the country. The Abyssinians have always been Christians of the Coptic denomination, but at the beginning of the century the royal family became Catholic and ordered a general change in the same direction. Then they changed back, and now the King of Kings, hearing of the Russian successes in Turkey, thinks of joining the Greek Church, and has locked up the Catholic vicar, about whom the Pope is said to be very uneasy.

MAINE AND LOUISIANA.

TO characterize adequately the performances of the Democratic Governor and Council in Maine in exercising the functions of a Returning Board would require very strong language. The whole defence they make—that the law obliges them to exact rigid conformity to certain rules in examining the election returns—is demolished by two facts. One is that the errors and omissions which they have discovered and used occur only in towns and districts in which the Republicans have a majority, and it passes belief that none should have been discovered or discoverable in towns and districts in which the Democrats had a majority. The other is that a law of 1877 permits the Governor and Council, when canvassing the returns, to correct such errors and omissions by comparison with the record, and they refuse to avail themselves of this permission, on the ground that the law is unconstitutional. But it is a well settled and necessary principle of American jurisprudence that every law is to be deemed constitutional until a competent tribunal decides otherwise, and on this point the Governor and Council refuse to take the opinion of the court, thus raising a presumption of bad faith of the strongest kind. They have no more right to declare a law unconstitutional than any other man in the State; and if they can refuse to avail themselves of a permissive act on this ground, they can refuse to obey a mandatory one. In short, there is a high degree of probability that they have been guilty of fraud in examining and correcting the returns, and there is absolute certainty that they have been guilty of a gross abuse of discretion in their manner of correcting them. The indignation their performance excites in Maine and throughout the country is not surprising, and it is by no means confined to Republicans. The affair is calling forth also hearty denunciation in leading Democratic papers. We do not need to point out the effect it is likely to have on Democratic fortunes next year.

It has had one parallel, and only one, and this one is worth recalling because it may help to arouse men of all parties to the danger of familiarizing the country with doubtful and unscrupulous uses of power by the party in power. Nothing is more contagious in political contests than examples of recklessness by those who happen to have the machinery of law in their hands, because nothing of the kind ever takes place without furnishing the other side a precedent or suggestion of greater or less force. A very few such precedents would, if allowed to pass unchecked, create a practice of playing tricks with election returns which would speedily make elections a mere form intended to register a prearranged result. This state of things has already come to pass as regards the nominating machinery. The honest, sober, and patriotic portion of the community who are not "inside politics" will have to bestir themselves if they mean to prevent the managers of both parties from bringing it to pass with regard to the electing machinery also. The Louisiana Returning Board in 1876 was chargeable with the same fatal moral disqualification for the exercise of "judicial functions" in passing on election returns as the Maine Returning Board—for so we may call Governor Garcelon and his Council—in that it was made up exclusively of members of one party. In private life this circumstance makes honest men put in a judicial position more than usually scrupulous and cautious, and even reluctant to act. The Louisiana Returning Board, however, were glad of it, for they disregarded the law which directed them to have at least one Democrat among their number, and this in spite of the fact that a Congressional Committee had in 1874 convicted these same men of fraud in counting the votes. The Maine Board, too, is in nowise abashed by the fact that its members all belong to one party; in fact, it seems to have drawn courage from the circumstance, although it has not gone as far as its prototype in refusing to admit a Republican to the Board, because the law does not require it. The Louisiana Board was reasonably suspected of fraudulent designs from the beginning, and the opposite party sent, as in Maine, a committee to watch it and ask for an inspection of the returns, and for the rigid observance of the following fundamental rules, which are as applicable to the canvassing of votes as to the trial of disputes about property: "Nobody should be judge in his own case; both sides should be fully heard; questions of law should be decided on established principles, questions of fact by the ordinary rules of evidence; the trial of disputed questions should be public; the impartiality of the judges should not only exist but be *manifest*." The Maine Republicans, in their protest addressed to the Governor and Council, have urged these rules on their adoption in even stronger language than that in which the Democratic Visiting Statesmen urged them on the Louisiana Returning Board. In both cases they have been completely disregarded. In both the Boards substantially acted as judges in their own cause, and decided for their own benefit. They both examined the evidence as to questions of fact and decided points of law in secret. The Louisiana Board, indeed, allowed the evidence of intimidation to be attached to the returns after they were received, contrary to the provisions of the law. Both Boards selected the districts in which they would throw out the returns to suit themselves, and both threw out enough to give their own party the required majority. In Louisiana the Board totally declined to give any reasons for its decisions; in Maine it gave reasons, but they were so lame that the production of them argues an unusual degree of shamelessness.

As to the appearance of impartiality, neither seems to have given itself the slightest concern about it. The Louisiana Board, however, was composed of men of lower character, and therefore more in need of having their impartiality made manifest, than that of Maine. We wish the Louisiana case was in no other respect worse; but it was aggravated by the claim of the Republican Visiting Statesmen, in their report to the President, that these justly-suspected persons, who had been convicted of fraud already by a Congressional Committee and whose private standing in the community was very low, should not only have the monstrous power of throwing out whatever returns they pleased on any evidence they chose to treat as sufficient, but should have had the still greater power of inserting in the returns the votes which they might decide would have been cast if the election had been fair. This sounds, after the lapse of three years, almost incredible, but we are faithfully reproducing the recommendation of the report. To crown all, these persons and almost every one of their underlings and aids immediately received offices of considerable value in the public service from the very persons for whom they had secured a majority. This touch is wanting and must be wanting in Maine, but we do not say it would be wanting if the circumstances permitted it.

The best and only excuse for comparing these two frauds now is, that they throw light on each other. The plea of some Democrats—not many, we are glad to say—that the former justifies or palliates the latter, is simply a fresh illustration not of the guilt and shame of both, but of the amount of mischief such occurrences work. The cheating in Louisiana probably did the country no harm by the disposition it made of the Presidency. In fact, the revelations of the past three years make it plain that it did a great deal of good, in saving the Government from a régime which would probably have been very disreputable. But it did incalculable mischief, to which we endeavored to draw attention at the time, in familiarizing the community with the idea that it is of more importance to elect your own man than to satisfy your opponents that he has been elected fairly. This is the fundamental idea of what is called "Mexicanism." The fundamental idea of Anglo-Saxon liberty is that no election has ended well which the beaten party does not believe to have been honestly conducted. The preservation and growth of this liberty in the United States have been due to the care which has been taken to cherish and strengthen this idea, and to the success with which it has on the whole been upheld and practised until now. It received a very severe blow at the last Presidential election. A long step towards Mexicanization was taken when that thoroughly Mexican politician, the late Zachariah Chandler, went to work to see that his candidate got the place, no matter what the Democrats thought about it.

It is characteristic of the Democrats that the mode of righting

this wrong, of which they complain so much, should be the perpetration of another wrong of the same character for a paltrier prize. It is true the Maine performance is widely condemned and in strong terms by the Democratic press, but there is no little chuckling over it, as fair retaliation, among such Democratic politicians as do not see the effect it is likely to have on the prospects of their party. There is no way under heaven, however, in which one party can punish the cheating of another effectively but by practising purity itself. The only telling retort the Democrats can make to Republican frauds or errors is the retort of good example; and nothing seems to go so hard with them as this. For ten years they have tried to meet every Republican folly and shortcoming by something worse in the same direction. We presume Governor Garcelon and his Council have been crying "fraud" for the last three years as vigorously as anybody, and yet they seize the first opportunity of imitating Madison Wells and his colleagues. But if we could only have had on the other side, also, in 1876 a little of that passion for fair dealing, that fierce hatred of the very appearance of chicane, that sensitive shrinking from the very shadow of suspicion, of which Mr. Blaine and other Republican moralists now offer such splendid examples!

SUBSIDENCE OF THE SILVER CRAZE.

THE benumbing report of the Republican caucus committee at Washington, recommending that there be no legislation of any kind this session upon the currency, includes the silver question as a matter of course, and leaves a burden upon the Treasury and a tax upon the people of at least two million dollars per month, which somebody and some political party must answer for—probably in the next campaign, certainly in some future one. The conclusion of the caucus committee is the more reprehensible since the uselessness of the silver coinage has now been proved to the satisfaction of some of its most pronounced supporters. The Warner Bill of last session is dead by the logic of events even more than by the obstinacy of Senator Bayard; and the Silver Bill itself—the provision of law which requires the purchase and coinage of that metal to the extent of two millions per month—has ceased to be an object of affectionate interest except to the few who think that their consistency and their position as public teachers are involved in maintaining it. A bill to suspend the coinage either temporarily or indefinitely would command a surprisingly large vote in spite of the asphyxiating resolution of the caucus; and even if it should not pass now, public opinion would be prepared for its passage at an early day. The coinage of silver dollars cannot go on much longer. The sooner it is stopped the less money will be lost to the taxpayers.

The public opinion of Europe is evidently against another international conference in the interest of bi-metallism. The London *Economist's* statement that the project has been abandoned by our Government may be premature, but it is probably not far wrong. The replies given by England, France, and Germany to the special commissioner of the United States last summer have not been communicated to the public, but it is known that they did not sustain the confidence based upon Mr. Wm. D. Kelley's report of his diplomatic feats at Berlin. Indeed, Mr. Kelley's ardor seems to have been somehow dampened, for he is now quoted as lukewarm on the subject of the dollar of the fathers, and as favoring a suspension of the coinage of it. Possibly his motive for stopping the coinage is to crush England under the weight of the monthly supply of silver which we now kindly dispose of by burying it in the vaults of our Sub-Treasury. If so, we must say that England exhibits surprising indifference to our policy, for the *Economist* actually suggests the very course which Mr. Kelley is said to favor, and which Mr. Halstead shamelessly advocates. It says that "as there is now no hope of silver being rehabilitated by joint action of the Powers, the absurdity of coining money which nobody will take must become apparent." It says nothing about the misery and destitution threatening the British Empire as a consequence of our ceasing to coin silver. But perhaps we are doing Mr. Kelley injustice. Perhaps he has no dark designs against the Old World, but sincerely believes that the dollar of the fathers is now sufficiently abundant, being equal to one dollar per head of the sons and daughters of the Republic if they should ever become bold enough to draw them out of the Treasury.

The Republican caucus committee having voted a general extinguisher upon currency questions, their action may be taken to include the further prosecution of search for friends of bi-metallism abroad. If financial measures are to be suppressed generally let this one share the fate of the others. Whatever polite phrases may be exchanged between governments on this subject there is not the remotest chance of our ever getting beyond phrases and into the category of acts, because it is impossible for governments, either singly or unitedly, to prescribe what shall be an equivalent. If an ounce of gold is the equivalent of a given article of merchandise, while sixteen ounces of silver are not an equivalent for the same thing, statutes and treaties cannot make the sixteen ounces equal to the one ounce. The utmost they can do is to compel persons who have made bargains and contracts heretofore on the expectation of gold and gold values to accept silver and silver values instead. They cannot compel the making of new contracts on the sixteen-to-one basis if that is not the actual commercial basis, and if it is the actual commercial basis no treaty is needed. Nor can they compel people to handle and carry silver to any great extent if they do not like it. The modern commercial world does not like silver, and Americans, it is safe to say, like it least of all. We use less silver per head than England, France, or Germany, notwithstanding its abundance among us, and every man or woman who receives a silver dollar, whether of the trade or "buzzard" variety, views it with suspicion and passes it off in preference to any other kind of dollar in circulation. The only advantage it possesses is that it is less exposed than other money to the depredations of burglars, few of whom will consent to steal it at par or take any risks whatever on account of it.

The various projects mooted to compel the national banks to receive silver dollars on deposit have faded away. There never was any real substance in any of them. The banks, including those of New York and Boston, have been ready to take silver on deposit to as great an extent as the depositors would agree to receive it back in payment of checks. More than this they could not do even if they would. No legal penalties can force them to do or attempt the impossible. What a bank receives it must pay out. If depositors are not willing to have their checks paid in silver, they cannot expect the banks to load themselves with it. If they are willing, they have only to sign an agreement to that effect in order to have their silver received and stored to the extent of the bank's capacity to take care of it. Any legislation compelling a bank to receive silver without reference to the depositor's willingness to take it back, could only result in a surrender of the bank's charter and its reorganization under State laws. It is not the least of the signs showing that the silver craze is rapidly abating, that we hear nothing more of those fantastic schemes to punish the banks for their alleged discrimination against silver.

Even the claims of the silver-miners are less talked of than heretofore. During the past eighteen months we have presented a curious spectacle to the world. Some thousands of our people have been digging silver out of the bowels of the earth which the Government has paid for, put its stamp upon, and consigned immediately to the bowels of the earth again. The silver subjected to this novel treatment is for all practical purposes just where it was before the miners took hold of it. If it should ever be wanted we should know where to find it, but it never will be wanted except to sell at its bullion value. In the direst depression of the iron trade nobody was bold enough to propose that the Government should buy and bury two million dollars' worth of pig-metal per month. That is what we have been doing for the silver-miners, and they cannot expect that we shall continue to do so always. A century or two ago the British Parliament was petitioned to buy and store the surplus woollen goods on the market in order to stimulate trade and

give employment to labor and capital. The wisdom of the period was engaged upon the subject a long time, and it was finally determined to deny the prayer of the petitioners, but to require that all corpses be buried in woollen shrouds. A similar compromise might be effected with the miners, if they should prove troublesome, by requiring that all coffins be furnished with silver handles. But to do the miners justice we must acknowledge that they had little share in passing the Silver Bill, and have as yet shown no great anxiety to keep it on the statute-book. Senator Jones has made a good deal of noise on the subject at one time and another, but his influence has been insignificant compared with that of the Blands and Warners, the Ferrys and Voorheeses, the Medills and Halsteads. The wisest of them must see that in the long run the price of silver will be regulated by the commercial demand for it, and not by an artificial demand like that of the Secretary of the Treasury, who goes into the market as an automaton to buy what he has no use for. If they do not perceive this truth, the public ere long will perceive it and act upon it.

Correspondence.

CONCERNING A NOTE IN DEXTER'S 'AS TO ROGER WILLIAMS.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In July, 1651, John Clarke, John Crandall, and Obadiah Holmes, members of the Baptist church in Newport, R. I., visited an aged brother of the church, William Witter, who lived in Lynn, Mass., and who, on account of his advanced age and his consequent inability to visit his brethren at so great a distance, had requested this interview. They arrived at Witter's house on Saturday; and on the following day, in the forenoon, with the members of Witter's family and four or five strangers, they united in a private religious service. During this service the three Newport Baptists were arrested by two constables, and two days after they were sent to the prison in Boston. July 31 they were brought before the court. Mr. Clarke was fined twenty pounds; Mr. Crandall was fined five pounds; Obadiah Holmes was deemed worthy of severer punishment and was fined thirty pounds. In each case the money was to be paid or else the condemned was to be "well whipped." The fines of Clarke and Crandall were paid by their friends, as Clarke says, "without my consent and contrary to my judgment." Upon Holmes, who, like Clarke and Crandall, refused to pay the fine, the alternative sentence was executed. In an account of this affair, which Holmes soon sent to prominent Baptists in London, occurs the following paragraph, the italics, which are our own, being used for a purpose which will appear later:

"And as the man began to lay the strokes upon my back, I said to the people, 'Though my flesh should fail, and my spirit should fail, yet my God would not fail.' So it pleased the Lord to come in, and so to fill my heart and tongue as a vessel full, and with an audible voice I broke forth praying unto the Lord not to lay this sin to their charge; and telling the people that now I found he did not fail me, and therefore now I should trust him for ever who failed me not; for in truth, as the strokes fell upon me, I had such a spiritual manifestation of God's presence as the like thereof I never had nor felt, nor can with fleshly tongue express; and the outward pain was so removed from me, that indeed I am not able to declare it to you, *it was so easy to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not*, although it was grievous, as the spectators said, the man striking with all his strength (yea, spitting in his hand three times, as many affirmed) with a three-corded whip, giving me therewith thirty strokes. When he had loosed me from the post, having joyfulness in my heart, and cheerfulness in my countenance, as the spectators observed, I told the magistrates, '*You have struck me as with roses*'; and said moreover, 'although the Lord hath made it easy for me, yet I pray God it may not be laid to your charge.'"

On page 121 of his 'As to Roger Williams,' published in 1876, the Rev. H. M. Dexter, D.D., refers to this whipping of Holmes, merely mentioning, however, the fact that Holmes received thirty stripes. But in a note he adds:

"Arnold thinks he was 'cruelly whipped' (*Hist. R. I.* i. 235). But Clarke says: 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' (*Ill Newes*, etc., 22)."

It will be seen, on comparing the language of this note with the extract from Holmes's narrative, given above, that the author of 'As to Roger Williams' is in error when he tells his readers, "Clarke says," etc. But this is a matter of small importance. The gross misrepresentation of Holmes's statement, which this note contains, is the notable thing. The purpose of the note is plain. Arnold "thinks," says Dr. Dexter, that Holmes was "cruelly whipped." But there is another view which we may take of this affair; indeed, there is evidence which shows that the punishment was made easy by the magistrates, who, as Dr. Palfrey ventures to hope, sought to vindicate the majesty of the law at little cost to the delinquent. But, according to Dr. Dexter's note, upon what is this view of Holmes's punishment based? Manifestly upon the statement of Holmes. Yet an examination of this statement—and we have quoted the paragraph in full in order that the reader may make this examination for himself—discloses the fact that the punishment, according to Holmes's narrative, was most severe, and that, if Dr. Dexter had quoted the whole paragraph, if indeed he had finished the sentence from which his first quotation is taken, it would have appeared that Arnold was right; while the sentence from which the second quotation is taken shows that the punishment was made easy, not by the executioner, but by the Lord, who did not withhold his support in the hour of his servant's trial.

The writer, in an editorial which appeared June 21, 1876, in *Zion's Advocate*, a religious paper published in Portland, Maine, called attention to this singular perversion of Holmes's language. To this criticism, which was noticed in several other papers, Dr. Dexter replied in the *Congregationalist*, August 1, 1877—more than a year afterward. In this reply he said: "I said Clarke because I meant Clarke, as I was referring in general to Clarke's book (*Ill Newes*) which contained Holmes's letter. The oversight which I committed was in neglecting to add in parentheses the name 'Holmes' after 'he,' thus: 'and that he (Holmes) told,' etc." The note as thus amended would read thus:

"Arnold thinks he was 'cruelly whipped' [*Hist. R. I.* i. 235]. But Clarke says, 'It was so easie to me, that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he (Holmes) told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' (*Ill Newes*, etc., 22)."

It will be seen that Dr. Dexter's only anxiety in this correction is to make it appear that Holmes is speaking without substituting Holmes for Clarke. The garbled statement is allowed to stand. An "oversight," it is true, was committed in the preparation of this note, but it was not in omitting important parts of Holmes's statement by which the reader is misled, but in omitting Holmes's name after "he"!

Recently a new and cheaper edition of 'As to Roger Williams' has appeared. In a notice of this edition which appeared in the *Congregationalist*, Dr. Dexter's paper, there is a new emendation of this note in 'As to Roger Williams.' The writer, presumably Dr. Dexter, says: "The only inaccuracy alleged against it ['As to Roger Williams'] is founded upon the fact that on page 121 (in note 478), in citing from Clarke's *Ill Newes from New England*, etc., the author wrote: 'Clarke says, "It was so easie to me that I could well bear it," etc.,' when he should have written: 'Clarke makes Holmes say: "It was so easie to me that I could well bear it";' Holmes being the party concerned, and not Clarke, who was describing what occurred. This slight oversight was freely confessed and publicly corrected as soon as discovered." The note as thus emended reads as follows:

"Arnold thinks he was 'cruelly whipped' [*Hist. R. I.* i. 235]. But Clarke makes Holmes say: 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' (*Ill Newes*, etc., 22)."

It will be seen that even in this second emendation no attempt is made to correct the misrepresentation of Holmes's statement which the note contains. Having said Clarke because he meant Clarke, and having at length discovered that this was a "slight oversight" after all, Dr. Dexter now endeavors to correct the note by saying: "Clarke makes Holmes say." But plainly this correction leaves the note in a more objectionable form than at the first; for not only is the reader misled, but Clarke is now made to appear as the garbler of Holmes's words, when, in fact, as a reference to Holmes's statement will show, it is Dr. Dexter himself, and not Clarke, who *makes* Holmes say, by omitting a part of his statement, what he did not say. Indeed he who runs may read that Clarke was not "describing what occurred," as Dr. Dexter affirms, but simply allowing Holmes, by the insertion of his long letter in *Ill Newes*, to tell his own story.

We are also told that "this slight oversight was freely confessed and publicly corrected as soon as discovered." By "slight oversight" Dr. Dexter means his use of the words, "Clarke says," instead of "Clarke

makes Holmes say." As we have already shown, in his first notice of this criticism, and more than a year after the criticism was made, Dr. Dexter wrote, "I said Clarke because I meant Clarke, as I was referring in general to Clarke's book, which contained Holmes's letter." His correction "Clarke makes Holmes say," for "Clarke says," appeared during the past summer!

This is a "slight" matter, etc., it is true. It is not, however, a slight matter that the garbled statement "it was so easie to me," etc., in opposition to Arnold's view that Holmes was "cruelly whipped," is allowed to remain in 'As to Roger Williams.' That the quotation from Holmes in note 478 grossly misrepresents him is discoverable at a glance; but while Dr. Dexter has made two attempts to get the names right in the note, he has made no attempt to let the fact appear that the sentences quoted from Holmes give the reader of his book an entirely false impression. It should be remembered that 'As to Roger Williams' was written with the avowed purpose of correcting erroneous conceptions. An examination of this note and a review of Dr. Dexter's efforts to correct it, however, are not calculated to inspire confidence in Dr. Dexter's general fidelity as a historian. Indeed, in rising from our examination of this note and our review of Dr. Dexter's efforts to correct it, we find his own words in the preface of 'As to Roger Williams' mingling with our thoughts: "I must be allowed to think that any historian who shall go on to reproduce the former slanders in the face of the demonstration of their true character herein offered, must—unless he refute it—fairly be condemned as paying better fealty to indolence or prejudice than to the truth." H. S. B.

PORTLAND, ME., Dec. 18, 1879.

REASONS FOR BEING A DEMOCRAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your apparent search for the motives of men in belonging to the Democratic party, you have said nothing of tariff-reform and the next Presidential nominee. Revising the tariff seems to me not only the most important national issue, next to that of the currency, but the most probable one. There are doubtless many young men who became Democrats because two of the three leading dogmas of the Democracy were hard money and free-trade. They have found tradition, backed by common sense, too weak to keep the party sound on the money question, but they think Mr. Bayard's resolution a hopeful sign of returning sanity among his followers, and they believe that a Democratic Congress will do more for free-trade than a Republican one, partly because of tradition, partly because of reason, partly because we can elect a President without the vote of Pennsylvania and the Republicans cannot.

We must be positive to succeed, and ought to be positive whether we succeed or not. Mr. Tilden was nominated and elected President because he had administered the affairs of New York most ably, and because he had well-known and strong and right beliefs on national themes—the currency, civil-service reform, State-rights (*i.e.*, the right of local government), and free-trade. His chance of re-election to the office out of which he was legislated would be better if he had continued to identify himself with two or three great political issues instead of with one small one. Free-trade is a much better cry than fraud.

Mr. Bayard's political beliefs are as well known and as strong and as right as those of Mr. Tilden. He has maintained them as steadily. If the Democratic party is wise enough to nominate him, I do not see how the group of Liberal Republican newspapers which the *Nation* heads, and the many Liberal Republicans whom the group represents, could avoid, or could wish to avoid, supporting him as against Grant or Blaine.

The facts that the Democracy is the party of free-trade, and that its possible nominee for the Presidency is Mr. Bayard, seem two very good reasons for being a Democrat.

Respectfully yours,

ALFRED BISHOP MASON.

CHICAGO, Dec. 14, 1879.

[On both these subjects our correspondent seems to be entering the domain of prophecy.—ED. NATION.]

THE MAINE JUGGLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The extraordinary result of the canvass of the votes cast at the recent Maine election gives rise to a number of questions, for answers to which your readers will look rather to the *Nation* than to any other source. The ostensible reason for the result reached by the State officers is, that certain formalities required by law were not complied with in the case of the rejected returns. If such wholesale rejection of votes for these reasons were common occurrences, of course the matter would be readily explained. But how does it happen that the same result has never been known before? The following are the questions, an answer to which is necessary to a clear understanding of the subject:

1. Are the requirements of the Maine election laws exceptionally minute and exacting? If so, how did it happen that the same difficulty has not been met with before in canvassing the votes in this State? If not, how does it happen that other State elections are not constantly affected in the same way? In a word, what is there exceptional in the laws or customs of Maine which has brought about this result?

2. Was there an extraordinary number of blunders on the part of the returning officers in the Maine election?

3. How did it happen that the mistakes were all on the Republican side, so that their corrections all tended to the advantage of the Democrats? Is this not a fortuitous combination of circumstances without precedent?

4. What is the general tenor of law and precedent respecting the canvass of votes in which some formality has not been complied with? For instance, if the law requires that an officer shall make up his returns on a certain day, and he fails to do it until the day after, is there any law or custom which prescribes that his returns shall be thrown out? Such mistakes must be of constant occurrence, but we seldom hear of them. If it were decided that such votes must be thrown out, how easy it would be for men sympathizing with one party to nullify majorities against them by simply waiting over a day or omitting some minute requirement.

N. S.

WASHINGTON, December 22, 1879.

THE TRUTH ABOUT MARYLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I was counsel in the contested election of 1875 for the Second Legislative District of this city, I deem it my duty to inform you that no person named J. T. Ringgold (or of any similar name) "was officially employed by both sides to make stenographic reports of the testimony taken in" that contest. The testimony in question was taken throughout by Mr. S. M. Stiles, of Philadelphia, and Mr. Ringgold (if there is any such person) had no connection whatever with the cause. His allegation, "Every negro arrested on that day had a revolver on his person," is a gross misstatement. I have at my office a *verbatim* copy of the evidence at the service of any one who chooses to examine it, which includes the depositions of numerous policemen and records the arrest of many negroes, but not one of the latter is said to have been armed.

I remain, sir, yours respectfully, CHARLES J. BONAPARTE.

BALTIMORE, December 22, 1879.

[Mr. Ringgold's letter was written on paper bearing the imprint of the newspaper-office from which it professed to emanate, with his name as editor, if we remember aright. We beg our readers to observe that this is now the fifth letter we have printed on the subject of the late Maryland elections. If arriving at the facts in a given case is so difficult when the locality is so near to the North and so populous as Baltimore, with what caution ought we to receive statements of what takes place, say, among the swamps and bayous of Louisiana.—ED. NATION.]

CHRONOLOGICAL CATALOGUING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is an error in the paragraph of your last number, p. 423, in calling "original" the plan of some one in *Il Buonarroti*, so far as he proposes a chronological arrangement of books on the shelves. There are at least two libraries known to me in which this is done in some fashion. In the Philadelphia Library books are primarily divided into four classes, folios, quartos, octavos, duodecimos, and then all books as they come in are arranged consecutively according to date of accession. This varies from an absolute chronological arrangement, because all newly acquired books may not be newly published books. At the University Library, Cambridge, England, for a certain portion of the library, a perfect chronological arrangement is carried out, all books published in 1863, for in-

stance, standing together. The scheme is not a bad solution of the difficulty which the receipt of *all* books under the copyright act casts upon a scholarly collection like that controlled by Mr. Bradshaw, himself an erudite scholar. From this mass of copyright accessions the fit books for the usual classifications are selected and assigned as their purchases would be. This, however, leaves much the larger bulk, which is simply arranged by years as received, and numbered under the years, so that a title in the catalogue showing 1859–72 points at once to the seventy-second place under that year. There might be many worse plans under the circumstances.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY, Dec. 19, 1879.

Notes.

GINN & HEATH, Boston, will have ready next month a translation of Bender's 'Brief History of Roman Literature,' by Profs. Crowell and Richardson of Amherst; and 'Remnants of Early Latin,' by Prof. F. D. Allen, of Yale—both text-books.——Edward Stern & Co., of Philadelphia, publishers of the *Penn Monthly*, will begin on January 3, 1880, a supplement called *Weekly Notes*, consisting of comments on current news, and obtainable either separately or in connection with the *Monthly*. ——We are informed that the *American Hebrew*, of this city, is now publishing weekly a translation of the Talmudic book on 'Idolatry,' by Rabbi De Sola Mendes, the first ever made into English.——An attempt "to help solidify the Yale influence which centres about New York City," and to increase the membership of the local Yale Alumni Association, has been made by this organization through Mr. Lyman H. Bagg, in a handy pocket 'Directory of New York Yale Men.' A list of nine similar associations is given in this pamphlet, and the addresses of the class secretaries from 1816 to 1878.——Among a number of worthy artistic journals the *Portfolio*, edited by Mr. Hamerton, is still the best issued in our language. The editor is the first who has written in English with absolute dispassionateness and competent appreciation when the claims of English and Continental art were to be pitted together, and he has employed etchers without living superiors to furnish the plates which form so exquisite a cabinet in the collected numbers. As the size of these plates is of importunate moment to those who collect and store art-works, we ought to say that Mr. Hamerton has hit a felicitous medium.——A few late arrivals of children's books must take their New Year's chances so far as mention here is concerned. Mrs. Molesworth's refined and gentle fancy invents a number of fairy tales with the alluring caption of 'The Tapestry-Room' (Macmillan), and Walter Crane furnishes the illustrations. Harriet Martineau's "historiette," 'The Hampdens,' has been reproduced in a pleasant form by Geo. Routledge & Sons, with designs by Millais. This is not a book for the youngest, but rather for children well in their teens. It deals, of course, with the stirring times of the English Revolution. Mr. B. P. Shillaber's 'Cruises with Captain Bob on Sea and Land' (Lee & Shepard) consists of an old salt's yarns to his young friends, and will be sure to interest and instruct the reader. "Mrs. Partington's" humor pervades the book, but not obtrusively. 'The Otsego Chronicles,' by Mary B. Sleight (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), is a moral tale containing numerous sound maxims like this: "No woman has a right to lead a man on to a declaration unless she means to accept him"; or this: "Cousins do sometimes marry, but it is not a prudent thing to do."—— The fashion of Christmas annuals has in England survived a decade since the death of Dickens, who set it, but the flavor of holly and mistletoe and enforced jollity characteristic of his work in this line is passing away; in the latest attempt it is wholly imperceptible. 'The Stage-Door: Stories by those who enter it' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) is a collection of poems, tales, and personal reminiscence written by dramatists and actors; the papers of the former are light even for a publication of this kind; those of the latter are lighter still. The one contribution of any force is Mr. W. S. Gilbert's "Comedy and Tragedy," which he announces is to be used as the basis of a play. The initial portraits have a certain value. Another English yearly pamphlet is 'Tom Hood's Comic Annual,' which, as it has been briefly described, "is not now Hood's and never was comic." Its only contribution of value this year is a charming poem by Mr. Austin Dobson, a little out of his usual vein, but with his usual finish. On this side the water, *Puck* has put forth an "Annual," which is cleverly, and of course humorously, illustrated.—— Prof. R. Bonghi, we learn from the *Athenæum*, has just completed a translation into Italian of Plato's entire writings, which he proposes to publish by subscription. This achievement is a fresh proof of Signor Bonghi's varied intellectual ability.——The *Californian* is the title of a new review published by the A. Roman Publishing Company of San Francisco, and recalling in its general manner and aim the *Overland Monthly*. It promises well enough for us to wish it a more permanent success than its predecessor, though there is something distinctly amateurish about some of the contributed articles, and perceptible traces of the practised Bohemian in its trifles, which justify its assertion that it is to be "thoroughly Western in its character and local to this coast in its flavor." Its salutatory is a model of modesty, and announces that it "has no apology to offer for its existence" and "claims no aching void in the literary world which it is especially qualified or commissioned to fill."

—The second number of the *American Art Review* confirms the impression produced by the first one, and makes it evident that there will be a great deal of solid information, and that of a sort which our public needs, in the new periodical. The more permanent matters are treated of in the body of the number, the more temporary in the different "Chronicles" at the end. Thus, the American Art Chronicle, which occupies five of these large pages, and in smaller type, too, than that of the body, gives a long account of the Springfield (Ill.) monument to Abraham Lincoln, its present condition, how much it is costing, whence the money comes, and the like; fourteen other monuments finished, begun, or proposed are described and discussed; the newly-born Chicago Academy of Fine Arts, its nature, and the way it came to "arise from the ashes" of the Chicago Academy of Design, are fully considered; in short, we do not know where else to go for such information as is given here, and in a certain sense it is indispensable. We have lived without it, but how? If this chosen and sifted news proves trustworthy, and free from the inaccuracy of detail which is inseparable from the daily press (for who ever saw an account in a morning paper of anything in which he was personally concerned and did not find it full of little blunders?), the *Review* will find friends who cannot spare it, if only on this account. Of body articles, one by Mr. Perkins tells about the researches and discoveries at Olympia, of which the temple-architecture is second only to the best, and the sculpture second, perhaps, to none. A notice of the late William Hunt, apparently the first of a series, and headed "Personal Reminiscences," is naturally rather friendly and obituary than critical. It contains two admirable woodcuts by an engraver whose work we begin to look for with eagerness, Mr. Andrew. We have read with pleasure a really thoughtful paper by the editor, Mr. Koehler, expressing more hope than all of us can feel for the near future of the fine arts. The announcement of a very important discovery, for it is pretty much that, in Oiron faïence, is translated from a German periodical. The most significant piece of criticism in the number is contributed by Mr. Ware in his second paper on the Washington Monument.

—The *North American Review* for January is introduced by an article on "The Interoceanic Canal," by M. de Lesseps, which, at this date, certainly calls for no particular comment. Of Mr. Parkman's reply to the five critics of his former article on Woman Suffrage, this may also be said perhaps, though we ought to call attention to a certain acidity of humor which characterizes it, and illustrates, we should say, Mr. Parkman's entire competence to deal with his opponents, so far, at all events, as the asides of dialectics are concerned. For instance, nothing could be neater than this at the close of his paper: "We do not like to be on terms of adverse discussion with women, or with men who represent them, and we willingly leave them the last word if they want it." The second part of Mr. Froude's "Romanism and the Irish Race in the United States," too, will probably be very successful in irritating persons who take sides strongly against Mr. Froude. It is not otherwise especially noticeable, but it shows that his great skill in stirring up the bile of Irishmen has no whit abated, but has rather been refined and polished to the extremity of effectiveness by constant practice. Part second of Mr. Mills's paper on "The Permanence of Political Forces" is given; an article on "The Metaphysics of Science," designed to show that there is a "realm of legitimate thought deeper than the data of physical science," is contributed by Professor Alexander Winchell; and Mr. Stoddard reviews "Recent Poetry." Mr. Henry James, Jr., has a critical article on Sainte-Beuve apropos of his recently published correspondence, which is quite in the vein of one of Sainte-Beuve's own "Portraits," and is, both in breadth of view and in nicety of perception, much more than a hap-hazard and hasty contribution to the literature of American criticism. More of such articles, even at the sacrifice of diaries of "Public Men" and

similar sensations, would be relished, we feel confident, by not a few readers of the *Review*.

—The *Atlantic* begins its forty-fifth volume with a larger page, larger type, paper without gloss, and sixteen more pages than it has had hitherto—all improvements, especially the new paper, which permits the magazine to be read at night with comfort and safety, as the old did not. The only change noticeable in the character of the contents is an apparent tendency towards making more of literary criticism than heretofore. The old department "Recent Literature" is, for this number at least, abandoned, but there are no fewer than five different articles on current books; one taking up recent novels, another holiday books, another Webster's Speeches, a fourth Gilman's Chaucer, and a fifth Daudet's 'Les Rois en Exil' and Gualdo's 'Un Mariage Excentrique.' Mr. Howells begins a new story entitled "The Undiscovered Country," which is to run through six more numbers, with a very real account of a spiritualistic séance, the medium of which promises to be interesting as the heroine. In the opening instalment, little more than the introduction of the characters is accomplished, but it is safe to infer from the way in which this is done that Mr. Howells is sure of his ground. Some very readable "Reminiscences of Washington," relating to the period of John Quincy Adams's administration, are given by an anonymous contributor, who gossips about almost everything that occurred and every one who figured at the national capital between 1825–1829, and from whom more of the same sort is promised during the year. Mr. White discourses of "Habits of English Life"; Charles Egbert Craddock contributes a Western story that has verisimilitude; there is a review of the pictures at the Hunt Memorial Exhibition, by an enthusiastic admirer, and "The Bonanza Farms of the West" is an interesting account based on personal inspection and various statistics. Of the conclusion of "Thirty-seven Hundred and Fifty-eight" we make as little as we could of the beginning last month, and to many readers we feel sure that it will remain a mystery. An essay on "Equality" reviews the political history of the doctrine, and discusses at length its justice and practical wisdom, setting out rather theatrically with the "undeniable principle," in italics, "All men are created unequal"; what follows is not difficult to construct, or would not be if it were a little more definite. The poetry is contributed by Holmes, Whittier, W. W. Story, and Harriet Prescott Spofford. Dr. Holmes's verses are, if we may say so without invidiousness, considerably the best; on the other hand Mrs. Spofford's "Intermezzo" contains this stanza:

> "Oh, how beautiful you are, my love!
> How your heart bounds with its tender yearning!
> How upon your lips, your cheeks, your eyes,
> The fragrant flame of your full life is burning!"

—*Harper's* for January opens with Keats's "Eve of St. Agnes," with nine large and carefully-studied illustrations by Mr. Abbey, all of which exhibit this artist's versatility, though some fall below his highest level. Mr. Frank Mayer follows with a light discourse on "Old Baltimore and its Merchants," accompanied by his own clever designs. A chapter on the reformatory epoch which marked the end of the third and the beginning of the fourth decade of the century in this country gives a rapid glance at American socialism, "come-outerism," second-adventism, the doctrine of non-resistance, the newer schools of medicine—Thomsonianism, homœopathy, hydropathy—temperance, Grahamism, woman's rights, phonography, etc., etc.; and each of these movements is illustrated with a portrait of a representative man or woman. Some of the very best engraving of the number is to be found among these likenesses—for example, Parker and Pierpont. Mr. A. A. Hayes, jr., continues his papers on Colorado with a very readable account of the sheep-raising industry, and again essays a balance-sheet for the benefit of the adventurous. Perhaps the best-organized truant system in the country is described in the article on "Compulsory Education in Brooklyn," which, however, needs to be followed up by personal investigation if one seeks to be fully informed on the subject. There is a striking difference in the truant type of countenance as conceived by Mr. Sol Eytinge, jr., and his associate for this purpose, Miss Jessie Curtis. A better service at perhaps less expense would have been rendered by careful portraiture of one or two rows of heads fairly selected from the Attendance Schools and the Truant Home. M. de Lesseps's career as Minister at Rome in 1849 is briefly sketched by Mr. Edwin de Leon, with the aid of a fine portrait. Lastly, we shall mention, for its useful information palatably set forth, Mr. John Habberton's "First Families of the Atlantic," to wit, the cod, mackerel, herring, and other food fish of the eastern American waters, whose peculiarities and habits have been fully described in the little-read report of the award of the Fisheries Commission.

—Mr. James, in the January *Scribner's*, concludes his "Confidence" by happily averting a tragedy and setting his foot on the national proclivity to divorce. In the present instalment of "The Grandissimes" we have vaudouism and blood-letting and more of the tender passion, and still, as we said in the beginning, one's head is giddied by the genealogical mazes of this remarkable family. Close beside this Louisiana romance the editor has placed a realistic account of the Acadians of the same State. Apparently they should not be thought of as a remnant of the exiles of Grand-Pré; at least the writer, Mr. R. L. Daniels, thinks they are not "passing away" except where the Yankee presses too closely on them; but physically they have deteriorated through excessive intermarriage, and being ignorant and priest-ridden and listless (though not idle) they are not highly valuable citizens, albeit seldom guilty of criminal offences. What we have found most suggestive in Mr. W. H. Bishop's "Young Artists' Life in New York" is his statement of the effect on themselves and on the stay-at-homes of the return of the native proficients from foreign schools. They find here a greater picturesqueness than they had dreamed of, sufficient facilities, if a little dear, for the artist life, and a position of authority awaiting them which they accept formally in professorships and informally by taking the initiative in all movements. It is a disappointment to find a great gap between the first and the second series of extracts from the Journal of Henry J. Raymond. From the Webster period we are transported perforce, the Journal itself being deficient, to war-time and the Fredericksburg campaign. It is still highly interesting reading, as showing the fatal nearness of the Army of the Potomac to the political capital, and the disastrous want of harmony between General Burnside and his subordinates. It will be strange if these extracts do not give rise to some controversy. Among the lighter papers is Mr. T. W. Higginson's "Revolutionary Congressman on Horseback" (William Ellery, one of the signers of the Declaration); Mr. William C. Church speaks with abundant knowledge of "American Arms and Ammunition"; and a paper on the "United States Life-Saving Service," by Mr. J. H. Merryman, probably does not presume too much on the willingness of magazine readers to listen at any time to well-written discourses on the dangers, discipline, and beneficence of this often-described institution.

—An anonymous writer contributes to *Lippincott's Magazine* for January a paper entitled "Forty Years Ago; or, Some Past Dangers to American Liberties." The past danger of slavery is the chief one considered, though those which forty years ago were thought likely to result from foreign immigration, Roman Catholic influence, "practical infidelity," and popular misrule, are also touched upon. The paper, indeed, is a review of the political situation in this country in 1840 and thereabouts, interspersed with reminiscences, and written sufficiently *currente calamo* to interest even the general reader in the condition of popular thought and the growth of a great popular movement, at what is now seen to have been one of the momentous periods of American history. Another serious article is a review of the international copyright question by Prof. Wm. F. Allen, who argues that the author's right of property in his own works rests "upon a consideration of the interests of both authors and the community," and proceeds upon that basis to discuss the controversy recently conducted in *Macmillan's Magazine*, favoring the view there taken by Mr. Conant, and defending his plan in the main against the English critic who attacked it. The rest of the number is light enough. The author of "Dorothy Fox" begins well a serial story entitled "Adam and Eve," and "Ouida" contributes an Italian sketch called "Umiltà," prettily conceived and effectively executed, though it is not altogether novel, and it has all the unmistakable ear-marks of "Ouida." For example, here is a speech made by the hero: "Make your girl come with you, or as sure as the figure of Christ hangs on yon cross I will wring her tongue out of her throat and nail it on your own house-door." It is needless to say that the girl goes with him, confesses that she has told a lie, everything is cleared up, Umiltà set free, and "Ouida" sees her "again go up between the stems of the pines in the glow of the lights amidst the cyclamens"—which means that she is out for a walk. The story would be better if it were shorter, but, as she remarks in the course of it concerning the recitations of Italian peasants, "Ouida" has "the defect of the uneducated—endless repetition."

—It may be something of a *tour de force* to convert so grave and compact a book as M. Rambaud's 'History of Russia' into a popular history, but the real want of a continuous and complete narrative to serve as a setting for

the various sketches of Russian affairs now so frequent, may justify the attempt. The original we have already reviewed at length (No. 722 of the *Nation*). The first volume (out of three) of a translation by L. B. Lang, edited and enlarged by Nathan H. Dole, and published by Estes & Lauriat, Boston, comes down to Peter the Great. The third will carry on M. Rambaud's work from 1872 to the present time. The translation is fair as such things go. It has not the crispness of a spirited literal rendering, nor yet that ease and unity of effect which can give to such work a style of its own. It is hard to account for a preference which constantly substitutes remote and involved constructions for the simple straightforwardness of the French. The title-page premises "enlarged," but it would have been more just to M. Rambaud to indicate when and where. Chapter ii., for instance, has two or three pages inserted to the exclusion of as much of the original. The simpler spelling of the Russian words is a step in the right direction. An adequate transliteration for English eyes is still a desideratum.

—The current number of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, which is published under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University, contains an account of a fundamentally new phenomenon in electricity, not explicable by anything hitherto known. The definition of the new action is not yet certainly made out; but it appears to be that if we say that the direction of a galvanic current is from the negative to the positive pole, then a magnet tends to deflect the current within the conductor in the same direction in which it tends to turn the conductor itself. This fact will be a complete surprise to physicists, and its importance to the theory of electricity can hardly be overestimated. The discoverer is Mr. E. H. Hall, assistant in the Laboratory of Professor Rowland, to whose encouragement and assistance the discovery was in a large measure due. It may justly be said that no discovery equally fundamental has been made within the last fifty years. Discoveries so novel have usually been in some degree the result of accident; but in this case elaborate and very delicate experiments were undertaken to ascertain whether or not any such phenomenon could be observed. The new force is exceedingly feeble, so that we cannot predict any practical applications for it.

—The same number of the *Journal* contains several other important papers, including three by the celebrated algebraist Sylvester. All of these afford salient examples "of the importance of the part played by the *faculty of observation* in the discovery of pure mathematical laws." There has been, perhaps, no other great mathematician in whose works this is so continually illustrated as in those of Professor Sylvester. An example of a mathematical proposition known to be true many years before any one succeeded in producing a demonstration of it, is the familiar fact that on any possible map, however complicated, the different countries may be distinguished from those which adjoin them by painting them in only *four* different colors. This has been known for a long time, but the first proof of it is given in the present number of the *Journal* by Mr. A. B. Kempe, well known for his investigations into linkage. The number also contains an explanation of the "curved ball" of the base-ball players, and a method for representing a space of four dimensions.

—Mlle. Marimon's appearance in Donizetti's "Figlia del Reggimento," which was given last Friday for the first time this season, was the leading event of last week's Italian opera. The prima donna gained the same popular success as in "Dinorah" and "Sonnambula." She sang the brilliant part of *Marie* in excellent style, and acted with finished grace and perfect taste. She was very well supported by Mr. Mapleson's company. The opera was well put on the stage and may be numbered as one of the few successes which Col. Mapleson has gained this season. Signor Del Puente was excellent as *Sulpizio*, and Signor Runcio was a very fair *Tonio*. Repetitions of "Dinorah," "Sonnambula," and "Aïda," in which last-named opera Mlle. Ambre is exceedingly interesting, filled the remaining evenings of the week.

—Since his return from a tour in the country Mr. Joseffy has given a series of pianoforte recitals in Chickering Hall, which in every respect fully sustain the high opinion that we formed of him at his first appearance. His programme, though rich in itself, is not of a very varied character, the principal numbers being always taken from the compositions of the most modern school; yet he has given such excellent proofs of what he can do with Bach and Handel, and other masters of the old school, that we should be glad to hear more of the beautiful productions of the fathers of pianoforte music. Beethoven, too, is sadly conspicuous by his absence from Mr. Joseffy's programmes, although the latter's superb rendering of the E flat Concerto, the greatest composition for pianoforte ever written, has convinced us that he is perfectly qualified to interpret the best works of the classical school. Mr. Joseffy is advertised to play in the third Philharmonic concert. We hope he will surprise and delight his audience with some great composition in which he has not been heard here.

—The programme of the second concert of the New York Philharmonic Society was, with the exception of some slight difference in the vocal numbers, the same as that performed at the Brooklyn Society's concert last Tuesday week. It was a programme of a peculiarly harmonious and consistent character, and Mr. Thomas must have been in very good humor when he selected a series of orchestral compositions of so bright and cheerful a character as those performed on Saturday last. The first number, Beethoven's festival overture, "Consecration of the House," which was composed for the occasion of the opening of the Josephstadt Theatre in Vienna, where it was performed for the first time in 1822, is at all times a delightful introduction to a symphony concert. The second orchestral number was a novelty: Prelude, Menuet, and Fugue, by Hugo Reinhold. This pretty little composition produced, even at first hearing, a most agreeable impression. It is full of graceful harmonies and pleasing melodies sure to take with a general audience, but we can safely predict that the work will not secure a lasting place on the programmes of our classical concerts. It is weak, lacking in originality and character, and, as it is for string instruments only, the absence of the fine and graphic effects of light and shade produced by the wind instruments is keenly felt. The menuet, for instance, with the trio which follows, is a charming little piece of filagree work, but it becomes positively tedious at a second and third hearing of the endless pianissimo and pizzicato passages. The third movement, the fugue, is decidedly the best of the whole work; it is more manly and broad in conception, and affords some relief to the sweet monotony of the first two movements. Mr. Thomas's string orchestra was admirable in every movement of the composition. After Mr. Reinhold's humdrum phrases Schumann's beautiful First Symphony (B flat, Op. 38) came like a spring morning, and was received with the same delighted enthusiasm which it always excites. Mr. Thomas's superb rendering fully deserved the warm appreciation of his audience. Wagner's stately introduction to the "Meistersinger," given with a spirit of dignity and intelligence that would gratify even the exacting caprices of the great master himself, brought a delightful evening to a worthy close. The vocalists of the concert were Mlle. Valleria and Sig. Galassi. Mlle. Valleria selected imprudently the celebrated scene from the second act of "Oberon," "Ocean! Thou mighty Monster!" which is altogether above her natural and acquired abilities. She must draw her line at Gounod's "Faust"; she cannot go a step beyond. She was less ambitious and far more fortunate in her choice at Brooklyn, where she sang Mendelssohn's "Infelice" in a very acceptable manner. Sig. Galassi sang the "Evening Star" from "Tannhäuser" as perhaps no living Italian artist could interpret the spirit of chaste simplicity of this noble composition.

—It is so important to our stage, as well as to our fine arts, that a measure of historical correctness should be introduced in the accessories, instead of the glaring faults now patent in everything the scene-painter or the historical painter sets his hand to, that a work such as Racinet's 'Costume Historique' arrives like a peculiar blessing (New York: J. W. Bouton). M. Racinet's assiduity and knowledge are proved and indisputable. In the seven numbers of 'Costume' now issued we have noticed but one case in which his archæological care has been imposed on, and that is in the reproduction in the fourth number of a so-called painting from the Baths of Titus, representing an ancient bathing-scene, which has been proved to be an invention of the sixteenth-century architect, Rusconi, by J. Marquardt ('Handbuch der römischen Alterthümer'). The twenty parts which will complete the work, seven having now appeared, will contain five hundred plates, mostly printed in suitable colors and metals, and each of these plates presents on an average about ten human figures, so that several thousand costumes, from the rarest and most authentic documents, will be in the possession of the art-lover who owns the work. In the seventh number are to be seen Bertelli's analyses of Venetian dresses, wherein the waist was lengthened and the feet supported on lofty pattens, concealed in the skirts, explaining the apparition of little-headed giantesses in some of the paintings of Veronese (for further examples of which see Charles Yriarte's 'Venice'); also an interesting page of a dozen or more "Nuremberg eggs," or antique watches. It is easier to say that the costumes are of every age and country than to particularize their surprising variety of period and nationality. The work is com-

piled with elegance and with conscience, and is interesting to nearly all, indispensable to many.

—A luxurious affair, *Le Trésor Artistique de la France*, which has come to a temporary or final pause at its twelfth number, exhibits an artful and mysterious application of photography; by means of an enamel glaze, beneath which colors are flushed over the underlying surfaces of gold or silver, the representation of Cellini jewelry or Limousin enamel is given with a perfection and delicacy not before approached. Mr. Christern represents the publication, which really needs the full explanation of this wonderful style of reproduction at the hands of the inventors to remove the suspicion of alchemy or black art. The treasures represented really seem to be created over again.

NILS ADOLF ERIK NORDENSKIÖLD.*

THE subject of this notice is known to American readers chiefly as the indefatigable head of the Swedish expedition which in the present year has accomplished the Northeast Passage by sea, and, in the *Vega*, is at this writing engaged in completing the circumnavigation of the continents of Europe and Asia. Few, except special students, may be aware that success in this extraordinary voyage was hardly needed to entitle him to the first place among living explorers of the Polar region; or that, measured by solid scientific contributions to general and detailed knowledg eof the Arctic basin between Baffin's Bay and Bering Strait, his record is wholly unparalleled by that of any other traveller. Accounts of the nine different Arctic expeditions in which Prof. Nordenskiöld has taken part during the last twenty years have appeared and become familiar to those interested in Arctic matters. That they are less known to the general reader is accounted for by the fact that they have chiefly appeared in the Swedish and German languages, or been summarized in geographical journals. It is, therefore, with no little satisfaction that we welcome the appearance of a translation by Alexander Leslie of extracts from the above-mentioned publications, giving in a condensed form the essential facts and most interesting results made known through these expeditions, with some illustrations and maps, preceded by a semi-autobiographical sketch of Nordenskiöld himself. The matter of the volume is so interesting, even to those not especially devoted to Arctic matters, that the reader finds the singular clumsiness of the translation, numerous typographical errors, and the for the most part inferior illustrations, chiefly noticeable because unusual in the publications of the Messrs. Macmillan, and insufficient to interfere seriously with his enjoyment of the text. For the various expeditions our readers are referred to the work itself, the space at command being perhaps more suitably utilized in laying before them a short account of the man.

Nils Adolf Erik Nordenskiöld (pronounced Nord'enshölt), the third child of Nils Gustaf Nordenskiöld, was born at Helsingfors, the capital of Finland, Nov. 18, 1832. He came of a race distinguished since the latter part of the seventeenth century for daring endeavor and scientific acquirements. Among them were mining engineers, soldiers, alchemists, scientific farmers. One, who in 1743 had the audacity to propose perpetual peace between Christian nations to the Empress of all the Russias, died excommunicated by the clergy of Finland; another, a chemist and abolitionist, died at Sierra Leone from injuries received from the blacks during an attempt at colonization, undertaken with the view of forming a free negro state. The family was ennobled in 1751, and Colonel Adolf Gustaf Nordenskiöld, of the next generation, built on his property of Frugord, in Finland, a peculiar residence, the central portion of which contained a large hall with a gallery, around which were arranged collections of natural history. A sepulchral mound in the park surrounding the house formed the last resting-place of several members of the family. The atmosphere of old Norse days pervaded Frugord, and cannot have been without influence on the lives of those sons of the race who, like Adolf Erik, were reared there.

Nils Gustaf, the father, a distinguished mineralogist, was Councillor of State and Chief of the Mining Department of Finland, to the development of which and to scientific mineralogy he devoted thirty years of study and travel. His son, while yet a boy, became an indefatigable collector of minerals and insects, and often accompanied the father in his geological journeys. From the care of a private tutor he passed to the gymnasium at Borgo, whose freedom from discipline permitted him during his first year to distinguish himself "only by absolute idleness." Subsequently, however, his self-respect came to his rescue, and a still larger measure of freedom, granted by his parents without reproach for previous deficiencies, resulted in industrious and successful study. Trouble between the authorities and students of the gymnasium having arisen in the eventful year of 1848, young Nordenskiöld, with many others, left the school. In 1849 he entered the University of Helsingfors, and passed his candidature examination in 1853, after which he undertook a mineralogical journey with his father to the Ural, a further excursion through Siberia being rendered impracticable by the breaking out of the Crimean War. On his return he entered with zeal into chemical and mineralogical studies, obtained his degree as licentiate in 1855, and began in the same year to publish original researches in his favorite branches and also upon natural history. Several appointments carrying a small salary rewarded his exertions.

At this time the condition of Finland, from a Russian point of view, was anomalous. Her affections bound her strongly to Sweden. A perfect freedom in expression of opinion was universal, while conspiracies and secret societies were unknown. The rigid rule of old Russia had never been put in force in Finland. When, therefore, a disciplinarian of the true Russian type was, on the outbreak of war, assigned to the Governor-Generalship of Finland, his unfamiliarized ear heard only plots and treason in the careless words of rollicking students warm with wine. A detected spy, himself a student, soon found the university too hot to hold him. Imprudent words at a later frolic brought about among other results, a scapegoat being required, the dismissal of young Nordenskiöld, who proceeded by way of St. Petersburg to Berlin, where he became a worker in the laboratory of Rose, and formed the acquaintance of many eminent men of science. Returning to Finland in the summer of 1856, he was awarded a stipend for a tour of study through Europe. Before departing he was to attend the "Promotion Festival," at which he was to receive the degree of M.A., with the first place among those entitled to it; and of doctor, with the second place in that list. At the invitation of the young graduates a deputation from the Swedish universities of Upsala and Lund, consisting of a professor and five eminent younger academicians, was to be present at the festival. These guests from the dear mother country were received with words of honor and welcome, whose warmth to the Russian Governor-General smacked but too strongly of treason, which existed only in his own imagination. This Count von Berg, a stranger to the country he governed, never was able to comprehend the co-existence of the despotic rule of Russia and the habit of freedom, centuries old, which then actually prevailed in Finland. An imprudent speech at a banquet given to the departing guests, denounced as treason by Von Berg; retirement to Frugord, and finally to Sweden, assisted by an old passport; a judgment, hasty and possibly illegal, depriving Nordenskiöld of the right ever to hold office in the university, followed in quick succession.

This was the turning point in his life. Received by the illustrious Mosander with great cordiality, although the latter highly disapproved of the liberal views which had brought such trouble upon the young student, Nordenskiöld devoted himself to earnest study, and in 1858 began his career of Arctic adventure by taking part in Torell's first expedition to Spitzbergen. A subsequent visit to Finland, and an unsatisfactory interview with Von Berg, led to his exclusion from his native land until a change of governors took place. This was of the less consequence, since it had been understood before leaving Stockholm that he was to return there to take the place at the Riks-Museum left vacant by the death of Mosander. In consequence of his exertions the mineralogical cabinet under his care has become one of the most considerable in Europe. In 1861 he took part in Torell's second expedition to North Spitzbergen. On his return, the removal of Von Berg permitted him to revisit Frugord, where his mother had passed away, the opportunity of soothing her last moments having been denied her son.

In July, 1863, he married Anna Mannerheim, daughter of ex-President Count Carl Mannerheim, of Finland, a lady whose good sense, varied accomplishments, and strength of character combined to make the union most happy and congenial. In 1864 he led an expedition fitted out by the Academy to Spitzbergen, with a view of measuring an arc of the meridian and completing Torell's survey of 1861. In 1868, aided by the Government and by Oscar Dickson, the Mæcenas of Sweden, he carried a small iron steamer to the highest latitude known to have been attained in the eastern hemisphere by any vessel; also bringing back rich collections. With a view of preparing for future journeys, he undertook, at Mr. Dickson's cost, a voyage to Greenland in 1870. As the son of a native Swedish nobleman, soon after being naturalized in Sweden, he sat in the House of Nobles, and became the Liberal representative of Stockholm in

* 'The Arctic Voyages of Adolf Erik Nordenskiöld, 1858-1879.' Pp. xiv. 447, 8vo, maps and cuts. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.

the Diet from 1869 to 1871. In 1872 he led a new Polar expedition to Spitzbergen, wintering there in imminent peril of starvation from the detention of the provision-tenders with their crews, and from having to relieve a large number of shipwrecked walrus-hunters. In 1875 he made his way with little difficulty to the Yenisei in a small sailing-vessel, which was sent back, while Nordenskiöld and several companions ascended the river to Yeniseisk and reached home by an overland journey, after having opened a commercial route of the greatest importance to Northern Siberia. In 1876, after visiting America in the capacity of a juror at the International Exhibition at Philadelphia, he repeated the journey to the Yenisei and returned to Europe by sea. In July, 1878, he sailed on the voyage which culminated during the past summer in the accomplishment of the Northeast Passage.

The results of all this activity are unparalleled. The least important of his voyages has been more productive than the immense expeditions of Belcher and Nares, in all that goes toward increasing our knowledge of the conditions and products characteristic of the Arctic seas. Even in geographical research the fruits have been great, while no time has been lost in theorizing about an open Polar Sea or paleocrystic formations. Nordenskiöld's career has been throughout a striking exemplification of the success of scientific methods urged on by well-directed energy and the fire of individual enthusiasm trained, but not subdued, by long experience. To those enjoying the privilege of his acquaintance, appreciation of his work is heightened by the personal charm of a *bonhomie* and freedom from conventionality left untainted by that self-estimation which might be so readily pardoned in one who, like Adolf Erik Nordenskiöld, may be said to have formed a habit of success.

RECENT NOVELS.*

IT has rarely been our lot to read two sillier and more vulgar books than 'Vic' and 'Mr. Phillips's Goneness.' What greater waste of type and paper can there be than to print such stuff—the chronicles of the drunken employees of a country printing-office, a poor boarding-house, and of love (so-called) and matrimony founded on nothing and coming to nothing. 'Vic' is more melodramatic, more impossible, more *flash*, but as vulgar as futile. Better to "listen to the flapping of the fire," to discuss the thermometer, to collect bent pins, better any quiet method of wasting one's life than to read such books. "The Danbury *News* Man" has done better things. Nobody excels him in his descriptions of hens or of house-cleaning; but we recommend long abstinence from pen and paper as the beginning of a cure. Before he dies he may again have something to say.

'The Tribulations of a Chinaman' is a very lively extravaganza, and, as the scene is laid at our antipodes, we are not so much shocked with the topsy-turvy quality which inheres in this sort of book. The moral is definite, but so skilfully wrapped up in absurdities of all sorts as not to be offensive to the lightest reader.

Christian Reid is a voluminous writer of romances which apparently find readers. It would probably puzzle a foreigner making his first acquaintance with English literature through her novels to imagine in what part of the English-speaking world they had their origin, and we have often wondered to what country or province and to what age such a foreigner would probably assign them. They belong really to a world of their own. It is a world in which there are fine old estates the owners of which are travelling about in search of amusement, letting their places go to rack and ruin, flirting desperately, fighting duels occasionally, and behaving generally in a thoroughly frivolous manner, until a casual meeting with the heroine changes their whole nature and makes them serious men and devoted lovers, and, after all sorts of misadventure and unhappiness, fortune smiles on the happy pair at the end of the volume. It is a world, moreover, in which there are "gentle belles" to fall in love with the wandering heirs at the same time the wandering heirs fall in love with them, and to suffer in the quiet, patient way in which gentle belles suffer through nine-tenths of this volume. It is a world in which "fast" young women, just grown up, receive young men in "boudoirs," carry on numerous flirtations, and engage, disengage, and re-engage themselves at pleasure, and altogether do what they please. It is a world in which ideas of romance peculiar to the last century seem to be very inharmoniously mingled with the hard realism of the present day; in which we never feel sure whether the author has derived her experience of life from reading Sir Walter Scott or the *Herald's* Newport correspondence. There is only one quarter of the globe which could produce such a novel as 'A Gentle Belle.' For fear of fomenting sectional strife we will not mention it by its geographical designation, but merely say that it is neither in Europe, Asia, Africa, nor Oceanica. The plot of 'A Gentle Belle' is simple enough, though it is intended by the author to be complicated. Vincent Dering, dying at Florence, leaves behind him a young and beautiful daughter, Alma. Just as her father was lying at the point of death, Dare Singleton, the son of an old friend, not knowing the condition of Mr. Dering, had called at the Dering villa, and is invited in to witness the old gentleman's will. This is the beginning of the acquaintance between Dare Singleton and Alma. By her father's will Alma is to live half the time with her sister, Mrs. Hamilton, a designing woman of the world and a particular friend of the hitherto "flirtatious" Dare, and half the year with some relatives named Digby. Singleton falls in love with Alma, while Mrs. Hamilton determines that she shall make quite a different marriage. For the purpose of breaking up Alma's growing interest in Dare her sister "exposes" an old flirtation of his with one Ida Palfrey. Ida has been playing fast and loose with Alfred Lennox, and appearances are rather against Dare, whose behavior, it must be confessed, is far from exemplary. Meanwhile Gerard Digby, who the experienced novel-reader sees from the first is too good and noble to live very long, falls in love with Alma, and Lennox and Singleton fight a wholly unnecessary duel, and Alma, believing Singleton faithless, engages herself to Digby. After the duel Singleton disappears and roams over the world, and at length his yacht is driven upon the coast in a storm; Digby loses his life in saving that of his rival, the lovers are reconciled, and Mrs. Hamilton, who is convicted of having purposely destroyed a letter which would have prevented any misunderstanding between them, is utterly discomfited. A husband is found for Ida Palfrey in Philip Lindsay, and so the story ends. It is not a powerful or engrossing tale, but, as illustrating the danger of flirtation and the power of true love, and enforcing the sanctity of private correspondence, may be read with profit.

A love story, with the scene laid in Syria among the missionaries, is rather a novelty in literature. The heroine, Irene Grant, a good but poor girl, goes out with Mr. and Mrs. Payson to labor among the missionaries, and comes back after a few trifling adventures as the wife of Hubertsen De Vries, of Albany. This is the sum and substance of the story, though there are, of course, other characters—a poker-playing consul, of the sort that it is the fashion now to put into novels, ignorant of all languages, customs, laws, and religions but his own, but getting along well enough in any country to which he may be accredited through his imperturbable good-humor and kindliness. The consul, it should be said, falls in love with Irene, as does also Dr. Macklin, who is more natural and life-like than some of the other characters in the book. There are a good many people connected with missionary life who are virtuous, but tedious, as is also much of the descriptive writing of the author. Saada, the little Syrian girl whom De Vries succeeds in making miserable in an interval of his love-affair with Irene, is rather an attractive sketch. We regret to say that the author's sentiments are not as patriotic as they should be. What are we to say of this?—"I suspect also that in our American society there is no young gentleman so grand and so redoubtable in the eyes of a poor girl as the young gentleman who has a great deal of money. No matter for native dignity, for conscious worth of character, for noble or even sacred purposes in life. They all seem to fail, alas! and to hide diminished countenances in presence of a fact which appeals to the natural desires and strong needs of feminine nature." There must be some mistake about this.

Mrs. Edwardes is the author of several clever novels, of which the best is 'Ought We to Visit Her?' She showed in that a great deal of cleverness, managed her story well, discriminated her characters so that they could be identified by other means than the recurrence of the same name (a feat by no means universal with female novelists), and generally succeeded in exciting an interest in her tale which she sustained to the end. Without meaning to speak positively, we shall, as a tribute inspired by a recollection of her previous tales, suggest that 'Vivian the Beauty' is probably the worst story that Mrs. Edwardes ever wrote. It relates to the loves of a little English girl living in Schloss Egmont, in one of "the

* 'Vic: A Novel. By A. Benrimo.' New York: The Author's Publishing Company.
'Mr. Phillips's Goneness. By James M. Bailey, "The Danbury *News* Man."' Boston: Lee & Shepard.
'The Tribulations of a Chinaman in China. From the French of Jules Verne, by Virginia Champlin.' Boston: Lee & Shepard.
'A Gentle Belle By Christian Reid.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.
'Irene the Missionary.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1879.
'Vivian the Beauty. By Mrs. Annie Edwardes.' [Handy-Volume Series.] New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.

remoter valleys of the Höllenthal," and her German instructor, Wolfgang, who in the end turns out to be no other than Paul von Egmont, the heir of the great Egmont estate. The story is very hastily constructed, and there are many points in it which we should like to have cleared up were it not for a lack of interest in knowing what the result would be. Mrs. Edwardes introduces into her story a London beauty of the "professional" variety, who expresses her admiration of things by exclaiming, "How quite too awfully jolly!" and, on hearing Talleyrand mentioned, begs that "if the great Talleyrand—whoever that venerable duffer may be—is still alive," her entertainer will "have him over to Schloss Egmont." Vivian may be shortly described as grossly rude, vulgar, envious, deceitful, "loud," and lacking everything that makes a woman attractive except physical beauty. But we are unwilling to believe in her existence. Mrs. Edwardes has taken her not from real life, but from the "fashionable weeklies."

Notwithstanding the title, 'Castle Foam' is a serious work of fiction, with a plot of the most elaborate character, founded apparently upon some Russian historical incident or legend. It is not easy reading, though it must have been hard writing, owing to a difficulty the author has in appreciating the effect of motives on the human character, and a defective education in ethics and criminal law. A great deal of the story hinges upon the consequences of the murder of Count Kramareff by a young soldier. The young man clearly killed Count Kramareff because Count Kramareff was just about to kill him; and, however unfortunate, the act was justifiable homicide under the laws of all civilized states and in the forum of morals. No doubt, in Russia at the time, it placed the soldier in an awkward predicament, but it need not have caused him much remorse. The best thing in the story is the love episode of Kathi-Chichkini and the prince. The ramifications of the plot are difficult to follow, and must have involved an enormous amount of misdirected labor on the part of the author.

'The Markets of Paris' is called M. Zola's favorite novel, and the reason for his preference is not far to seek, since it is, so far as our acquaintance with his books goes, the most successful and the subtlest study he has made of one of those colorless characters which offer few or no salient points to most students of life, but whose delineation always tasks the highest powers of the novelist of the first class. The heroine, Lisa, belongs to the Macquart branch of the Rougon-Macquart family—with different members of which all of M. Zola's books are concerned—and unites in herself her father's selfishness and her mother's industry; she may be called, in fact, the embodiment of the reasons which led to her parents' marriage. Her "enlightened self-interest" assures her that it is in the orderly paths of life that comfort dwells, and it is only by the unwisdom of disorder, weakness, poverty, and sin that so poignant a passion as anger is aroused in her. Her husband's brother, an escaped exile, suddenly reappears one day. Lisa is at once ready to divide with him the inheritance which her husband received from his uncle, and is displeased at the arrangement between the two brothers which leaves it all in her hands and gives Florent a home with them. Her dislike of her brother-in-law begins with her aversion to any one who has suffered such hardships; that he has suffered unjustly, and that his character is noble, only emphasizes her general sense of a hopeless muddle where everything should be clear. His willingness to live without work, although he does not spend a tithe of what belongs to him, increases this aversion by offending her sense of the necessity of work in any well-ordered life, and in one way and another she forces him to accept a position under the government which he hates as his persecutor. He is drawn into a revolutionary society, which she discovers, and, frightened for the safety of her family, she denounces him to the police, who are already in possession of her story through anonymous letters from the neighbors. Florent is transported, and Lisa quiets her conscience by reflecting that her course was open, and that her brother-in-law had already been denounced, and above all by the return to the quiet and orderly life that had been interrupted. There is nothing contemptible in Lisa, it is to be remarked. She is one of the elements of society, and a product of civilization; though an incarnation of selfishness, from sheer force of selfish wisdom she escapes the patent failings of characters superficially similar; she has, indeed, the garnered worldly wisdom of ages, and might be offered to Mr. Mallock as an example of the passion with which "honesty is the best policy" may be worshipped, or to some of his critics as an example of the tragedy such a character develops when brought into contact with a life ordered by ideas which, however completely they may prefigure the wisdom of the future, nevertheless threaten the comfort secured by the wisdom of the past. Like the rest of his books, 'The Markets of Paris' shows M. Zola committed to a theory of novel-writing, but, unlike some of them, it shows his ability, when he is at his best, to sink his theorizing in an acute and dispassionate study of life and character. The details of the story, aside from the development of its principal character, are even slighter than is usual with him.

As a work of construction 'The Conquest of Plassans' is much more deft and elaborate, though here as elsewhere with M. Zola the pleasure to be derived is gratification at the solution, or at least the adequate presentation, of a problem, social and individual. The character study here, however, though highly refined, is subordinated to the exigencies of a plot with reasonable rigor. No abstract of it can give the play of opposing motives in its different personages, but we may indicate these in a brief outline: An ambitious and arrogant priest, a tool of the Empire, is sent to Plassans to win over the town to the Government. His first conquest is over the simple minds of the Mouret husband and wife, the former of whom belongs to the Macquart and the latter to the Rougon branch of the Rougon-Macquart family. Side by side with the action of the story runs the development of the family antagonism between these two, Mouret and Marthe, due to the wife's unconscious love for the priest. This love is disdained and dreaded; but she is a necessary tool to the Abbé Faujas, and he uses her to gain control over Plassans. Through her love and his mother's acquisitiveness he is gradually installed as the head of the Mouret family, and his sister and her husband take up their abode in the house and begin a system of general pilfering. Marthe's constitutional hysteria is aggravated by the life of excitement she leads; her nervous convulsions, in which she beats and injures herself, give rise to the suspicion that her husband intends to murder her; and Mouret himself, who inherits the weak physical nature of their grandmother—Mr. Spencer would be charmed with M. Zola—becomes so frightened and moody that their friends hurry him into an insane asylum. The abbé's plots are successful, and he is able to return the Government's candidate. Marthe is spurned by him, and after a visit to her husband her weak nerves succumb at the terrible sight of his insanity, and she dies that night. Mouret manages to escape, returns to his old home, and, finding it in possession of the Faujas people, burns it to the ground in a frenzy, and perishes with the priest in the flames.

'The Last Athenian' is an historical novel that recalls in some sort both 'Hypatia' and Bulwer's classic romances. It is probably fully as accurate a reproduction of certain features of the fourth century as Kingsley's work is of Neo-Platonism, and its Swedish authorship is perhaps accountable for its superiority to such works as 'The Last Days of Pompeii' in simplicity and straightforwardness. It is in effect an exaltation of the Donatists and Novatians over the Roman Church, and the exceedingly slight love-story is sacrificed to the development of a republican philosophy of Christianity, which is the point of the book. Its bulk is swelled—to an extent which induces sympathy and admiration for the translator—by numerous platitudes and a fulness of trite description which remind one of the criticism of the Japanese on the French Salon: "These pictures are of course intended to instruct the children; show me your best—where the imagination is excited by a suggestion."

'The Prehistoric World' may pass for a historical novel also. It will, probably, have some difficulty in finding its audience, since, on the one hand, students of the bearings of the great scientific discoveries doubtless prefer to construct their own pre-historic romance; and, on the other, the ordinary omnivorous reader, who could easily be interested in a strictly scientific work, is hard to catch with facts arranged on the thread of a romance which drags as a story, and in which he is unable to sift out the fact that may be held to, from the invention of the novelist's fanciful license. The book is divided into three separate stories: 'The Parisians of the Stone Age,' 'The Age of Polished Stone,' and 'The Age of Metals,' of which the last is much the most interesting.

Mrs. Wister's translations from the German are better known by her name than by those of their several authors, and a new translation by her is as sure of a welcome as if the merits of the original were already notorious. 'In the Schillingscourt,' by E. Marlitt, has the usual elements of the older German novel of the present day; the grave and stern hero main-

'Castle Foam; or, the Heir of Meerschaum. A Russian Story. By H. W. French.' Boston: Lee & Shepard; New York: Charles T. Dillingham. 1880.
'The Markets of Paris. By Emile Zola. Translated by John Stirling.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 1879.
'The Conquest of Plassans.' Same author and publishers.
'The Last Athenian. From the Swedish of Victor Rydberg by William W. Thomas, jr.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 1879.
'The Prehistoric World. From the French of Elie Berthet by Mary J. Safford.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1879.
'In the Schillingscourt. From the German of E. Marlitt by Mrs. A. L. Wister.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.

tains an agreeable and lively game of fencing with the haughty heroine, till it is finished on the last page by a happy marriage. In this instance a complication results from the circumstance that the hero is already married to a woman selected for him by his father because of her wealth, but this is easily arranged by the *deus ex machinâ* of a divorce. It is noticeable that discussion of all sorts, from Socialism to decorative art, is beginning to push its way into the regions of such pure romance as Marlitt's stories, with the effect of making them more unreal and far less agreeable.

'In Prison and Out' might have been a study of life among the poor of London, but is, instead, a story which we owe to the imagination of the author, having but a slight hold on reality. David Fell is forced, through his mother's poverty and his own ignorance of any useful art, to beg for their support; he is arrested under the Vagrant Act and hastily condemned to three months' imprisonment, and upon his release he is recommitted for two years upon a false charge, to which the fact that he is a jail-bird gives weight. From that time on he becomes one of the "dangerous classes," and finally ends his life in prison. What might have been done to save him is shown by the example of another boy who steals the money of a poor man who has befriended him and who refuses on humanitarian grounds to prosecute him. The boy is pushed along by one friend and another, becomes captain of a ship, and adds insult to injury by marrying David's sister, the story ending in a general happiness that it is plain we don't deserve. The melancholy truth is, however, that both boys became thieves, the girl went to the bad, and old Euclid and his daughter, after the loss of their money, had to come on the parish for the coffins which it was their sole ambition to furnish for themselves. A course of Zola may at least be confidently commended to "Hesba Stretton."

Three good stories which have heretofore appeared in *Lippincott's Magazine* are published anonymously under the title of 'Women's Husbands.' The first is 'The Barber of Midas,' in which the course of true love is obstructed by the curiosity and meddlesome fussiness of a man who is intended to show that these traits are not exclusively feminine ones, and who fulfils the mission not too obtrusively. 'The False Prince' portrays the struggles of a snobbish man to hide his vulgar antecedents. In 'Narcissus,' the third and best, the hero alienates by his self-worship the woman whom he loves, and marries her who only reflects his image. The latter dies, but he loses his second chance from the same cause, and passes his life in unsatisfied longing for he knows not what.

Miss Olney's novel may be divided into two distinct parts as regards excellence of workmanship. The coquette in her different influences upon the men who surround her, though not strictly novel, is nevertheless thoroughly well done; but the contrasted heroine, who is intended to be everything that is good and high, is often absurd, from her introduction as a child of eleven in command of a large house and a retinue of servants, including her grandfather, to the complication of her marriage, the misunderstanding of which is unnaturally and disagreeably prolonged.

There is nothing very remarkable to notice in '"A Man's a Man for a' That"' except the extravagance of its naïveté. The struggling young hero masters Greek in three months, is graduated at Harvard, and immediately acquires a law practice which brings him in the pittance of eight thousand dollars a year; but as he is the son of a farmer, society, of course, shuts its doors in his face. He marries the daughter of a banker ruined by the Portland fire. This young lady, fresh from enforced school-teaching, finds her husband's income of ten thousand dollars in a country where they have no society very restricted, and when their son is born their condition is so pitiable that the authoress has to relent and unearth from the ruins of the Portland fire a safe containing a will which enriches them by a million, and puts them beyond the reach of absolute want. Somehow or other, too, the social ban that has been crushing them is raised.

'Di Cary' is almost as ingenuous in its own way. It is a story of the South since the war, in which Yankee thrift is much praised and the necessity for something like it in the Southern gentleman broadly hinted at. The Yankee always appears with his tool-box, and casually gives the Southerner a practical lesson to the effect that a stitch in time saves nine by mending every bridge they pass over, accompanying his work the while by a lecture upon its usefulness. We note some rare toilets: one young lady wears a silk waist and tulle bonnet and fan on horseback, and the heroine receives a morning call in a blue lawn dress "fresh from the ironing-table," with a wreath of roses on her brow.

'A Fool's Errand' is a political story, dealing with what is in general indefinitely described as the Southern problem. The Fool fights through the war, and having faith in the Union, and believing that with the end of the war has come a settlement of all differences with the South, he goes thither to live, hoping to restore his lost health. Then come the incidents of reconstruction: the social attitude of Southern people toward the Northern man among them, the rise and decline of the Ku-klux outrages, the present prejudices which are to be overcome and overcome only by systematic, thoroughgoing, popular education. A movement in this direction the Fool thinks must begin at the North, as the South has always been heartily opposed to it. The story is given only to float the political and social study which the book really is, and which is pursued with great candor and no small discrimination, and evidently has an empirical basis.

'Old Friends and New' is a collection of Miss Jewett's stories, most of which have already appeared in the magazines. They are all gracefully done, and 'The Lost Lover' and 'Madame Ferry' may be especially commended for the delicate fancy they illustrate.

'Constance Winter's Choice' is one of the better stories of a very poor class; it will probably be shunned by all who know "the railway novel" when they see it, but nevertheless it is entirely possible to finish it if one begins it in a very idle hour.

The Life and Works of Gilbert Stuart. By George C. Mason. With selections from Stuart's Portraits reproduced on steel and by photogravure. (New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1879. 4to, pp. xii. 286.)—In form and appearance this is an amateur's book, in the best sense: *vrai livre d'amateur.* It is not often that such books appear in America. Although the plates, all but two, are photogravures only, yet the excellent character of the process when properly carried out, its accuracy of reproduction, and the artistic look of the prints, prevent any cheap or makeshift appearance. The two prints not photographic are, the one an etching in simple line, the other an engraving, and the impressions from both are fine. The book is beautifully printed, with paper such as it is a pleasure to see, and has a seemly cover in grey cloth with lettering in brown and red. On the whole there has not been so elegant an American fine-art book since Mr. Loubat's 'Medallic History of the United States,' though it lacks, indeed, what the latter had—original engravings of great value and unusual character. The contents have to do, fortunately, with one of the few American artists whose reputation is a dignified one. Gilbert Stuart is long enough dead to be an old master already. The massive and somewhat splendid character of his portraits associates itself with the costume of our forefathers, with the high rank and reputation of many of his sitters, and especially with the memory of Washington, in a way to make his works and himself peculiarly important to all Americans. A chapter of our early national history is to be found in this book. We open, for example, upon portraits of Washington and his wife, of General Gates and General Knox, of Chief-Justice Jay and Madame Bonaparte.

Half of the volume is devoted to what is called, modestly, "A List of Stuart's Works." It is a list only in the sense that it is alphabetical and in nowise classified; but the full description of the pictures and the men and women who sat for them, with dates and memoranda which it must have taken great labor to get together, make it a catalogue of a rather unusually complete sort. The Washington portraits are not included in this list, but stand by themselves, the discussion of them forming a separate chapter of thirty-five pages. Another chapter treats of the portraits of Stuart himself by different persons. Still another contains a very few letters addressed to him by famous people of his time. His own alleged remarks on art (printed in the *Crayon* for March, 1861), and said to have been printed in a broadside by James Bogle, the portrait-painter, form one brief chapter, and the first part of the book is occupied with an account of his own life and character. This last forms a very interesting, brief memoir, with great store of anecdotes, of which, to be sure, there are many to choose from. It would seem that there is little material for a complete biography; which is to be regretted, for Gilbert Stuart lived

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'In Prison and Out. By Hesba Stretton.' New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1879.
'Women's Husbands.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.
'Through Winding Ways. By Ellen W. Olney.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.
'"A Man's a Man for a' That."' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.
'Di Cary. By M. Jacqueline Thornton.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.

'A Fool's Errand. By One of the Fools.' New York: Fords, Howard & Hurlbert. 1879.
'Old Friends and New. By Sarah O. Jewett.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.
'Constance Winter's Choice.' Boston: Loring. 1879.

among famous people, both in England and in America, and was a pleasure-loving, society-seeking, outspoken, opinionated, and brilliant man, whose life and adventures would be worth having.

Especially noticeable in this book is a certain tone of independent judgment, difficult to maintain when discussing pictures in private hands, the knowledge of which can be gained only by favor of the owners. It seems to us that no person ought to take offence at anything said here, and yet the relative value of the pictures, in the writer's judgment, seems to be made clear. His success in so delicate a matter makes one wish there were more positive analysis and criticism of Stuart's work ; of this the reader will find very little, and nothing final and satisfactory.

Tyrol and the Skirt of the Alps. By George E. Waring, Jr. (New York : Harper & Brothers.)—It was entirely worth while publishing in book-form the series of papers which Mr. George E. Waring, Jr., contributed to *Harper's Magazine* last year under the title "Berg und Thal." They now make a volume of 171 large pages, admirably printed, and illustrated with some sixty-odd woodcuts. It may be briefly described as the record of the journey indicated in its title by an observant tourist who has the faculty of noting what he sees and of judging it dispassionately. We fail to find in it any trace of the book-making spirit, a negative virtue rare enough in works of the kind to be specifically mentioned. The reader's attention is asked for the professed subject of the work and not for the personal experiences and emotions of the traveller. There is enough of incident, however, to give reality and, in spots, vivacity to the narrative, and now and then a little philosophizing, such as, for example : "I have sometimes wondered whether the real snob may not be the ultimate development of that incipient feeling which the best of us must recognize among the emotions with which we greet a stranger coming to the vacant seat beside us" ; but this is infrequent enough to indicate Mr. Waring's consciousness that this means of infusing piquancy into a book of travel is not so much his forte as are observation and report. The book might be read in connection with Grohmann's 'Tyrol and the Tyrolese,' we suggest, for it is much more than a holiday gift-book (though it is that, too), and has the solid quality of instructiveness. To this end it would have been even more valuable if it had been more explicit, and had not assumed so much geographical and other knowledge in the reader ; an outline map, such as could have been easily supplied, and, perhaps, an itinerary would have been useful additions—helps in which 'A Farmer's Vacation' was less deficient. The illustrations are not only in good taste but they illustrate the text, and, what is more, the text does not ignore their existence.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
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ERRATA.

Page 58, col. i, line 11 from bottom. For "R. S. Stoddard" read "R. H. Stoddard."

Page 81, col. i, line 27. For "1872" read "1842."

Page 98, col. i, line 24. For "gods" read "yods."

Page 145, col. i, line 4. For "Fluellen" read "Pistol."

Page 185, col. ii, line 24 from bottom. For "Turkomans" read "Tekke Turkomans."

Page 187, col. ii, line 26 from bottom. For "$110,000" read "$110,000."

Page 231, col. ii, lines 27, 28 from bottom. For "Bagandæ" read "Bagaudæ."

Page 244, col. ii, line 10. For "Cave's" read "Dilly's."

Page 313, col. ii, line 10. For "neue" read "frische" Line 11, for "kämpfen" read "fechten."

Page 356, col. i, line 6 from bottom. For "$158,000" read "$158,000,000."

Page 423, col. ii, line 9. For "10th" read "3d."

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